AND

A GLOS

CASTELLI, BLA

By ROBERT HOOPER,

SISTANT PHYSICIAN TO THE ST. MARY-LE-BONE I

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TO

WILLIAM SAUNDERS, M.D. F.R.S.

FELLOW OF THE ROYAL COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS;

OF THE ANTIQUARIAN AND OTHER SOCIETIES;

THIS EDITION IS DEDICATED,

AS A MARK OF RESPECT AND ESTEEM,

BY HIS SINCERE FRIEND,

THE AUTHOR.

PREFACE.

WHEN Dr. Quincy publiſhed the firſt edition of his Lexicon Medicum, mathematical principles were generally adopted to explain the actions of the animal frame: hence we find in his work a continual recurrence to them. Since his time the functions of the animal economy and the knowledge of anatomy have received ſucceſſive improvements, and the faſhionable follies of mathematical explications have been reduced to their proper ſtandard. To preſerve the name which Dr. Quincy ſo deſervedly obtained, and to render his work as uſeful as poſſible, ſuch alterations and amendments were made in every following edition, as were ſuited to the doctrine of the times. It nevertheleſs has ſo happened, that his work, even in the thirteenth edition, contains very many of the abſurdities of his day: The anatomical explanations are given in the language of the old ſchools, too often tedious, and abounding with every hypotheſis; the phyſiology of the human body has been almoſt wholly over looked; and

all uſeful noſological deſcriptions omitted. Similar deficiencies and uſeleſs uxuberances occur in every other department of the work; and the number of obſolete terms retained, were very conſiderable. When, therefore, the editor of the preſent edition was ſolicited to undertake its reviſion, he thought he could not do a more acceptable office to the public, than almoſt wholly new model it. With this view he has been careful to collect ſuch information as may render the work generally uſeful. The whole of his COMPENDIOUS MEDICAL DICTIONARY has been introduced into this edition, and ſuch deficiencies as occurred have been amended. Particular attention has been paid to the derivation of the terms; the anatomical deſcription of the various parts, and the explanation of their functions, have been much enlarged; the diſeaſes are conſidered according to the moſt approved noſological arrangement, and their ſymptoms and diſtinctions clearly enumerated: the materia medica and the preparations which enter the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopœias have been amply conſidered; the improvements of modern Chemiſtry every where introduced, and the terms in Surgery, Midwifry, Medical Botany, and other Branches of Natural Philoſophy, as far as connected with Medical Science, have been fully treated. In doing this, the author has conſulted the moſt eminent writers on the different branches of medicine, and has made ſuch extracts, abridgments, and tranſlations, as the extent of the work would admit. The learned reader will therefore readily perceive his obligations to HALLER, ALBINUS, HUNTER, CRUICKSHANK, SÆMMERING, SCARPA, MEYER,

BELL, SYMMONDS, VAUGHAN; MURRAY, BERGIUS, WOODVILLE, SWEIDEUR, LEWIS; CULLEN, SAUVAGE, WILSON, ROWLEY, THOMAS, WILLAN; POTT, BELL, LATTA, CALLISEN, RICHTER; DENMAN, OSBORNE, LAVOISIER, FOURCROY, CHAPTALL, SAUNDERS, GREN, DUNCAN, &c.

At the end is added a GLOSSARY of obsolete terms, selected from the works of QUINSEY, BLANCHARD, CASTELLI, TURTON, &c.

A NEW

MEDICAL DICTIONARY.

A, AA, ANA, (*ana*, from ανα, which ſignifies of each). A term in pharmacy. It is never uſed but after the mention of two or more ingredients, when it implies that the quantity mentioned of each ingredient ſhould be taken, *e. g.* R. *Sal. nitri. pulv.—Sacchar. alb. āā* ℥j. *i. e.* take ſalt of nitre powdered, and white ſugar, of each one drachm.

ABBREVIATION, (*Abbreviatio, onis*, f.). The principal uſes of medicinal abbreviations are in preſcriptions; in which they are certain marks, or half words uſed by phyſicians for diſpatch and conveniency when they preſcribe, thus—R readily ſupplies the place of *recipe—h. s.* that of *hora ſomni—n. m.* that of *nucis moſchatæ—elect.* that of *electarium*, &c. and in general all the names of compound medicines, with the ſeveral ingredients, are frequently wrote only up to their firſt or ſecond ſyllable, or ſometimes to their third or fourth, to make them clear and expreſſive. Thus *Croc. Anglic.* ſtands for *Crocus Anglicanus—Conf. Aromat.* for *Confectio Aromatica*, &c. A point being always placed at the end of ſuch ſyllables in medicine, ſhews the word to be incomplete.

ABDŌMEN, (*Abdomen, ĭnis*, n. from *abdo* to hide, becauſe it hides the viſcera. It is alſo derived from *abdere* to hide, and *omentum*, the caul; and by others it is ſaid to be only a termination, as from *lego, legumen*, ſo from *abdo, abdomen*). The abdomen is the largeſt cavity in the body, bounded ſuperiorly by the diaphragm, by which it is ſeparated from the cheſt; inferiorly by the bones of the pubis and *iſchium*; on each ſide by various muſcles, the ſhort ribs and *oſſa ilii*; anteriorly by the abdominal muſcles, and poſteriorly by the vertebræ of the loins, the *os ſacrum* and *os coccygis*. Internally it is inveſted by a ſmooth membrane called *peritoneum*, and externally by muſcles and common integuments.

In the cavity of the abdomen are contained

1. *Anteriorly* and *laterally*.
   1. The meſentery.
   2. The epiploon.
   3. The ſtomach.
   4. The large and ſmall inteſtines.
   5. The lacteal veſſels.
   6. The pancreas.
   7. The ſpleen.
   8. The liver and gall bladder.
2. *Poſteriorly, without the peritoneum* are
   1. The kidneys.
   2. The ſupra renal glands.
   3. The ureters.
   4. The *receptaculum chyli*.
   5. The deſcending aorta.
   6. The aſcending vena cava.

3. *Inferiorly in the pelvis*, and *without the peritoneum*,

In men,

1. The urinary bladder.
2. The ſpermatic veſſels.
3. The *inteſtinum rectum*.

In women, beſide the urinary bladder and *inteſtinum rectum*, there are

1. The *uterus*,
2. The four ligaments of the *uterus*,
3. The two *ovaria*;
4. The two Fallopian tubes,
5. The *vagina*.

The fore part of this cavity, as has been mentioned, is covered with muſcles and common integuments, in the middle of which is the navel. It is this part of the body which is properly called *abdomen*; it is diſtinguiſhed by anatomiſts into regions. See *Epigaſtric*, *Hypochondriac*, *Umbilical* and *Hypogaſtric regions*.

The poſterior part of the abdomen is called the loins, and the ſides the *Epicolic regions*.

ABDOMINAL HERNIA. *Hernia abdominalis*. A tumour ſituated on the external part of the abdomen, ariſing from the protruſion of part of its viſcera, not through any natural opening, but through the interſtices of muſcles, by the parting of muſcular fibres from weakneſs, or from an accidental wound of the abdomen.

ABDOMINAL MUSCLES. See *muſcles*.

ABDOMINAL RING. *Annulus abdominis*. Inguinal ring. An oblong, tendinous opening in both groins, through which the ſpermatic cord of men, and round ligaments of the uterus of women, paſs. It is through this opening that the inteſtine or omentum falls in ruptures, forming that ſpecies of hernia called *bubonocele*. See *Obliquus externus abdominis*.

ABDUCENT NERVES. *Nervi abducentes*. The ſixth pair of nerves are ſo called becauſe they go to the rectus externus oculi, which muſcle was formerly termed the abducent. They ariſe from the *medulla oblongata*, between the *corpora pyramidalia* and *pons varolii*. They then proceed forwards, perforate the dura mater, and go out of the cranium through the ſuperior orbital fiſſure, and are diſtributed in the *rectus externus* muſcle of the bulb of the eye.

ABDUCTOR, (*Abductor*, *ōris*, m. from *ab* and *duco* to draw.) A name given to thoſe muſcles which pull back parts of the body into which they are inſerted.

ABDUCTOR BREVIS ALTER. See *Abductor pollicis manus*.

ABDUCTOR INDĬCIS MANUS, *Abductor indicis proprius*, *Semi-interoſſeus* of Winſlow. An internal interoſſeous muſcle of the forefinger, ſituated on the hand. It ariſes from the ſuperior part of the metacarpal bone and the *os trapezium* on its inſide, by a fleſhy beginning, runs towards the metacarpal bone of the forefinger, adheres to it, and is connected by a broad tendon to the ſuperior part of the firſt phalanx of the forefinger. Sometimes it ariſes by a double tendon. Its uſe is to draw the forefinger from the reſt towards the thumb and to bend it ſomewhat towards the palm.

ABDUCTOR INDĬCIS PEDIS. An internal interoſſeous muſcle of the fore toe which ariſes tendinous and fleſhy by two origins from the root of the inſide of the metatarſal bone of the fore toe; from the outſide of the root of the metatarſal bone of the great toe, and from the *os cuneiforme internum*, and is inſerted, tendinous, into the inſide of the root of the firſt joint of the fore toe. Its uſe is to pull the fore toe inwards from the reſt of the ſmall toes.

ABDUCTOR LONGUS POLLĬCIS MANUS. See *Extenſor oſſis metacarpi pollicis manus*.

ABDUCTOR MEDĬI DIGĬTI PEDIS. An internal interoſſeous muſcle of the foot, which ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the inſide of the root of

the metatarsal bone of the middle toe internally, and is inserted, tendinous, into the inside of the root of the first joint of the middle toe. Its use is to pull the middle toe inwards.

ABDUCTOR MINĬMI DIGĬTI MANUS. *Hypothenar minor* of Winslow. *Extensor tertii internodii minimi digiti* of Douglas. *Flexor parvus minimi digiti.* A muscle of the little finger situated on the hand. It arises fleshy from the pisiform bone and from that part of the *ligamentum carpi annulare* next it, and is inserted, tendinous, into the inner side of the upper end of the first bone of the little finger. Its use is to draw the little finger from the rest.

ABDUCTOR MINĬMI DIGĬTI PEDIS. *Parathenar major* and *Metatarseus* of Winslow. A muscle of the little toe, which arises tendinous and fleshy from the semicircular edge of a cavity on the inferior part of the protuberance of the os calcis, and from the rest of the metatarsal bone of the little toe, and is inserted into the root of the first joint of the little toe externally. Its use is to bend the little toe and its metatarsal bone downwards, and to draw the little toe from the rest.

ABDUCTOR OCŬLI. See *Rectus externus oculi.*

ABDUCTOR POLLĬCIS MANUS. *Abductor, Thenar Riolani* of Douglas. A muscle of the thumb, situated on the hand. It arises by a broad tendinous and fleshy beginning from the *ligamentum carpi annulare,* and from the *os trapezium,* and is inserted, tendinous, into the outer side of the root of the first bone of the thumb. Its use is to draw the thumb from the fingers. Albinus names the inner portion of this muscle, *abductor brevis alter.*

ABDUCTOR POLLĬCIS PEDIS. *Thenar* of Winslow. A muscle of the great toe situated on the foot. It arises fleshy from the inside of the root of the protuberance of the os calcis, where it forms the heel, and tendinous from the same bone where it joins the *os naviculare;* and is inserted, tendinous, into the internal sesamoid bone and root of the first joint of the great toe. Its use is to pull the great toe from the rest.

ABDUCTOR TERTĬI DIGĬTI PEDIS. An interosseous muscle of the foot that arises tendinous and fleshy from the inside and inferior part of the root of the metatarsal bone of the third toe; and is inserted, tendinous, into the inside of the root of the first joint of the third toe. Its use is to pull the third toe inwards.

ABELMOSCHUS, (*Abelmoschus, i.* m.). *Granum moschi. Ægyptia moschata. Bamia moschata.* Musk mallow seed. The seeds of a plant called *Hibiscus abelmoschus* by Linnæus. They possess a slightish aromatic bitter taste, and are called musk seeds from their smell resembling very much that of musk. By the Arabians they are esteemed as a cordial, and are mixed with their coffee, to which they impart their fragrance. In this country they are used by the perfumers.

ABĬES, (*Abĭes, ĕtis,* f.) The fir. The various species of fir employed medicinally are, the *pinus picea L.* the yellow-leaved or silver fir; the *pinus abies L.* the common or red fir; the *pinus balsamea L.* the Virginia or Canada fir; and the balm of Gilead fir, called *balsamea.* The virtues of all these are similar to those given under the head of turpentines. See *Turpentines, Balsamum Gileadense, Canadense,* &c.

ABĬES CANĂDENSIS. See *Balsamum Canadense.*

ABLACTĀTIO, (*Ablactatio, ōnis,* f. from *ab,* from, and *lac,* milk). Ablactation, or the weaning of a child from the breast.

ABLUENTS, (*Abluentia, sc. medicamenta,* from *abluo,* to wash away). *Abstergents.* Medicines which were

formerly ſuppoſed to purify or cleanſe the blood.

ABORTION, (*Abortio, ōnis*, f. from *aborior*, to be ſteril). *Amblōſis*. A miſcarriage, or the expulſion of the fœtus from the uterus before the ſeventh month, after which it is called premature labour.

ABORTIVES, (*Abortiva, ſc. medicamenta*, from *aborior*, to be ſteril). *Amblotics*. Medicines capable of occaſioning an abortion or miſcarriage in pregnant women. It is now generally believed, that the medicines which produce a miſcarriage, effect it by their violent action on the ſyſtem, and not by any ſpecific action on the womb.

ABRASION, (*Abraſio, ōnis*, f. from *abrado*, to tear off). This word is generally employed to ſignify the deſtruction of the natural mucus of any part, as the ſtomach, inteſtines, urinary, bladder, &c. It is alſo applied to any part ſlightly worn away by attrition, as the ſkin, &c.

ABRŌTĂNUM, (*Abrotanum*, i. n. ἀβρότανον, from α, neg. and βροτος, mortal, becauſe it never decays; or from ἁβρος, ſoft, and τονος extenſion, from the delicacy of its texture). *Abrotanum mas*. Common ſouthernwood. *Artemiſia abrotanum* of Linnæus. *Artemiſia fruticoſa, foliis ſetaceis ramoſiſſimis*. Claſs. *Syngeneſia*. Order. *Polygamia ſuperflua*. A plant poſſeſſed of a ſtrong and, to moſt people, an agreeable ſmell; a pungent, bitter, and ſomewhat nauſeous taſte. It is ſuppoſed to ſtimulate the whole ſyſtem, but more particularly the uterus. It is very rarely uſed unleſs by way of fomentation, with which intention the leaves are directed by the London college in the *decoctum pro fomento*.

ABRŌTĂNUM FEMĬNA. *Santolina*. Common lavender cotton. This plant, *Santolina chamæ-cypariſſus; pedunculis unifloris, foliis quadrifariam dentatis* of Linnæus, poſſeſſes antihyſterical, antihelmintic, and deobſtruent virtues; and may be employed in all caſes as a ſubſtitute for the *abrotanum* of our pharmacopœias.

ABRŌTĂNUM MAS. See *Abrotanum*.

ABSCESS, (*Abſceſſus, us*, m. from *abs*, and *cedo*, to retire). The words ἀποστημα, apoſteme, and ἀποστασις, impoſtumation; frequently uſed by Hippocrates, are tranſlated by Celſus *abſceſſus*, and ſometimes *vomica*. Hence the word abſceſs is generally uſed by modern authors to ſignify a ſuppurated phlegmon or inflammatory tumour. Theſe words ſeem originally, by their derivation, to import any ſort of excluſion of morbific matter: ἀφίσταμαι and ἀφιστημι ſignifying to recede or retire. Accordingly they are uſed by Hippocrates to expreſs any critical removal of offending humours from the vital parts, either to ſome of the emunctories, for an immediate diſcharge, as the glands of the inteſtines, kidneys, or ſkin, whence they are eliminated by plentiful ſtools, urine, or ſweat; or to ſome part where they find an eaſy egreſs by the rupture of a blood-veſſel, as the uterus or noſe: or to ſome muſcular part or gland, whence they cannot be ſo eaſily expelled, and therefore ſtagnate and ſuppurate, and at laſt are ſeparated in the form of pus or matter. Sometimes Hippocrates means by theſe words, the tranſmutation of one diſeaſe into another, as a quinſey into a peripneumony, or of a continued fever into a quartan, &c. And ſometimes, the deſtruction of a part of the morbific matter of a diſtemper fixing upon it. Hippocrates alſo uſes the word αποστασις, to expreſs the fracture, or exfoliation of a bone, when the parts of it which were contiguous in a ſtate of health, recede from each other. Paulus Ægineta ſeems to have limited the ſignification of *abſceſs* to ſuppuration, by defining αποστημα, *abſceſs*, a corruption of the fleſhy parts, muſcles, veins, and arteries.

ABSINTHĬUM, (*Abſinthium, i.* n. αψινθιον, from α, neg. and ψινθος, pleaſant. Several plants are diſtinguiſhed by this name from the diſagreeableneſs of their taſte). Wormwood.

ABSINTHĬUM MARĬTĬMUM. Sea wormwood. *Artemiſia maritima* of Linnæus. *Artemiſia foliis multipartitis tomentoſis, racemis cernuis, floſculis femineis ternis.* Claſs. *Syngeneſia.* Order. *Palygamia ſuperflua.* A plant which grows plentifully about the ſeaſhore, and in ſalt marſhes. Its taſte and ſmell are conſiderably leſs unpleaſant than thoſe of common wormwood; hence it is preferred to that plant when too offenſive to the ſtomach. A conſerve of the tops, *conſerva abſinthii maritimi,* is directed by the London Pharmacopœia.

ABSINTHĬUM PONTĬCUM. See *Abſynthium vulgare.*

ABSINTHĬUM VULGĀRE. Common wormwood. *Abſynthium ponticum. Abſynthium romanum. Artemiſia abſinthium* of Linnæus. *Artemiſia foliis compoſitis multifidis, floribus ſubgloboſis pendulis: receptaculo villoſo.* Claſs. *Syngeneſia.* Order. *Polygamia ſuperflua.* A plant, a native of Britain, poſſeſſed of a ſtrong, diſagreeable ſmell, and of ſo intenſely nauſeous and bitter a taſte, as to be proverbial. It is a good tonic and ſtomachic, and is given by many as an anthelmintic. Externally it is uſed as an antiſeptic, in fomentations. There is a tincture of the flowers ordered by the Edin. Pharm. but the moſt agreeable way of adminiſtering this remedy is in pills made of the extract.

ABSORBENT VESSELS. *Vaſa abſorbentia.* A ſyſtem of ſmall, delicate, tranſparent veſſels, that abſorb and convey a fluid to the thoracic duct, which is their trunk or termination. They are divided into lacteals and lymphatics. See *Lacteals* and *Lymphatics.*

ABSORBENTS, (*Abſorbentia, ſc. medicamenta,* from *abſorbeo,* to ſuck up). Medicines are ſo termed, which have no acrimony in themſelves, and deſtroy acidities in the ſtomach and bowels; ſuch are calcined magneſia, prepared chalk, oyſter-ſhells, crab's claws, &c.

ABSORPTION, (*Abſorptio, ōnis,* f. from *abſorbeo,* to ſuck up). A function in an animated body arranged by phyſiologiſts under the head of natural actions. It ſignifies the taking up of ſubſtances applied to the mouths of abſorbing veſſels: thus the nutritious part of the food is abſorbed from the inteſtinal canal by the lacteals; thus mercury is taken into the ſyſtem by the lymphatics of the ſkin, &c. The principle by which this function takes place is a power inherent in the mouths of the abſorbents, a *vis inſita,* dependant on the degree of irritability of their internal membrane by which they contract and propel their contents forwards.

ABSTERGENTS, (*Abſtergentia,* ſcilicet *medicamenta*; from *abſtergo,* to cleanſe away). Lotions, or any application that cleanſes or clears away foulneſs. The term is ſeldom employed by modern writers.

ABSTRACTION, (*Abſtractio, ōnis,* f. from *abſtraho*). A term employed by chymiſts in the proceſs of humid diſtillation, to ſignify that the fluid body is again drawn off from the ſolid, which it had diſſolved.

ACACĬA GERMANĬCA. (*Acacia, æ,* f. ακακια; from ακαζω, to ſharpen). *Acacia noſtras. Succus pruni ſylveſtris.* The inſpiſſated juice of the ſloe, which is the fruit of the *Prunus ſpinoſa* of Linnæus. It is now fallen into diſuſe.

ACACĬA NOSTRAS. See *Acacia Germanica.*

ACACĬA VERA. *Succus acaciæ veræ.* The expreſſed juice of the immature fruit of the *mimoſa nilotica* of Linnæus. It poſſeſſes aſtringent virtues, and was formerly eſteemed in

dyſenteries and relaxations of the alimentary canal.

ACANTHUS, (*Acanthus, i,* m. ακανθος, from ακανθα, a thorn; ſo named from its rough and prickly ſurface). *Branca urſina.* The herb bears-breach, or brank urſine. The leaves and root of the *Acanthus mollis foliis ſinuatis inermibus* of Linnæus abound with a mucilage, which is readily extracted by boiling or infuſion. The roots are the moſt mucilaginous. Where this plant is common it is employed for the ſame purpoſes to which althæa and other vegetables poſſeſſing ſimilar qualities are applied among us. It is fallen into diſuſe.

ACANTHUS MOLLIS. The ſyſtematic name for the *Acanthus.* See *Acanthus.*

ACCĔLĔRĀTOR URĪNÆ, (*Accelerator, ōris, ſc. muſculus,* from *accelero,* to haſten). *Ejaculator ſeminis. Bulbo-cavernoſus* of Winſlow. A muſcle of the penis. It ariſes fleſhy from the *ſphincter ani* and membranous part of the *urethra,* and tendinous from the *crus,* near as far forwards as the beginning of the *corpus cavernoſum penis;* the inferior fibres run more tranſverſely, and the ſuperior deſcend in an oblique direction. It is inſerted into a line in the middle of the bulbous part of the urethra, where each joins with its fellow; by which the bulb is completely cloſed. The uſe of theſe muſcles is to drive the urine or *ſemen* forward, and by graſping the bulbous part of the *urethra,* to puſh the blood towards its *corpus cavernoſum,* and the glands by which they are diſtended.

ACCESSION, (*Acceſſio, ōnis,* f. from *accedo,* to approach). The approach or commencement of a diſeaſe. A term moſtly applied to a fever which has paroxyſms or exacerbations; thus the acceſſion of fever, means the commencement or approach of the pyrexial period.

ACCESSORĬI OF WILLIS, (*Acceſſorii, ſc. nervi,* from *accedo* to approach, ſo called from the courſe they take). The name given by Willis to two nerves which aſcend, one on each ſide from the ſecond, fourth, and fifth cervical pairs of nerves, through the great foramen of the occipital bone, and paſs out again from the *cranium* through the *foramina lacera,* with the *par vagum,* to be diſtributed on the trapezius muſcle.

ACEPHĂLUS, (*Acephalus, i.* m.; ακεφαλος, from α, priv. κεφαλη, a head). A term applied to monſters born without heads.

ACERB, (*Acerbus*). A ſpecies of taſte which conſiſts in a degree of acidity with an addition of roughneſs; properties common to many immature fruits.

ACETĀBŪLUM, (*Acetabulum, i,* n. from *acetum,* vinegar; ſo called becauſe it reſembles the *acetabulum,* or old ſaucer, in which vinegar was held for the uſe of the table). The cavity of the os innominatum which receives the head of the thigh bone. See *os innominatum.*

ACETĂRĬA, (*Acetaria, ōrum,* pl. n. from *acetum,* vinegar: becauſe they are moſtly made with vinegar). Sallads.

ACETATED VEGETABLE ALKALI. See *Kali acetatum.*

ACETATED VOLATILE ALKALI. See *Aqua ammoniæ acetatæ.*

ACETATES, (*Acetas, atis,* m.) Salts are ſo called in the new ſcientific chemical nomenclature, which are formed by the union of the acetic acid, or radical vinegar, with different baſes. None of theſe have yet been introduced into the practice of phyſic or ſurgery.

ACETIC ACID. *Ăcĭdum acētĭcum.* This preparation of vinegar is called *acidum acetoſum* in the London pharmacopœia, but *acidum aceticum* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is much eſteemed to ſmell at in

faintings, in the crowded courts of juſtice, and the offenſive wards of hoſpitals. It may alſo be given with advantage in putrid diſeaſes in combination with camphire.

ACETITES, (*Acetis, itis*, m). The new chemical nomenclature gives this term to ſalts formed by the union of the acetous acid, or diſtilled vinegar, with different baſes. Thoſe at preſent uſed in the practice of phyſic, are the *acetis ammoniacæ liquidus*, ſee *aqua ammoniæ acetatæ*; the *acetis hydrargyri*, ſee *hydrargyrus acetatus*; the *acetis potaſſæ*, ſee *kali acetatum*; and the *acetis plumbi*, ſee *ceruſſa acetata* and *aqua lithargyri acetata*.

ACETŌSA, (*Acetoſa, æ*, f.). Common ſorrel. *Rumex acetoſa* of Linnæus. *Rumex floribus dioicis, foliis oblongis ſagitatis*. Claſs. *Hexandria*. Order. *Trigynia*. A common plant in meadows and paſtures. Its leaves have a ſharp and pleaſant acid taſte. They are uſed in many places as food, and are found to be of important advantage where a refrigerant and antiſcorbutic regimen is required. They are, alſo, of infinite ſervice to foul ulcers, applied in the form of poultice.

ACETOSELLA. See *Lujula*.

ACETOUS ACID. *Acidum acetoſum*. Diſtilled vinegar. This preparation of vinegar is called *acetum diſtillatum* by the London college, and *acidum acetoſum* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is chiefly employed in pharmacy in the claſs of ſalts termed *acetites*, ſee *acetites*; and is of great ſervice in the practice of ſurgery as a diſcutient in inflammatory affections. For its virtues ſee *acetum*.

ACETOUS FERMENTATION. See *Fermentation*.

ACĒTUM, (*Acetum, i*, n. vinegar; from *acer*, ſour). A ſour liquor obtained from many vegetable ſubſtances diſſolved in boiling water, and from fermented and ſpirituous liquors, by expoſing them to heat and contact with air; under which circumſtances they undergo the acid fermentation, ſee *fermentation*, and afford the liquor called vinegar. It is much uſed to ſeaſon food, and is highly eſteemed as an antiſeptic, refrigerant, and antiſcorbutic. Applied externally to inflammations, it is a very powerful reſolvent. Diſtilled with a gentle fire, in glaſs veſſels, ſo long as the drops fall free from empyreuma, it affords the *acetum diſtillatum* of the Pharmacopæias, whoſe combinations are of great uſe in the healing art. See *acetites*.

ACĒTUM AROMATĬCUM. This preparation of the Edinburgh pharmacopæia is an elegant improvement of what has been long known under the name of thieves vinegar. Its virtues are antiſeptic, and it is an uſeful compoſition to ſmell at in crowded courts of juſtice, hoſpitals, &c.

ACĒTUM DISTILLĀTUM. See *acetum*.

ACĒTUM SCILLÆ. *Acetum ſcillitĭcum*. Vinegar of ſquills. This preparation of ſquills is employed as an attenuant, expectorant, and diuretic.

ACHILLĒA AGERĀTUM, (αχιλλειᾳ, from *Achilles*, who is ſaid to have cured Telephus with it). The ſyſtematic name for the *Ageratum* of the pharmacopæias. See *Ageratum*.

ACHILLĒA FOLĬIS PINNĀTIS. See *Genipi verum*.

ACHILLĒA MILLEFOLĬUM. The ſyſtematic name for the *millefolium* of the pharmacopæias. See *Millefolium*.

ACHILLĒA PTARMĬCA. The ſyſtematic name for the *ptarmica* of the pharmacopæias. See *Ptarmica*.

ACHILLIS TENDO, (*Tendo Achillis*; ſo called becauſe as fable reports Thetis, the mother of Achilles, held him by that part when ſhe dipped him in the river Styx, to make him invulnerable. Homer deſcribes this tendon; and ſome writers ſuppoſe it was thus named by the ancients, from their cuſtom of calling every thing thus, that had any extraordinary ſtrength or vir-

tue. Others ſay it is thus named from its action in conducing to ſwiftneſs of pace, the term importing ſo much). The ſtrong tendon of the *gaſtrocnemius* and *ſoleus* muſcles, which is inſerted into the heel. See *Gaſtrocnemius* and *Soleus*.

Achmella. The herb and ſeeds of this plant, *Spilanthus achmella* of Linnæus; *Spilanthus foliis ovatis, ſeratis, caule erecto, floribus radiatis*, are employed in caſes of calculus of the kidneys and urinary bladder. It is extremely bitter and balſamic, and is given in the form of infuſion.

Achōres, (*Achores, um*, pl. m. from ἀχώρ, *quaſi* ἀχ' ὠς, from ἀχή, bran; from the branny ſcales thrown off). A diſeaſe which attacks the hairy ſcalp of the head, for the moſt part of young children, forming ſoft and ſcaly eruptions.

Acid, (*Acidum, i.* n.). Acids are defined by modern chemiſts to be ſalts of a ſour taſte, changing the blue colour of various vegetable pigments to a red. The word *ſour*, which is uſually employed to denote the ſimple impreſſion, or lively and ſharp ſenſation produced on the tongue by certain bodies, may be regarded as ſynonimous to the word acid. The only difference which can be eſtabliſhed between them is, that the one denotes a weak ſenſation, whereas the other comprehends all the degrees of force from the leaſt perceptible to the greateſt degree of cauſticity: thus we ſay that verjuice, gooſeberries, or lemons, are ſour; but we uſe the word acid to expreſs the impreſſion which the nitric, ſulphuric, or muriatic acids make upon the tongue. The vegetable pigments uſually employed to aſcertain the preſence of acids are tincture of turnſole or litmus, and ſyrup of violets. Many acids effervеſce with alkalis, but this property is not general. Acids readily combine with alkalis, earths, and metals, and form neutral ſalts. The characteriſtics, therefore, of an acid, are, 1. A peculiar taſte termed acid. 2. Its changing blue vegetable juices red. 3. Combining with alkalis, earths, and metals. Acids, according to the kingdom of nature in which they are found, are divided into mineral, vegetable, and animal. The mineral acids as yet known, are the ſulphuric or vitriolic, the nitric, muriatic, carbonic, boracic, fluoric, ſuccinic, arſenic, molybdic, tungſtic, and chromic. The vegetable acids are, the acetic, oxalic, tartareous, pyrotartareous, gallic, citric, mallic, benzoic, pyroligneous, the ſuccinic, pyromucous, camphoric, and cortic. Of the animal acids there are eight, viz. the phoſphoric, lactic, ſaccholactic, formic, ſebacic, pruſſic, bombic, and lithic. Experiment proves that every acid conſiſts of a peculiar body combined with the baſis of oxygen gaz: hence the origin of the word oxygen, which ſignifies the generation of acid, it being regarded as the acidifying baſis or principle of acidity. The bodies which form the other conſtituents of acids, are termed *baſes*, or radicals of acids, and are regarded as the acidifiable baſes: thus the principles of phoſphoric acid are phoſphorus and oxygen; thoſe of carbonic acid, radical carbon and oxygen. If an acid baſis be perfectly ſaturated with oxygen, the acid, thus produced, is ſaid to be perfect; but if the baſis predominate, the acid is conſidered as imperfect. Modern chemiſts diſtinguiſh the former in Latin by the ſyllables *icum*, in Engliſh *ic*, and the latter in Latin by *oſum*, and in Engliſh by *ous*: thus the perfect acid of nitre is called *acidum nitricum*, or nitric acid; the imperfect acid of nitre, *acidum nitroſum*, or nitrous acid. There are ſome caſes where an acid is capable of combining with an exceſs of oxygen, in which caſe it is ſaid to be *oxygenated*; and ſometimes *ſuper-oxygenated*. If the acidifiable baſis be combined with oxygen, yet without ſhowing

any of the properties of an acid, the produce is then called an oxyd or oxyde: thus iron expoſed to the air or water attracts the oxygen, and an oxyd of iron, the ruſt, is formed. The various acids employed medicinally are, the acetic, acetous, benzoic, carbonic, citric, muriatic, nitric, nitrous, and ſulphuric.

ACID AERIAL. See *Carbonic acid.*

ACIDULOUS WATERS. Mineral waters, which contain ſo great a quantity of carbonic acid gaz, as to render them acidulous, or gently pungent to the taſte.

ACIDS, ANIMAL. Thoſe which are obtained from animals. See *Acid.*

ACIDS, DULCIFIED. Theſe are now called Æthers. *See Æther.*

ACIDS, IMPERFECT. Thoſe acids are ſo called in the ſcientific chemical nomenclature, which are not fully ſaturated with oxygen. Their names are ended in Latin by *oſum*, and in Engliſh by *ous*: e. g. *acidum nitroſum*, or *nitrous acid.*

ACIDS, MINERAL. Thoſe acids which are found to exiſt in minerals, as the *ſulphuric*, in ſulphur; the *nitric*, in nitre, &c. See *Acid.*

ACIDS, PERFECT. An acid is termed a perfect acid, in the ſcientific chemical nomenclature, when it is completely ſaturated with oxygen. Their names are ended in Latin by *icum*, and in Engliſh by *ic*: e. g. *acidum nitricum*, or *nitric acid.*

ACIDS, VEGETABLE. Thoſe which are found in the vegetable kingdom, as the citric, mallic, acetic, &c. See *Acid.*

ACĬDUM ACĒTĬCUM. See *Acetic acid.*

ACĬDUM ACETŌSUM. See *Acetous acid.*

ACĬDUM BENZOĪCUM. See *Flores benzoes.*

ACĬDUM CARBONĬCUM. See *Carbonic acid.*

ACĬDUM CITRĬCUM. See *Citric acid.*

ACĬDUM MURIĀTĬCUM. *Spiritus ſalis marini Glauberi.* Muriatic acid. Marine acid. Spirit of ſalt. Muriatic acid is much eſteemed as an antiſeptic; and therefore given with bark, &c. in putrid tending diſeaſes. It, however, moſtly proves purgative. A celebrated phyſician on the continent, whoſe ſucceſs in curing typhoid fevers was unrivalled, lately publiſhed his method of cure, in conſequence of a handſome annuity from the king of Pruſſia; which conſiſted in giving very large doſes of this acid.

ACĬDUM NITRĬCUM. *Nitric acid.* This acid has lately been extolled as an antiſyphilitic. It may be given with advantage in mixed caſes of ſyphilis and rheumatiſm; as an antiſeptic it ſtands firſt in the catalogue. Infuſion of roſes made with it in the place of vitriolic acid is a valuable medicine. See *Nitric acid.*

ACĬDUM NITRŌSUM. *Spiritus nitri fumans.* The nitrous acid poſſeſſes the ſame properties as the nitric, but in a much inferior degree.

ACĬDUM SULPHURĬCUM. See *Acidum vitriolicum.*

ACĬDUM NITRŌSUM DILŪTUM. *Aqua fortis.* Diluted nitrous acid poſſeſſes the ſame properties as the nitrous acid, but in an inferior degree.

ACĬDUM VITRĬOLI AROMATĬCUM. *Elixir vitrioli acidum.* A ſtimulant and ſtomachic preparation of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia, for which the London college has ſubſtituted the *acidum vitriolicum dilutum.*

ACĬDUM VITRIOLĬCUM. Vitriolic acid of the pharmacopœias is termed *acidum ſulphuricum* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is highly eſteemed as an antiſeptic and antiphlogiſtic; and is therefore exhibited in *ſynochus*, *cynanche*, *ſcrophula*, &c. See *Sulphuric acid.*

ACĬDUM VITRĬOLĬCUM DILŪTUM. The virtues of this preparation are the ſame as thoſe of the *acidum vitriolicum*, only in a much inferior degree.

Acĭni biliŏsi, (*Acinus, i*, m. a grape ſtone; ſo called from their ſuppoſed reſemblance). The ſmall glandiform bodies of the liver which ſeparate the bile from the blood were formerly ſo called: they are now, however, more properly called *penicilli*. See *Liver*.

Aciniform tunic, (*Tunĭca acinĭformis*; from *acĭnus*, a grape, and *forma*, reſemblance). The uvea is ſo termed by ſome writers. See *Uvea*.

Acme, (*Acme, es*, f. ακμη, from α, not, and καμνω, to be weary). A term applied by phyſicians to that period or ſtate of a diſeaſe in which it is at its height. The antients diſtinguiſhed diſeaſes into four ſtages: 1. The *arche*, the beginning or firſt attack. 2. *Anabaſis*, the growth. 3. The *acme*, the height. 4. *Paracne*, or the decline of the diſeaſe.

Aconītum, (*Aconitum, i*, n. from ακονίτος, *pulveris expers*, without ſoil; becauſe this plant grows on rocks deſtitute of ſoil). Common wolf's bane. *Aconitum napellus* of Linnæus. *Aconitum foliorum laciniis linearibus ſuperne latioribus linea exaratis*. Claſs. *Polyandria*. Order. *Trigynia*. This plant is a native of the mountainous and woody parts of Germany, France, and Switzerland; but is cultivated for its beauty in our flower gardens. Every part of the plant is ſtrongly poiſonous. The extract, or inſpiſſated juice, is given in violent rheumatic, ſcrophulous, and venereal affections. Its virtues are ſudorific, diuretic, and ſubvertiginous. It ſhould be given in ſmall doſes, and gradually and cautiouſly increaſed.

Aconītum anthŏra. The ſyſtematic name for the *anthora* of the pharmacopæias. See *Anthora*.

Aconītum napellus. The ſyſtematic name for the *aconitum* of the pharmacopæias. See *Aconitum*.

Acor, (*Acor, ōris*, m. from *acer*, ſharp or bitter). Acidity. This word is ſometimes employed as ſynonimous with acid; as mineral acor, for mineral acid.

Acŏrus calămus. The ſyſtematic name for the *calamus aromaticus*. See *Calamus aromaticus*.

Acŏrus palustris. See *Gladiolus luteus*.

Acŏrus verus. See *Calamus aromaticus*.

Acŏrus vulgāris. See *Gladiolus luteus*.

Acoustĭca, (*Acouſtica, ſc. medicamenta*; ακουστικα, from ακουειν, to hear). Remedies which are employed with a view to reſtore the ſenſe of hearing when wanting or diminiſhed.

Acracy, (*Acraſia, æ*, f. ακρασια; from α, priv. and κρατος, ſtrength). Debility, or impotency, from relaxation or a loſt tone of the parts.

Acre, (ακρος, extreme). The extremity of the noſe.

Acrea, (ακρα, extreme). The extremities; as the noſe, arms, legs, &c.

Acrid, (*Acris*). A term employed in medicine to expreſs a taſte, the characteriſtic of which is pungency joined with heat.

Acrimony, (*Acrimonia, æ*, f. from *acris*, acrid). This term is uſed to expreſs a quality in ſubſtances by which they irritate, corrode, or diſſolve others. It has been ſuppoſed until very lately, there were acid and alkaline acrimonies in the blood, which produced certain diſeaſes; and although the humeral pathology is nearly exploded, the term venereal acrimony and ſome others are ſtill and muſt be retained.

Acromphalĭon, (*Acromphalion, i*, n. ακρομφαλιον; from ακρος, extreme, and ομφαλος, the navel). The tip of the navel.

Acroposthĭa, (*Acropoſthia, æ*, f. ακροποσθια; from ακρος, extreme, and ποσθη, the præpuce). The extremity of the præpuce, or that part cut off in circumciſion.

ACROTERĬA, (*Acroteria, æ*, f. ακρωτηρια; from ακρος, extreme). The extreme parts, as the hands, feet, ears, noſe, &c.

ACTUAL. This word is applied to any thing endued with a property or virtue which acts by an immediate power inherent in it: it is the reverſe of potential; thus, a red-hot iron or fire is called an actual cautery, in contradiſtinction from cauſtics, which are called potential cauteries. Boiling water is actually hot; brandy, producing heat in the body, is potentially hot, though of itſelf cold.

ACUTE DISEASE. *Morbus acutus.* A diſeaſe which is attended with an increaſed velocity of the blood, terminates in a few days, and is attended with danger. It is oppoſed to a chronic diſeaſe, which is ſlow in its progreſs, and not ſo generally dangerous.

ACUTENACŬLUM, (*Acutenaculum, i*, n.) Heiſter calls the *portaiguille* by this name. It is the handle for a needle, to make it penetrate eaſily when ſtitching a wound.

ADAMS APPLE. See *Pomum Adami.*

ADAMS NEEDLE. The roots of this plant, *Yucca glorioſa* of Linnæus, are thick and tuberous, and are uſed by the Indians inſtead of bread; being firſt reduced into a coarſe meal. This, however, is only in times of ſcarcity.

ADDEPHAGĬA, (*Addephagia*, αδδηφαγια; from αδην, abundantly, and φαγειν, to eat). Inſatiability. A voracious appetite. See *Bulimia.*

ADDITĂMENTUM, (*Additamentum, i*, n.). A term formerly employed as ſynonimous with *epiphyſis*, but now only applied to two portions of the ſutures of the ſkull. See *Lambdoidal* and *Squamous ſutures.*

ADDITĂMENTUM COLI. See *Appendicula cæci vermiformis.*

ADDUCTOR, (*Adductor, oris*, m. from *ad* and *duco*, to draw to). A name given to ſeveral muſcles, whoſe office is to bring forwards or draw together thoſe parts of the body to which they are annexed.

ADDUCTOR BREVIS FEMŎRIS. *Adductor femŏris ſecundus* of Douglas. *Triceps ſecundus* of Winſlow. A muſcle, which, with the *adductor longus* and *magnus femoris*, forms the *triceps adductor femoris.* It is ſituated on the poſterior part of the thigh, ariſing, tendinous from the os pubis near its joining with the oppoſite os pubis below, and behind the *adductor longus femoris*, and is inſerted, tendinous and fleſhy, into the inner and upper part of the linea aſpera, from a little below the trochanter minor, to the beginning of the inſertion of the *adductor longus.* For its uſe, ſee *Triceps adductor femoris.*

ADDUCTOR FEMŎRIS PRIMUS. See *Adductor longus femoris.*

ADDUCTOR FEMŎRIS SECUNDUS. See *Adductor brevis femoris.*

ADDUCTOR FEMŎRIS TERTĬUS. See *Adductor magnus femoris.*

ADDUCTOR FEMŎRIS QUARTUS. See *Adductor magnus femoris.*

ADDUCTOR INDĬCIS PEDIS. An external interoſſeous muſcle of the fore-toe, which ariſes, tendinous and fleſhy, by two origins, from the root of the inſide of the metatarſal bone of the fore-toe, from the outſide of the root of the metatarſal bone of the great-toe, and from the os cuneiforme internum. It is inſerted, tendinous, into the inſide of the root of the firſt joint of the fore-toe. Its uſe is to pull the fore-toe inwards from the reſt of the ſmall toes.

ADDUCTOR LONGUS FEMŎRIS. *Adductor femŏris primus* of Douglas. *Triceps minus* of Winſlow. A muſcle ſituated on the poſterior part of the thigh, which, with the *adductor brevis* and *magnus femoris*, forms the *triceps adductor femoris.* It ariſes by a pretty ſtrong roundiſh tendon, from the upper and interior part of the os pubis, and ligament of its ſynchondroſis, on the inner ſide of the pec-

tinalis. It is inserted, tendinous, near the middle of the posterior part of the linea aspera, being continued for some way down. For its use, see *Triceps adductor femoris.*

ADDUCTOR MAGNUS FEMŎRIS. *Adductor femŏris tertĭus* of Douglas, and *Adductor femoris quartus* of Douglas. *Triceps tertius* of Winslow. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the thigh, which, with the *adductor brevis* and *longus femoris*, forms the *Triceps adductor femoris*. It arises a little lower down than the *Adductor brevis femoris*, near the symphysis of the ossă pubis; tendinous and fleshy, from the tuberosity of the os ischium; the fibres run outwards and downwards. It is inserted into almost the whole length of the linea aspera, into a ridge above the internal condyle of the os femoris; and, by a roundish, long tendon, into the upper part of that condyle, a little above which, the femoral artery takes a spiral turn towards the ham, passing between this muscle and the bone. For its use, see *Triceps adductor femoris.*

ADDUCTOR MEDĬI DIGĬTI PEDIS. An external interosseous muscle of the foot. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the roots of the metatarsal bones of the second and third toes. It is inserted, tendinous, into the outside of the root of the first joint of the second-toe. Its use is to pull the second-toe outwards.

ADDUCTOR METACARPI MINĬMI DIGĬTI MANUS. *Metacarpus* of Winslow. *Flexor primi internodii minimi digiti* of Douglas. A muscle situated on the hand, which arises, fleshy, from the thin edge of the os unciforme, and from that part of the ligament of the wrist next it. It is inserted, tendinous, into the inner side and anterior part of the metacarpal bone of this finger. Its use is to bend and bring the metacarpal bone of this finger towards the rest.

ADDUCTOR AD MINĬMUM DIGĬTUM. See *Adductor pollicis manus.*

ADDUCTOR MINĬMI DIGĬTI PEDIS. An internal interosseous muscle of the foot. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the inside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the little-toe. It is inserted, tendinous, into the inside of the root of the first joint of the little-toe. Its use is to pull the little-toe inwards.

ADDUCTOR OCŬLI. See *Rectus internus oculi.*

ADDUCTOR POLLĬCIS. See *Adductor pollicis manus.*

ADDUCTOR POLLĬCIS MANUS. *Adductor pollicis. Adductor ad minimum digitum.* A muscle of the thumb, situated on the hand, which arises fleshy, from almost the whole length of the metacarpal bone that sustains the middle-finger; from thence its fibres are collected together. It is inserted, tendinous, into the inner part of the root of the first bone of the thumb. Its use is to pull the thumb towards the fingers.

ADDUCTOR POLLĬCIS PEDIS. *Adductor hallucis tithenar* of Winslow. A muscle of the great-toe, situated on the foot: it arises, by a long thin tendon, from the os calcis, from the os cuboides, from the os cuneiforme externum, and from the root of the metatarsal bone of the second-toe. It is inserted into to the external os sesamoideum, and root of the metatarsal bone of the great-toe. Its use is to bring this toe nearer to the rest.

ADDUCTOR TERTĬI DIGĬTI PEDIS. An external interosseous muscle of the foot, that arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the roots of the metatarsal bones of the third and little-toe. It is inserted, tendinous, into the outside of the root of the first joint of the third-toe. Its use is to pull the third-toe outward.

ADĒN, (Ἀδήν, a gland). A gland.

ADENIFORM, (*Adeniformis*; from ἀδήν, a gland, and *forma*, resemblance). Glandiform, or resembling a gland. A term sometimes applied to the prostate gland.

ADENOGRAPHY, (*Adenographia, æ*, f. αδηνογραφια; from αδην, a gland, and γραφω, to write). A treatise on the glands.

ADENOLOGY, (*Adenologia, æ*, f., αδηνολογια; from αδην, a gland, and λογος, a discourse). The doctrine of the glands. See *Glands*.

ADENOUS ABSCESS, (*Abscessus adenosus*; from αδην, a gland). A hard glandular abscess, which suppurates slowly.

ADEPS, (*Adeps, ĭpis*, m. *et* f. fat). An oily secretion from the blood into the cells of the cellular membrane. See *Fat*.

ADHÆSION, (*Adhæsio, onis*, f.; from *adhærco*, to stick to). The growing together of parts.

ADHÆSIVE INFLAMMATION. A term lately introduced into surgery, to express that species of inflammation which terminates by an adhæsion of the inflamed surfaces; thus the pleura of the lungs, when inflamed, unites to that of the ribs.

ADIANTHUM, (*Adianthum, i*, n. αδιαντος; from α, neg. and δαινω, to grow wet; so called because its leaves are not easily made wet). *Adianthum capillus veneris*. Maiden hair. This plant, *Adianthum capillus veneris*; *frondibus decompositis, foliolis alternis primis cuneiformibus lobatis pedicillatis* of Linnæus, is somewhat sweet and austere to the palate, and possesses mucilaginous qualities. A syrup, the *syrop de capillaire*, is prepared from it, which is much esteemed in France.

ADIANTHUM AURĔUM. The plant which is thus called in the pharmacopæias, is the *Polytricum commune*; *caule simplici, anthera parallelepipeda*: the *varietas α* of *P. commune* of Linnæus. It possesses, in an inferior degree, adstringent virtues; and was formerly given in diseases of the lungs and calculous complaints.

ADIANTHUM CAPILLUS VENĔRIS. The systematic name for the *Adianthum*. See *Adianthum*.

ADIAPNEUSTĬA, (*Adiapneustia, æ*, f. αδιαπνευστια; from α, priv. and διαπνεω, to perspire). A diminution or obstruction of the natural perspiration.

ADIPOSE MEMBRANE, (*Membrāna adipōsa*, from *adeps*, fat). The fat collected in the cells of the cellular membrane.

ADIPSĬA, (*Adipsia, æ*, f. from α, neg. and διψα, thirst). A want of thirst. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysorexia* of Cullen's nosology. It is always symptomatic of some disease of the *sensorium*.

ADNĀTA TUNĬCA, (*Adnata*, from *adnascor*, to grow to). *Albuginea oculi. Tunica albugina oculi*. This membrane is mostly confounded with the *conjunctiva*. It is, however, thus formed: five of the muscles which move the eyes, take their origin from the bottom of the orbit, and the sixth arises from the edge of it; they are all inserted by a tendinous expansion into the anterior part of the *tunica sclerotica*; which expansion gives the whiteness peculiar to the fore part of the eye. It lies betwixt the *sclerotica* and *conjunctiva*.

ADOPTER. *Tubus intermedius*. A chemical instrument used to combine retorts to the cucurbits or matrasses in distillation, with retorts instead of receivers.

ADPONDUS OMNIUM. The weight of the whole. These words are inserted in pharmaceutical preparations or prescriptions, when the last ingredient ought to weigh as much as all the others put together.

ADSTRICTION, (*Adstrictio, onis*, f.) Costiveness.

ADSTRINGENTS, (*Adstringentia, sc. medicamenta*; from *ad*, and *stringo*, to bind). *Astringents*. In medicine are those substances, which possess a power of condensing the animal fibre. To the taste they impart a sense of dryness, and a remarkable corrugation in the parts on which they immediately act. They are administered

to reſtore diminiſhed tonic power, ſecretions morbidly augmented, as the alvine ſecretions, &c. This claſs of medicines comprehends four orders: 1. *Styptic adſtringents*, as *alumen*, *quercus*, *gallæ*; which are particularly adapted for the aged, thoſe exhauſted by long-continued evacuations, and thoſe whoſe diſeaſes are particularly urgent. 2. *Corrugating adſtringents*, as *roſa*, *quercus*, *gallæ*; which ſuit the irritable and delicate. 3. *Indurating adſtringents*, as *alkohol*, *acida*; which are applicable for every conſtitution. 4. *Tonic adſtringents*, as exerciſe, cold, friction, &c. which are beſt calculated for the young and ſanguineous. In ſurgery, adſtringents are thoſe ſubſtances which procure a conſtriction of the orifices of ruptured veſſels; ſuch are, *cuprum*, *oleum terebinthinæ*, &c.

ADVENTITIOUS. Any thing that accidentally, and not in the common courſe of natural cauſes, happens to make a part of another; as the glands in ſtrumous caſes are ſaid to be *adventitious glands*, in diſtinction from thoſe which are naturally produced. It is alſo uſed in oppoſition to hereditary; thus gout and ſcrophula are ſometimes hereditary, and very often adventitious, they having never before been known in the family.

ADYNAMĬA, (*Adynamia*, *æ*, f. αδυναμια; from α, priv. and δυναμις, power). A defect of vital power. It conſtitutes the ſecond order of the claſs *neuroſes* of Cullen's noſology; and comprehends, *ſyncope*, *dyſpepſia*, and *hypochondriaſis*.

ÆDOIA, (Αιδοια; from αιδως, modeſty; or from α, neg. and ειδω, to ſee; as not being decent to the ſight). The pudenda, or parts of generation.

ÆDOPSOPHĬA, (*Ædopſophia*, *æ*, f. αιδοψοφια; from αιδοια, *pudenda*, and ψοφεω, to break wind). A term uſed by *Sauvages* and *Sagar*, to ſignify a flatus from the bladder, or from the womb, making its eſcape through the vagina.

ÆGILOPS, (*Ægilops*, *ōpis*. f. αιγιλωψ; from αιξ, αιγος, a goat, and ωψ, an eye; goat's eye: ſo called becauſe goats are ſaid to be very ſubject to this diſeaſe). *Anchylops*. An ulcer in the internal canthus of the eye.

ÆR FIXUS. See *Carbonic acid*.

ÆROLOGIA. See *Ærologice*.

ÆROLOGICE, (*Ærologice*, *es*, f. αεροlογικη; from αηρ, air, and λογος a diſcourſe). *Aerologia*. That part of medicine which treats of air, explaining its properties and uſe in the animal œconomy, and its efficacy in preſerving and reſtoring health.

ÆROPHOBI, (*Ærophobi*, αεροφοβοι from αηρ and φοβος, fear). According to Cælius Aurelianus, ſome phreneti patients are afraid of a lucid, an others of an obſcure air; and thei he calls *ærophobi*.

ÆROPHOBĬA, (*Ærophobia*, *æ*, f. αεροφοβια; from αηρ, air, and φοβος fear). A dread of air. An occaſional ſymptom of phrenitis.

ÆRŪGO PREPĂRĀTA, (*Ærugo*, *ĭnis*, f.). Prepared verdigris. It much eſteemed as an eſcharotic, with which intention the *unguentum æruginis* is formed. Mixed with an equal quantity of ſavine powder, it deſtroys venereal warts. In the new chemical nomenclature, prepared verdigris is termed *oxydum cupri viride per acidum acetoſum*.

ÆSCŬLUS HIPPOCASTĂNUM, (*Æſculus*, *i*, f. from *eſca*, food). The ſyſtematic name for the *Hippocaſtanum*. See *Hippocaſtanum*.

ÆSTUARĬUM, (*Æſtuarium*, *i*, n. A ſtove for conveying heat to all parts of the body at once. A kind of vapour bath. *Ambroſe Parey* calls an inſtrument thus, which he deſcribes for conveying heat to any particular part. *Palmarius de morbis contagiosis* gives a contrivance under this name for ſweating the whole body.

ÆSTUS VOLATĬCUS. Sudden heat, which ſoon goes off, but which ſometime reddens the face.

ÆTHER, (*Æther, ĕris*, m. from *αιθης*, a ſuppoſed fine, ſubtile ſubſtance or medicine). A liquor obtained by diſtillation from a mixture of alkohol and a concentrated acid. It is much lighter, more volatile, and more inflammable, than rectified ſpirit of wine; and poſſeſſes nervine, antiſpaſmodic, ſtomachic, and tonic powers.

ÆTHER VITRIOLĬCUS. *Naptha vitrioli.* Vitriolic æther of the pharmacopœias is termed ſulphuric æther in the new chemical nomenclature. It is moſtly employed as an excitant, nervine, antiſpaſmodic, and diuretic, in caſes of ſpaſms, *cardialgia, enteralgia*, fevers, *hyſteria, cephalalgia*, and ſpaſmodic aſthma. Externally it cures tooth-ach and violent pains of the head.

ÆTHMOID ARTERY. See *Ethmoid artery.*

ÆTHMOID BONE. See *Ethmoid bone.*

ÆTHŪSA MĒUM. The ſyſtematic name for the *meum athamanticum.* See *Meum athamanticum.*

ÆTIOLOGY, (*Ætiologia, æ*, f. *αιτιολογια*; from *αιτιο*, a cauſe, and *λογος*, a diſcourſe). The doctrine of the cauſes of diſeaſes.

AFFINITY, (*Affinitas*). Chemical affinity. Powers of attraction or relation. Elective attraction. A term uſed by chemiſts to denote the continual tendency to bring principles together, which are diſunited; and to retain with more or leſs energy, thoſe which are already in combination. The affinities or attractions uſually mentioned by chemiſts are the following:

AFFINITY OF AGGREGATION. Mechanical affinity. This takes place between bodies of the ſame kind. It is that power by which homogeneous bodies have a natural tendency to remain in contact until they be ſeparated by the action of ſome ſuperior force: thus two drops of water unite into one, and form an aggregate: thus two globules of mercury, placed at a certain diſtance from each other, tend, by virtue of this force, to unite, and do actually enter into union; forming a ſphere greater in bulk, but preciſely the ſame in nature; *i. e.* they undergo new modifications without any ſenſible change being produced in their chemical qualities. According to the degree of force with which this power acts, are produced, 1. The *hard*, or *ſolid aggregate.* 2. The *ſoft aggregate.* 3. The *fluid aggregate.* 4. The *aeriform aggregate.* This affinity of aggregation is affected by heat, and by mechanical ſeparation.

AFFINITY OF COMPOSITION. *Chemical affinity. Mixing affinity. Affinitas ſynthetica.* This is that power by virtue of which bodies of different natures unite and form new combinations: thus, water and ſalt, alkohol and reſin, nitric acid and potaſh, &c. &c. unite by means of this affinity. The general principles or laws by which this power acts, are, 1. It acts on the conſtituent parts of bodies of different natures. 2. It acts only between the minuteſt particles of bodies. 3. It can unite more bodies than two. 4. It may take place between two bodies; but one, at leaſt, of the two muſt be in a fluid ſtate. 5. When two or more bodies are combined by this affinity, their temperature ſuffers a change at the inſtant of their union. 6. Two or more bodies, united by the attraction of compoſition, form a ſubſtance, the properties of which are different from thoſe which each of the bodies poſſeſſed before their union. 7. The attraction of compoſition is meaſurable by the difficulty of deſtroying the combination formed between two or more bodies. 8. Bodies have not all the ſame degree of chemical attraction with regard to one another; and the degrees of this force, ſubſiſting between different bodies, may be determined by obſervation.

AFFINITY, COMPOUND. When three or more bodies, on account of their mutual affinity, unite and form one homogeneous body, then the affinity is termed compound affinity or attraction: thus, if to a solution of sugar in water be added spirits of wine, these three bodies will form an homogeneous liquid by compound affinity.

AFFINITY, DOUBLE. *Double elective Attraction.* When two bodies, each consisting of two elementary parts, come into contact, and are decomposed, so that their elements become reciprocally united, and produce two new compound bodies, the decomposition is then termed, decomposition by double affinity: thus, if we add common salt, which consists of muriatic acid and soda, to nitrate of silver, which is composed of nitric acid and silver, these two bodies will be decompounded; for the nitric acid unites with the soda, and the silver with the muriatic acid, and thus may be obtained two new bodies. The common salt and nitrate of silver therefore mutually decompose each other by what is called double affinity.

AFFINITY, INTERMEDIATE. *Appropriate affinity. Affinity of an intermedium*—is, when two substances of different kinds, that show to one another no component affinity, do, by the assistance of a third, combine, and unite into an homogeneous whole: thus, oil and water are substances of different kinds, which, by means of alkali, combine and unite into an homogeneous substance: hence the theory of lixiviums, of washing, &c.

AFFINITY, QUIESCENT AND DIVELLENT. Mr. Kirwan employs the term *Quiescent affinity* to mark that, by virtue of which, the principles of each compound of two bodies, decomposed by double affinity, adhere to each other; and *Divellent affinity*, to distinguish that by which the principles of one body unite and change order with those of the other; thus sulphate of potash or vitriolated tartar is not completely decomposed by the nitric acid or by lime, when either of these principles is separately presented; but if the nitric acid be combined with lime, this nitrate of lime will decompose the sulphate of potash. In this last case the affinity of the sulphuric acid with the alkali is weakened by its affinity to the lime. This acid, therefore, is subject to two affinities, the one which retains it to the alkali, called quiescent, and the other which attracts it towards the lime, called divellent affinity.

AFFINITY, RECIPROCAL. When a compound of two bodies is decomposed by a third; the separated principle being in its turn capable of decomposing the new combination.

AFFINITY, SIMPLE. *Single elective Attraction.* If a body, consisting of two component parts, be decomposed on the approach of a third, which has a greater affinity with one of those component parts than with the other, then the decomposition is termed, decomposition by simple affinity: for instance, if pure potash be added to a combination of nitric acid and lime, the union which existed between these two bodies will cease, because the potash combines with the nitric acid, and the lime being disengaged is precipitated. The reason is, that the nitric acid has a greater affinity for the pure potash than for the lime, therefore it deserts the lime to combine with the potash. When two bodies only enter into chemical union, the affinity, which was the cause of it, is also termed simple or single elective attraction; thus the solution of sugar and water is produced by simple affinity, because there are but two bodies.

AFFLĀTUS, (*Afflatus, us*, m.). A vapour or blast. A species of erysipelas, which attacks people suddenly

AGALACTĬA, (*Agalactia, æ*, f. αγαλαξια; from α, priv. and γαλα, milk). A defect of milk in child bed.

AGALACTOS, (Αγαλακτος; from α, priv. and γαλα, milk). An epithet given to a woman who has no milk when she lies in.

AGALLOCHI VERI LIGNUM. See *Lignum aloes.*

AGARIC. See *Agaricus.*

AGARĬCUS, (*Agaricus, i*, m. αγαρικος; from *Agaria*, a town in Asia; or from *Agarus*, a river in Sarmatia, now Malowonda). *Agaricus chirurgorum. Agaricus quercus. Agaric of the oak. Touchwood boletus.* This fungus *Boletus igniarius; acaulis pulvinatus levis, poris tenuissimis* of Linnæus, has been much used by surgeons as an external styptic. Though still employed on the continent, the surgeons in this country have very wisely declared its inefficacy.

AGARĬCUS ALBUS. The plant known by this name in the pharmacopeias, is the *Boletus laricis.* Several preparations, as trochisces, an extract, and pills, are ordered to be made with it in foreign pharmacopeias, which are administered against phthysical complaints.

AGARĬCUS CHIRURGŌRUM. See *Agaricus.*

AGARĬCUS MUSCARĬUS. This fungus is the *Agaricus muscarius; stipitatus, lamellis dimidiatis solitariis, stipite volvato apice dilatato basi ovato* of Linnæus. The use of this vegetable is not much known in this country. It is employed externally to strumous, phagedenic, and fistulous ulcers, as an escarotic.

AGE. The antients reckoned six stages of life: *pueritia*, childhood, which is to the fifth year of our *age*;—*adolescentia*, youth, reckoned to the eighteenth, and youth properly so called to the twenty-fifth year;—*juventus*, reckoned from the twenty-fifth to the thirty-fifth year;—*virilis ætas*, manhood, from the thirty-fifth to the fiftieth year;—*senectus*, old *age*, from fifty to sixty,—*crepita ætas*, decrepid age, which ends in death.

AGENESĬA, (*Agenesia, æ*, f. αγενησια; from α, neg. and γινομαι, to beget). Impotency in man. A term employed by Vogel. It is synonimous with *anaphrodisia* and *dysspermatismus.*

AGERĂTUM, (*Ageratum, i*, n. αγηρατον; from α, priv. and γηρας, *senectus*, never old, ever green). *Balsamita femina. Eupatorium mezues.* Maudlin. The ageratum of the pharmacopœias is the *Achillea ageratum foliis lanceolatis, obtusis, acute serratis* of Linnæus. It is esteemed in some countries as an anthelmintic and alterative, and is given in hepatic obstructions.

AGEUSTĬA, (*Ageustia, æ*, f. αγευστια; from α, neg. and γευω, to taste). *Agheustia.* A want of, or diminished taste. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysesthesia*, of Cullen. It is mostly symptomatic of fever, paralysis, &c.

AGGLUTITĬO, (*Agglutitio, onis*, f.). Obstruction in the œsophagus, or a difficulty in swallowing.

AGGREGATE GLANDS, (*Glandulæ aggregatæ*; from *aggrego*, to assemble together). An assemblage of glands, as those of the intestines.

AGGREGATION, (*Aggregatio, onis*, f.) See *Affinity.*

AGNĪNA MEMBRĀNA. A term given by Aetius to what we now call the *amnios.*

AGNUS CASTUS, (from αγνος, a lamb; so called from the down upon its surface, which resembles that upon a lamb's skin; and *castus*, because the chaste matrons, at the feasts of Ceres, strewed them upon their beds, and lay upon them). The plant bearing this name in the pharmacopeias is the *Vitex agnus castus; foliis digitatis, serratis, spicis verticillatis* of Linneus. The seeds are the medicinal part, which have, when fresh, a fragrant

ſmell, and an acrid, aromatic taſte: they are now fallen into diſuſe.

AGOMPHIĂSIS, (*Agomphiaſis, is*, f. αγομφιασις; from α, neg. and γομφος, compact). A looſeneſs of the teeth.

AGŎNĬA, (*Agonia, æ*, f. αγωνια; from α, priv. and γονος, an offspring). Sterility.

AGŌNĬA, (*Agonia, æ*, f. αγωνια; from αγωνιαω, to ſtruggle). Agony, as when there is a ſtruggle between life and death. Alſo fear and ſadneſs of mind.

AGRĬA, (*Agria, æ*, f. αγρια; from αγριος, wild). Holly; alſo a malignant puſtule.

AGRIMŌNĬA, (*Agrimonia, æ*, f. αγριμωνη; from αγρος, a field, and μονος, alone: ſo named from its being the chief of all wild herbs). Common agrimony, *Agrimonia Eupatoria*; *foliis caulinis pinnatis, impari petiolata, fructibus hiſpidis* of Linnæus. A common plant about hedges and ditches, which poſſeſſes adſtringent and corroborant qualities; and has been adminiſtered as a deobſtruent in hepatic and other viſceral obſtructions.

AGRIMŌNĬA EUPATORĬA, (called *Eupatoria*; from *Eupator*, its inventor; or quaſi *hepatorium*, ηπατοριον; from ηπαρ, the liver; becauſe it is uſeful in diſeaſes of the liver). The ſyſtematic name for the *Agrimonia* of the pharmacopœias. See *Agrimonia*.

AGRIMONY. See *Agrimonia*.

AGRIMONY, HEMP. See *Eupatorium*.

AGRIPPÆ. Thoſe children were formerly ſo called who were born with their feet foremoſt; becauſe Agrippa, the Roman, was ſaid to be ſo born.

AGRYPNĬA, (*Agrypnia, æ*, f. αγρυπνια; frm α, priv. and υπνος, ſleep). Without ſleep.

AGUE. See *Febris intermittens*.

AIR, COMMON, (*Aer, aĕris*, m). *Atmoſpherical air. Atmoſphere.* An inviſible, inodorous, compound fluid, capable of rarefaction and condenſation, which every where inveſts the globe. It is compoſed of azot and oxygen gas, in the proportion of 73 of azot to 27 of oxygen in a ſtate of mixture. Its phyſical properties are, fluidity, inviſibility, want of taſte and ſmell, gravity, and elaſticity. The chemical properties are of two kinds, viz. the property of promoting combuſtion, and the power of maintaining the life of animals that reſpire it.

AISTHETĒRĬUM, (*Aiſtheterium, i*, n. αισθητηριον; from αισθανομαι, to perceive). The *Senſorium commune*. See *Senſorium*.

AIX LA CHAPELLE. A town in the ſouth of France, where there is a ſulphureous water, the moſt ſtriking feature of which, and what is almoſt peculiar to it, is the unuſual quantity of ſulphur it contains; the whole, however, is ſo far united to a gazeous baſis, as to be entirely volatalized by heat: ſo that none is left in the reſiduum after evaporation. This thermal water is much reſorted to on the continent, for a variety of complaints. It is found eſſentially ſerviceable in the numerous ſymptoms of diſorders in the ſtomach and biliary organs, that follow a life of high indulgence in the luxuries of the table; in nephritic caſes; ſtiffneſs and rigidity of the joints and ligaments, from rheumatiſm and gout; in palſy, and in the diſtreſſing debility which follows a long courſe of mercury and exceſſive ſalivation.

AJAVA. The name given by the Portugueſe to a ſeed from the Malabar coaſt, which is in the Eaſt celebrated as a remedy for the colic.

AJUGA PYRAMĬDĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name for the *Conſolida media* of the pharmacopœias. See *Conſolida media*.

ALA, (*Ala, æ*, f.). The arm pit.

ALÆ, (*Ala, æ*, f.). Wings. This term is frequently applied to any part extended like a wing, as the alæ of the ſphænoid bone.

ALÆ NASI. *Pinnæ naſi.* The lateral and moveable parts of the noſe.

ALÆ VESPERTĪLĬONUM. (*Veſpertilio, ōnis*, m. *quod veſperi volet*). That part of the ligaments of the womb, which is between the tubes and the *ovaria*: ſo called from its reſemblance to the wing of a bat.

ALBUGINĔA OCŬLI, (*Albuginea*, ſc. *tunica*; from *albus*, white). See *Adnata.*

ALBUGINĔA TESTIS. (*Tunica albunigea teſtis. Albuginea*; from *albus*, white: ſo called on account of its white colour). The innermoſt coat of the teſticle. It is a ſtrong, white, and denſe membrane, immediately covering the body or ſubſtance of the teſticle. On its outer ſurface it is ſmooth, but rough and uneven on the inner.

ALBŪGO OCŬLI, (*Albugo, ĭnis*, f. from *albus*, white). A white ſpeck or opacity of the cornea.

ALBŪMEN, (*Albumen, ĭnis*, n.). *Albumĕna.* Albuminous matter. Coagulable lymph. Albumen is very abundant in the animal kingdom. It is the principal conſtituent part of the ſerum of the blood, and the lymphatic fluid. It forms the cheeſe in milk, and makes up the greater part of the white of eggs. It is compoſed of carbon, hydrogen, azot, oxygen, phoſphorus, and ſomewhat of calcareous earth.

ALBŪMEN OVI. The white of an egg.

ALCALI. See *Alkali.*

ALCÆA ROSIA. The ſyſtematic name for the *Malva arborea.* See *Malva arborea.*

ALCHEMILLA, (*Alchemilla, æ*, f.: ſo called becauſe it was celebrated by the old alchemiſts). Lady's mantle. The plant to which this name is given in the pharmacopœias is the *Alchemilla vulgaris, foliis lobatis* of Linnæus. It was formerly eſteemed as a powerful adſtringent in hemorrhages, fluor albus, &c. given internally.

ALCHEMY, (*Alchemia, æ*, f.; from the Arabic particle *al*, which is added by way of eminence, and χυω, to melt). That part of chemiſtry which relates particularly to the tranſmutation of metals.

ALCOHOL. See *Alkohol.*

ALDER TREE. See *Alnus*, and *Frangula.*

ALDER-BERRY, BEARING. See *Frangula.*

ALEMBIC, (*Alembicus, i*, m.; from the Arabian particle *al*, and αμβιξ, from αμβαινω, to aſcend). Moorſhead. A chemical utenſil made of glaſs, metal, or earthenware, and adapted to receive volatile products from retorts. It conſiſts of a body, to which is fitted a conical head, and out of this head deſcends laterally a beak to be inſerted into the receiver.

ALEXANDERS, COMMON. This plant, *Smyrnium oluſatrum* of Linnæus, was formerly cultivated for ſallads. It is now ſuperceded by celery.

ALEXANDERS, ROUND LEAVED. *Smyrnium perfoliatum* of Linneus. The blanched ſtalks of this ſpecies are far preferable to thoſe of common alexanders, and are eſteemed as ſtomachic and nervine.

ALEXIPHARMICS, (*Alexĭpharmica*, ſc. *medicamenta*, from αλεξω, to expel, and φαρμακον, a poiſon). Medicines which counteract poiſons.

ALGĒDO, (*Algedo, ĭnis*, f.; from αλγος, pain). A violent pain about the anus, perinæum, teſtes, urethra, and bladder, ariſing from the ſudden ſtoppage of a virulent gonorrhea. A term very ſeldom uſed.

ALGOR, (*Algor, ōris*, m.). A ſudden chillneſs or rigor. A term met with in Sauvage's and Sagar's noſology.

ALIENATĬO MENTIS. See *Delirium.*

ALIFORMES MUSCŬLI. See *Pterigord muſcles.*

ALIFORMIS; (from *ala*, a wing, and *forma*, reſemblance.) Wing-like.

ALIMENTS. Thoſe ſubſtances which taken into the ſtomach are fitted to afford and ſupply the fluid and matter of which the body is compoſed.

ALKALI, (*Alkali*, n. ind. and *alkalia* in the plural; ſo called from *kali*, a plant, from which it is obtained). *Alcali*. A term given to ſubſtances, which poſſeſs an acrid, burning, urinous ſmell; convert ſyrup of violets to a green colour; render oils miſcible with water; and effervesce with certain acids. Alkalis are either *fixed*, that is, they are not reduced to the ſtate of gaz, by the moſt intenſe heat; or they are *volatile*, i. e. the common temperature is almoſt ſufficient to change their ſtate of aggregation: potaſh, or fixed vegetable alkali, and ſoda, or fixed mineral alkali, are of the former kind; and, of the latter, ammoniac, or volatile alkali, is the only one known. Alkalis are ſeldom pure; they are uſually combined with carbonic acid in the form of neutral ſalts. In this ſtate they are termed *mild*, *common*, *aerated*, or *carbonated alkalis*, to diſtinguiſh them from pure or cauſtic alkalis. There are only three kinds of alkalis at preſent known, which are diſtinguiſhed in the new chemical nomenclature by the names, *potaſh*, *ſoda*, and *ammoniac*; and in the pharmacopœias, by the terms, *kali*, *natron*, and *volatile alkali*. See *Potaſh*, *Soda*, and *Ammoniac*.

ALKALI, CAUSTIC. *Alkali cauſticum*. Alkalis are ſo called when deprived of the carbonic acid they contain, for they then become more cauſtic and more violent in their action. There are two kinds, the mineral, called *ſoda*, or cauſtic mineral alkali, in the new chemical nomenclature, and *natron* in the pharmacopœias; and *potaſſa*, or cauſtic vegetable alkali, of the new chemical nomenclature, and *kali* of the pharmacopœias. The volatile alkali, or *ammoniac*, is likewiſe called cauſtic volatile alkali.

ALKALI, FIXED. Thoſe alkalis are ſo called, that emit no characteriſtic ſmell, and cannot be volatilized. Two kinds of fixed alkalis have only hitherto been known, namely, the vegetable alkali, or potaſh; and the mineral, or ſoda. See *Potaſh* and *Soda*.

ALKALI, FOSSILE. See *Soda*.

ALKALI, MINERAL, (*Alkali Minerāle*: ſo called becauſe it forms the baſis of marine ſalt, a mineral production). See *Soda*.

ALKALI, VEGETABLE, (*Alkali vegitdbĭle*: ſo called becauſe it abounds in many vegetables). See *Potaſh*.

ALKALI, VOLATILE, (*Alkali volatĭle*: ſo called becauſe it is volatile, in oppoſition to the other alkalis, which are fixed). See *Ammoniac*.

ALKALI VOLATĬLE NITRĀTUM. See *Ammoniac*.

ALKALI VOLATĬLE VITRĬOLĀTUM. See *Ammoniac*.

ALKALIZATION, (*Alkalizatio*, *onis*, f.). Alcalization. The impregnating any thing with an alkaline ſalt, as ſpirit of wine, &c.

ALKANNA. See *Anchuſa*.

ALKANNA VERA. *Alkanna orientalis*. An oriental plant; the *Lawſonia inermis*, *ramis inermibus*, of Linnæus; principally employed in its native place as a dye. The root is the officinal part; which, however, is rarely met with in the ſhops. It poſſeſſes adſtringent properties, and may be uſed as a ſubſtitute for the *anchuſa*.

ALKEKENGI, (*Alkekengi*, Arab.). *Halicabacum*. Winter Cherry. This plant, *Phyſalis alkekengi*; *foliis geminis integris acutis*, *caule herbaceo*, *inferne ſubramoſo*, of Linnæus, is cultivated in our gardens. The berries are recommended as a diuretic, from ſix to twelve for a doſe, in dropſical and calculous diſeaſes.

ALKOHOL, (*Alkohol*, *lis*, n. from an Arabian word, which ſignifies antimony: ſo called from the uſage of the Eaſtern ladies to paint their eyebrows with antimony, reduced to a

moſt ſubtle powder; which at laſt came to ſignify any thing exalted to its higheſt perfection). *Spiritus vini concentratus. Spiritus vini rectificatiſſimus.* Alkohol is highly rectified ſpirit of wine, freed from all thoſe aqueous particles which are not eſſential to it by duly performed rectification. In its pureſt ſtate, it is quite colourleſs, and clear, of a ſtrong and penetrating ſmell and taſte; capable of being ſet on fire without a wick, and burning with a flame, without leaving a reſidue, and without ſmoke and ſoot. Alkohol is miſcible with water in all proportions. It does not freeze in any degree of coldneſs. It is the direct menſtruum or ſolvent of reſins. It diſſolves, alſo, the natural balſams. As the reſinous and various other parts of plants are ſoluble in alkohol, this fluid is made uſe of for extracting thoſe parts, and for making the preparations called *elixirs, tinctures, eſſences*, &c.

ALLANTOID MEMBRANE, (*Membrana allantoidea*; from αλλας, a hogs pudding, and ειδος, likeneſs; becauſe in ſome brute animals it is long and thick). A membrane of the fetus, peculiar to brutes, which contains the urine diſcharged from the bladder.

ALL-GOOD. *Engliſh mercury.* The vulgar name for the *Chenopodium bonus Henricus* of Linnæus; a plant which may be boiled for ſpinach, and which is in no degree inferior to it.

ALLIĀRĬA, (*Alliaria, æ*, f.; from *allium*, garlick; from its ſmell reſembling garlick). Jack of the hedge. Sauce alone, or ſtinking hedge muſtard. The plant to which this name is given in the pharmacopœias is the *Eryſimum alliaria*; *foliis cordatis* of Linnæus; it is ſometimes exhibited in humoral aſthma and dyſpnea with ſucceſs. Its virtues are powerfully diaphoretic, diuretic, and antiſcorbutic.

ALLĬUM, (*Allium, i*, n.; from *oleo*, to ſmell). Garlick. *Allium ſativum caule planiſolio bulbifero, bulbo compoſito, ſtaminibus tricuſpidatis* of Linnæus. Claſs. *Hexandria*. Order. *Mornogynia*. It is a native of Sicily; but as it is much uſed, both for culinary and medicinal purpoſes, it is cultivated in our gardens. Every part of the plant, but more eſpecially the root, has a pungent taſte, and a peculiar offenſive ſmell. The medicinal uſes of garlick are various: it is given as an expectorant in pituitous aſthmas. Its utility, as a diuretic, in dropſies, is very conſiderable. It is alſo eſteemed as an antihelmintic; and the decoction of the root is of infinite ſervice in calculous and gravelly complaints. The ſyrup and oxymel of garlick are expunged from our pharmacopeias, as the ſwallowing of the root in ſmall pieces is conſidered the beſt way of adminiſtering it.

ALLĬUM CEPA. The ſyſtematic name for the *Cepa* of the ſhops. See *Cepa*.

ALLĬUM PORRUM. The ſyſtematic name for the *Porrum* of the pharmacopeias. See *Porrum*.

ALLĬUM SATĪVUM. The ſyſtematic name for *Allium*. See *Allium*.

ALLĬUM VICTORĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name for the *Victoralis longa* of the pharmacopeias. See *Victoralis longa*.

ALLOTRIOPHAGĬA, (*Allotriophagia, æ*, f.; αλλοτριοφαγια; from αλλοτριος, foreign, and φαγω, to eat). A ſynonym of *pica*. See *Pica*. In Vogel's noſology it ſignifies the greedily eating unuſual things for food.

ALLOYS. By this word chemiſts and artificers commonly underſtand any portion of baſe metal, or metallic mixture, which is added to combine metals by fuſion into one ſeemingly homogeneous maſs.

ALLSPICE. See *Pimento*.

ALMOND, BITTER. See *Amygdala*.

ALMOND, COMMON. See *Amygdala*.

ALMOND, SWEET. See *Amygdala*.

ALMONDS OF THE EARS. The

tonſils are vulgarly ſo called from their ſituation and reſemblance. See *Tonſils*.

ALMONDS OF THE THROAT. A vulgar name for the tonſils. See *Tonſils*.

ALNUS, (*Alnus, i*, f.). The birch-tree. The juice of the freſh leaves of this plant, *Betula alnus*; *pediculis ramoſis* of Linnæus, are employed to diſcuſs the milk from the breaſts of women with ſucceſs.

ALOE. See *Aloes*.

ALOES, (*Aloë, es*, f. from *ahlah*, a Hebrew word, ſignifying growing near the ſea.) The deep red or brown and very bitter juice of the *Aloe perfoliata* of Linnæus. *Aloe, foliis caulinis dentatis amplexicaulibus vaginantibus, floribus corymboſis, cernuis, pedunculatis, ſubcylindricis. Claſs.* Hexandria. *Order.* Monogynia. The ſpecial character of a variety, *Aloe perfoliata ſocotorina*, is *Aloe ſocotorina, foliis longiſſimis et anguſtiſſimis, marginibus ſpinoſis, floribus ſpicatis*, Aloes are diſtinguiſhed into three ſpecies—ſocotrine, hepatic, and cabaline; theſe differ only in their reſpective degrees of purity, the firſt being the beſt. They are obtained in the following manner: deep inciſions are made, from which the juice flows; this is decanted from its fecula, and thickened by the ſun's heat, in which ſtate it is packed in leather bags, under the denomination of *ſocotrine aloes*. The juice obtained by preſſure from the leaves, after it is purified by ſtanding, and dried, is the *hepatic aloes*, or *aloe barbaderſis*. The ſame leaves, by ſtronger preſſure, afford more juice, which, mixed with the dregs of the two foregoing, conſtitutes the *cabaline aloes*. The firſt ſort contains a much leſs quantity of reſin than the two laſt, which are more ſtrongly purgative. Aloes is eſteemed the beſt laxative for women with ſuppreſſed catamenia, and is much employed as an antihelmintic. The following preparations of this drug are directed in the London and Edinburgh pharmacopœias, viz. the *vinum aloes*; *tinctura aloes*; *tinctura aloes compoſita*; *tinctura benzoes compoſita*; *pulvis aloeticus*; *pulvis aloeticus cum guaiaco*; *pulvis aloeticus cum ferro*; *pulvis e ſcammonio cum aloe*; *pilulæ ex aloe*; and the *pilulæ ex aloe cum myrrha*.

ALOĒS LIGNUM. See *Lignum aloes*.

ALPHUS, (*Alphus, i.* m. αλφος; from αλφαινω, to change; becauſe it changes the colour of the ſkin). *Vitiligo alba. Morphæa alba. Lepra maculoſa alba.* A ſpecies of leproſy, in which white ſpots appear upon the ſkin. It is produced by a peculiar miaſma, which is endemial to Arabia.

ALSĪNE MEDĬA, (*Alſine, es*, f. from αλσος, a grove). The ſyſtematic name for the plant, called chickweed; which, if boiled tender, may be eaten like ſpinach, and forms alſo an excellent emollient poultice.

ALTERATIVES, (*Alterantia*, ſc. *medicamenta*; from *altero*, to change). Thoſe remedies are ſo called, which are given with a view to re-eſtabliſh the healthy functions of the animal œconomy, without producing any ſenſible evacuation.

ALTHÆA, (*Althæa*, f. from αλθεω, to heal; ſo called from its ſuppoſed qualities in healing). Marſh-mallow. *Althæa officinalis* of Linnæus. *Althæa foliis ſimplicibus tomentoſis. Claſs.* Monadelphia. *Order.* Polyandria. The gluten or mucilaginous matter with which this plant abounds is the medicinal part of the plant; it is commonly employed for its emollient and demulcent qualities in coughs, hoarſeneſs, and catarrhs. The root had formerly a place in many of the compounds in the pharmacopœias, but now it is only directed in the form of ſyrup.

ALTHÆA OFFICINĀLIS. The

ſyſtematic name for the *Althæa* of the ſhops. See *Althæa*.

ALUDELS. Hollow ſpheres of ſtone, or earthenware, with a ſhort neck projecting at each end, by means of which one globe might be ſet upon the other. The uppermoſt has no opening at the top. They were uſed in former times for the ſublimation of ſeveral ſubſtances.

ALUM. See *Alumen*.

ALUMEN, (*Alūmen, ĭnis*, n.). Alum. The ſubſtance directed in the pharmacopœias by this name is called in the new chemical nomenclature, *ſulphas aluminæ acidulus cum potaſſa*, and *argilla vitriolata*, by Bergman. It is a neutral ſalt, formed by the combination of the earth called *alumin*, or pure clay, and ſulphuric acid. The alum of commerce, and that preſented for medicinal purpoſes, is afforded by ores which are dug out of the earth for this purpoſe, and manufactured by firſt decompoſing the ore, then lixiviating it, evaporating the lixiviums, and then cryſtallizing the alum, which affects the form of tetrahedral pyramids, applied to each other baſe to baſe; ſometimes the angles are truncated. The following kinds of alum are met with in the ſhops;

1. *Ice or rock alum*. This is always in very large tranſparent maſſes, and derives its name from Rocca in Syria, now called Edeſſa, in which the earlieſt manufactory of this ſalt was eſtabliſhed. This ſpecies is not very pure.

2. *Roman alum*, which is prepared in the territory of Civita-Vecchia. This ſpecies comes in lumps of the ſize of eggs, covered with a reddiſh efferveſcence.

Alum, when taſted at firſt, imparts a ſweetneſs, but is ſoon felt to be ſtrongly aſtringent; on account of which virtue it is of very extenſive uſe in medicine and ſurgery. Internally it is given in hœmoptoe, colica pictonum, chronic pains of the bowels and eneureſis. Externally it is applied as a ſtyptic to bleeding veſſels and to ulcers, where there is is too copious a ſecretion of pus.

Alum is alſo applied to many purpoſes of life; in this country bakers mix a quantity with the bread, to render it white; this mixture renders the bread better adapted for weak and relaxed bowels; but in oppoſite ſtates of the alimentary canal, this practice is highly pernicious.

Expoſed to the fire, alum at firſt becomes liquified, a good deal of an aqueous vapour exhales from it, and it ſwells into a large white maſs, rough and full of cavities all over its ſurface. This is termed burnt alum, *alumen uſtum*, and is ſometimes employed by ſurgeons to deſtroy fungous fleſh. Beſides this preparation, alum enters the *aqua aluminis compoſita* and the *coagulum aluminis* of the pharmacopœias.

ALŪMEN USTUM. See *Alumen*.

ALUMIN. *Alumine*. Earth of alum. Pure clay. Pure alumin is an earth ſoft to the touch of the finger; adheres to the tongue; hardens in the fire; forms a paſte with water; ſuſceptible of combination with moſt acids, and contained in a large proportion in common clays, pipe-earth, ſchiſtus, ſteatites, and many ſtones. It is never found pure in its native ſtate. With the acids it is known to form more than twenty ſpecies of neutral ſalts. Of theſe only one is uſed in medicine and ſurgery, called *alum*, or *aluminous ſulphate*.

ALVĔĀRĬUM, (*Alvearium, i*, n. from *alveare*, a bee-hive). That part of the meatus auditorius externus is ſo called which contains the wax of the ear.

ALVĔŎLI, (*Alveolus, i*, m. from *alveare*, a bee-hive; from their reſemblance to its cells). The ſockets of the teeth.

ALVĔUS COMMŪNIS, (*Alveus, i.*

m.). The common duct or communication of the ampullæ of the membranaceous semi-circular canals, is so termed by Scarpa.

Alvidūca, (*Alviduca*, sc. *medicamenta*). Medicines which open the bowels.

Alvifluxus. A purging.

Alvus, (*Alvus*, *i*, f.). The abdomen. This term is now applied to the state of the intestinal canal; thus, when the bowels are relaxed, it is called *alvus liquida*; when costive, *alvus dura*; and when very costive, *alvus adstricta*.

Amalgam, (*Amalgama*,; from αμ-, and γαμεω, to marry). A substance produced by mixing mercury with a metal.

Amāra dulcis. See *Dulcamara*.

Amaranth, esculent. The leaves of this plant, *Amaranthus olearaceus* of Linnæus, and several other species are eaten in India the same as cabbage is here.

Amaranthus oleracĕus. See *Amaranth, esculent*.

Amatorĭi, (*Amatorii*, sc. *musculi*). A term given to the muscles of the eye by which that organ is moved when ogling.

Amaurōsis, (*Amaurosis*, *is*, f. αμαυρωσις; from αμαυροω, to darken). *Gutta serēna*. *Amblyopia*. A total loss of sight without any visible injury to the eye, the pupil mostly dilated and immovable. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ* of Cullen. It arises generally from compression of the optic nerves, *amaurosis compressionis*; from debility, *amaurosis atonica*; from spasm, *amaurosis spasmodica*; or from poisons, *amaurosis venenata*.

Amber, (*Succĭnum*, *i*, n.). A beautiful bituminous substance, of a yellow or brown colour, either transparent or opake, which takes a good polish, and, after a slight rubbing, becomes so electric, as to attract straws and small bodies; hence it was called *electrum* by the ancients, and hence the word electricity. When powdered it emits an agreeable smell. It is dug out of the earth at various depths, and often contains insects in high preservation, a circumstance which proves that it has been liquid. Amber is also found floating on the shores of the Baltic, and is met with in Italy, Sicily, Poland, Sweden, &c. From its colour or opacity it has been variously distinguished; thus white, orange, golden, cloudy amber, &c. An oil is obtained from it, which, as well as its other preparations, is much used in medicine against spasmodic diseases.

Ambergris, (*Ambragrisea*, *æ*, f.). A concrete, bituminous substance of a soft and tenacious consistence, marked with black and yellow spots, and of an agreeable and strong smell when heated or rubbed. It is found in very irregular masses, floating on the sea near the Molucca Islands, Madagascar, Sumatra, on the coast of Coromandel, Brazil, America, China, and Japan. Several American fishermen assured Dr. Schwediawer, that they often found this substance, either among the excrements of the *Physeter macrocephalus*, a species of whale, or in its stomach, or in a vessel near the stomach. The medical qualities of ambergris are stomachic, cordial, and antispasmodic. It is very seldom used in this country.

Amblōsis, (*Ambloſis*, *is*, f. αμβλωσις; from αμβλοω, to cause abortion). A miscarriage.

Amblotĭca, (*Amblotica*, sc. *medicamenta*, αμβλοτικα; from αμβλοω, to cause abortion). Medicines which were supposed to occasion abortion.

Amblyōpĭa, (*Amblyopia*, *æ*, f. from αμβλυς, , dull, and ωψ, an eye). A debility or dulness of sight. An incipient amaurosis.

Amenorrhœa, (*Amenorrhœa*, *æ*, f. from α, priv. μηνιαιος, monthly, and ρεω, *fluo*). A partial or total obstruction of the menses from other

cauſes than pregnancy. Dr. Cullen places this genus in the claſs *Locales*, and order *Epiſcheſes*. His ſpecies are, 1. *Emanſio menſium*; that is, when the menſes do not appear ſo early as is uſually expected. 2. *Suppreſſio menſium*, when, after the menſes appearing and continuing as uſual for ſome time, they ceaſe without pregnancy occurring. 3. *Amenorrhœa difficilis, vel Menorrhagia difficilis*, when this flux is too ſmall in quantity, and attended with great pain, &c.

AMENTĬA, (*Amentia, æ*, f. from *a*, priv. and *mens*, the mind). Imbecility of Intellect, by which the relations of things are either not perceived, or not recollected. A diſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes*, and order *veſaniæ* of Cullen. When it originates at birth it is called *amentia congenita*; when from the infirmities of age, *amentia ſenilis*; and when ſome from accidental cauſe, *amentia acquiſita*.

AMERICAN BALSAM. See *Balſamum peruvianum*.

AMMI, (*Ammi*, n. ind. αμμι; from αμμος, ſand; from its likeneſs to little gravel ſtones). The herb Biſhop's-weed, of which there are two ſorts, the *ammi verum* and *vulgare*.

AMMI MAJUS. The ſyſtematic name for the *ammi vulgare* of the ſhops. See *Ammi vulgare*.

AMMI VERUM. The ſeeds of this plant, *Siſon ammi*; *foliis tripinnatis, radicalibus linearibus, caulinis ſetaceis, ſtipularibus longioribus* of Linnæus, have a grateful ſmell, ſomewhat like that of origanum, and were formerly adminiſtered as a carminative.

AMMI VULGĀRE. The ſeeds of this plant, *Ammi majus*; *foliis inferioribus pinnatis, lanceolatis, ſerratis*; *ſuperioribus multifidis, linearibus*, of Linnæus, are leſs powerful than thoſe of the *Siſon ammi*, but were exhibited with the ſame views.

AMMONĬA MURĬĀTA. The article to which this name is given in the pharmacopœias, being a muriate of ammoniac, is called in the new chemical nomenclature, *murias ammoniacæ*. It is found in great abundance in nature, and may be prepared from a variety of ſubſtances. See *Sal-ammoniac*.

AMMONĬA PRÆPĂRĀTA, (*Ammonia, æ*, f.). *Prepared ammonia. Sal volatile ſalis ammoniacæ. Sal alkali volatile.* The article under this name in the pharmacopœias is called *carbonas ammoniacæ cryſtalliſatus* in the new chemical nomenclature, it being a pure cryſtallized carbonate of ammonia. The preparation termed *ſal volatilis cornu cervi*, although obtained by a different proceſs, is in fact the ſame thing. It poſſeſſes ſtimulating nervine, antacid virtues, and is in theſe points of view in high eſtimation in debility, typhus, ataxia, atonic ſpaſms, paralyſis, ſyncope, arthritis, rheumatiſm, &c.

AMMONIAC, (*Ammoniăca, æ*, f.). Ammoniacal gaz. The ſubſtance to which this name is given in new chemical nomenclatures, is what was formerly called *volatile alkali*. It is a fluid reſembling air, and has the ſame tranſparency and elaſticity; it is rather lighter however; its ſmell is more penetrating, and its taſte is acrid and cauſtic: hence it produces inflammations of the eyes, catarrhs, &c. diſeaſes to which thoſe people who are expoſed to its action, from being near putrid animal ſubſtances, urine, &c. and in laboratories, are very ſubject. This air, or ammoniacal gaz, chemiſts have aſcertained to be a compound ſubſtance, conſiſting of hydrogen and azot. Athough ammoniac has not yet been employed medicinally in its aeriform ſtate, its compounds are not neglected. Ammoniac is readily abſorbed by water; and when this fluid is ſaturated with it, it is termed fluor, or cauſtic volatile alkali, *alkali volatile cauſticum, alkali animale purum*, and in the pharmacopœias, *aqua ammoniæ puræ*. The *ſulphate of ammoniac*, a ſalt formed by the combination of ammoniac with the ſulphuric acid, is eſteem-

ed for its diuretic and deobſtruent qualities, and is deſcribed by Bergman under the title of *alkali volatile vitriolatum*, and by Glauber by the name *ſal ammoniacum ſecretum*. Ammoniac and nitric acid form a ſalt, the nitrate of ammoniac, *nitras ammoniacæ*, which poſſeſſes irritating, diuretic, and deobſtruent virtues, and is deſcribed by Bergman under the name of *Alkali volatile nitratum*; it is alſo termed *ſal ammoniacus nitroſus*, and *ammonia nitrata*. The direct combination of muriatic acid with ammoniac forms the muriate of ammoniac; ſee *Ammonia muriata* and *Sal-ammoniac*. Beſides theſe there are the *aqua ammoniæ*, the *aqua ammoniæ acetatæ*, and the *ſpiritus ammoniæ compoſitus*, in which the ammoniac is the chief ingredient. See *Aqua ammoniæ*, *Aqua ammoniæ acetatæ*, and *Spiritus ammoniæ compoſitus*.

Ammōniăcum, (*Ammoniacum, i*, n. αμμωνιακον; ſo called from *Ammonia*, from whence it was brought). *Gum-ammoniac*. A concrete gummi-reſinous juice, compoſed of little lumps, or tears, of a ſtrong and ſomewhat ungrateful ſmell, and nauſeous taſte, followed by a bitterneſs. There has, hitherto, been no information had concerning the plant which affords this drug. It is imported here from Turkey, and from the Eaſt Indies. Internally ammoniacum is given in aſthmas, and difficulty of expectoration. In large doſes it proves purgative. Externally, made into a plaſter with acetum ſcillæ, it produces puſtules, filled with a tenacious pus, and is a powerful reſolvent in inflammation of the cheſt, knee, &c.

Ammoniacum gummi. See *Ammoniacum*.

Amōmum, (*Amωmum, i*, n. from an Arabian word ſignifying a pigeon, whoſe foot it was thought to reſemble). *Amomum verum*. A fruit about the ſize of a grape, of a ſtrong and grateful aromatic taſte and penetrating ſmell, moſtly given as a carminative.

Amōmum cardamōmum. The ſyſtematic name for the *cardamomum minus*. See *Cardamomum minus*.

Amōmum granum paradīsi. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the grains of paradiſe. See *Grana paradiſi*.

Amōmum zingĭber. The ſyſtematic name of a plant which affords ginger. See *Zingiber*.

Amnēsia, (*Amneſia, æ*, f. from α, priv. μνησις, memory). *Amneſia*. Forgetfulneſs, moſtly a ſymptomatic affection.

Amnestĭa, (*Amneſtia, æ*, f. αμνηστια; from α, priv. and μνηστις, memory). Forgetfulneſs. See *Amneſia*.

Amnĭos, (*Amnios, or on, i*, m. *et* n. from αμνιον, a veſſel which the ancients uſed for the reception of blood in ſacrifices). The innermoſt membrane of the membranaceous ovum of the fœtus.

Amphēmĕrīnos, (αμφημερινος, from αμφι, about, ἡμερα, a day). *Amphemerina*. A quotidian fever. A ſpecies of ague.

Amphiarthrōsis, (*Amphiarthroſis, is*, f. αμφιαρθρωσις; from αμφι, both, and αρθρωσις, an articulation). A ſpecies of connexion of bones, which admits of an obſcure motion, as is obſerved in the metacarpal and metatarſal bones, and the vertebræ.

Amphibĭus, (αμφιβιος; from αμφι, *ambo*, and βιος, *vita*. Animals are thus called, that live both on land and in the water). The *amphibious* animals, according to Linnæus, are a claſs whoſe heart is furniſhed with one ventricle and one auricle, in which reſpiration is in a conſiderable degree voluntary.

Amphiblestroidēs, (*Amphibleſtroides, is*, f. αμφιβλεστροειδης; from αμφιβληστρον, a net, and ειδος, a reſemblance). The retina. See *Retina*.

Ampulla, (*Ampulla, æ*, f. αμβολλα; from αναβελλω, to ſwell out). Allbellied veſſels are ſo called in chemiſtry, as bolt-heads, receivers, cucurbits &c.

AMPULLA. In anatomy this term applied by Scarpa to the dilated rtions of the membranaceous femicular canals, juſt within the veſtilum.

AMPUTATIO, (*Amputatio, onis*, f. m *amputo*, to cut off). A ſurgical eration, which conſiſts in the reval of a limb or viſcus; thus we ſay eg, a finger, the penis, &c. when off, are amputated; but when aking of a tumor, or excreſcence, is ſaid to be diſſected out or reved.

AMYGDĂLA, (*Amygdala, æ*, f. ygδαλον; from αμυσσω, to lancinate; called becauſe after the green huſk emoved from the fruit, there apr upon the ſhell certain fiſſures, as vere lacerations). Almonds. The nels of the fruit of the almond-, *Amygdalus communis* of Linnæus. *ygdalus foliis ſerraturis infimis glanſis, floribus ſeſſilibus geminis. Claſs.* ſandria. *Order.* Monogynia. A ive of Barbary. The ſame tree duces either bitter or ſweet alnds. Sweet almonds are more in as food than medicine. They rd, on expreſſion, a great proporı of oil, which, from being more eeable to the palate than the other , is preferred for internal uſe, to en and relax the ſolids, in tickling ghs, hoarſeneſs, coſtiveneſs, neitic pains, &c. Externally it is l in tenſions and rigidities of parlar parts. An emulſion of ſweet onds poſſeſſes the emollient qualis of the oil.

MYGDĂLÆ. The almonds of the . See *Tonſills*.

MYGDĂLÆ AMĀRÆ. See *Amyg-*.

MYGDĂLUS COMMŪNIS. The matic name of the plant which afs both ſweet and bitter almonds. *Amygdala*.

MYGDĂLÆ DULCES. See *Amyg-*.

MYGDĂLUS PERSĬCA. The ſyſtematic name of the common plum tree. See *Perſica*.

AMŸLUM, (*Amylum, i*, n. αμυλον; from α, priv. and μυλη, a mill; becauſe it was formerly made from wheat without the aſſiſtance of a mill). Starch. The white ſubſtance which ſubſides from the water that is mixed with wheaten flour. The ſtarch-makers ſuffer it to remain in the water for a time after it has become acid, which makes it very white and ſoft to the touch, and ſcarcely ſenſible to the taſte. As ſtarch forms the greateſt part of flour, it cannot be doubted but that it is the principal alimentary ſubſtance contained in our bread. Starch is frequently employed in clyſters againſt diarrhœas. Externally ſurgeons apply it as an abſorbent in eryſipelas.

AMŸRIS ELEMIFĔRA, (*Amyris*, f. from α, intenſive, and μυρον, ointment or balm; ſo called from its uſe or ſmell). The ſyſtematic name of the plant from which, it is ſuppoſed, we obtain the reſin called *gum elemi*. See *Elemi*.

AMŸRIS OPOBALSĂMUM. The ſyſtematic name of the plant from which the balſam of Mecca is obtained. See *Balſamum Gileadenſe*.

ANACARDĬUM OCCIDENTĀLE, (*Anacardium, i*, n. ανακαρδιον; from ανα, without, and καρδια, a heart; without heart; becauſe the pulp of the fruit inſtead of having the ſeed incloſed, as is uſually the caſe, has the nut growing out of the end of it). The caſhew-nut. The oil of this nut is an active cauſtic, and employed as ſuch in its native country; but neither it, nor any part part of the fruit, is uſed medicinally in this country.

ANACARDĬUM ORIENTĀLE. Anacardium or Malaca bean. The fruit or nut ſo called in the pharmacopœias is of a ſhining black colour, heart-ſhaped, compreſſed, and about the ſize of the thumb nail. It is the produce of the *Aciennia tomentoſa*;

foliis cordato-ovatis, subtus tomentosis of Linnæus. It is now deservedly forgot in this country.

ANACARTHARSIS, (*Anacartharsis, is*, f. ἀναχάθαρσις; from ἀνα, and καθαίρομαι, to purge up). An expectoration of pus.

ANÆSTHĒSĬA, (*Anæsthesia, æ*, f. ἀναισθησια; from ἀ, priv. and αἰσθάνομαι, to feel). Loss of the sense of touch. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ* of Cullen.

ANAGALLIS, (*Anagallis*, f. ἀναγαλλὶς; from ἀναγελάω, to laugh; because by curing the spleen, it disposes persons to be chearful). This plant, *Anagallis arvensis*; *foliis indivisis, caule procumbente*, of Linnæus, is small and delicately formed, and does not appear to possess any particular properties.

ANAGALLIS ARVENSIS. The systematic name for the *anagallis* of the shops. See *Anagallis*.

ANALEPTICS, (*Analeptica, sc. medicamenta*, ἀναληπτικα; from ἀναλαμβάνω, to recruit, to recover). Those substances used for food and medicine which are calculated, from their properties, to restore strength when impaired by sickness.

ANALŸSIS, *Analysis, is*, f. ἀνάλυσις; from ἀναλύω, to resolve). Although the processes and experiments which chemists have recourse to be extremely numerous and diversified, yet they may be reduced to two species, which comprehend the whole art of chemistry. The first is, *analysis*, or decomposition; the second, *synthesis*, or composition. In *analysis* the parts of which bodies are composed are separated from each other: thus, if you reduce cinnabar, which is composed of sulphur and mercury, and exhibit these two bodies in a separate state, you say you have decomposed, or analyzed cinnabar. But if, on the contrary, several bodies be mixed together, and a new substance be produced, the process is then termed chemical composition, or *synthesis*: thus, if by fusion and sublimation you combine mercury with sulphur, and produce cinnabar, the operation termed chemical composition, or composition by synthesis.

ANĀNAS, (*Ananas*, n.) The egg-shaped pine-apple. The plant which affords this fruit, is the *Bromelia ananas foliis ciliato-spinosis mucronatis spica comosa* of Linnæus. It is used principally as a delicacy for the table, and is also given with advantage as a refrigerant in fevers.

ANAPHALANTIĂSIS, (*Anaphalantiasis, is*, f. ἀναφαλαντίασις; from ἀ, φαλακρὸς, bald). A thinness of the hair upon the eye-brows.

ANAPHRODISĬA, (*Anaphrodisia*, f. ἀναφροδισια; from ἀ, priv. and Ἀφροδισια, the feast of Venus). Impotence. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysorexiæ* of Cullen. It either arises from paralysis, *anaphrodisia paralytica*; or from gonorrhœa, *anaphrodisia gonorrhoica*.

ANAS DOMESTĬCA. The tame duck. The flesh of this bird is difficult of digestion, and requires that warm and stimulating condiments be taken with it to enable the stomach to digest it.

ANASARCA, (*Anasarca, æ*, f. ἀνὰ, through, and σαρξ, flesh, cellular the flesh). A species of dropsy in a serous humour, spread between the skin and flesh, or rather a general accumulation of lymph in the cellular system. Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of disease, in the class *Cachexia* and the order *Intumescentia*. He enumerates the following species, viz. 1. *Anasarca serosa*, as when the due discharge of serum is suppressed, &c. 2. *Anasarca oppilata*, as when the blood-vessels are considerably pressed, which happens to many pregnant women, &c. 3. *Anasarca exanthematica*, this happens after ulcers, various eruptive disorders, and particularly after the *Erysipelas*. 4. *Anasarca atonica*, happens when the blood is reduced

tremely poor from conſiderable loſ- ; of it. 5. *Anaſarcha debilium*, as ien feebleneſs is induced by long neſs, &c.

ANASTALTĪCA, (*Anaſtaltica, ſc. dicamenta*, αναστελλικα; from αναστελ-, to contract). Styptics. Adſtrin- nts.

ANASTOMŌSIS, (*Anaſtomoſis, is*, f. αναστομωσις; from ανα, through, and στομα, a mouth). The communica- n of veſſels with one another.

ANATOMY, (*Anatōmĭa, æ*, *Ana- ne, es*, f. ανατομια, or ανατομη; from ε, and τεμνω, to cut up). *Anero- ny*. The diſſection of the human dy, to expoſe the ſtructure, ſitua- n, and uſes of every part.

ANATOMY, COMPARATIVE. Zo- omy. The diſſection of brutes, ies, polypi, plants, &c. to illuſ- ate, or compare them with, the ucture and functions of the human dy.

ANCHORĀLIS PROCESSUS, (*An- oralis*; from αγκων, the elbow). See *oracoid proceſs*.

ANCHOVY PEAR. This fruit, the oduce of the *Grias cauliflora* of Lin- us, is eaten by the inhabitants of maica, as a pleaſant and refrigerant uit.

ANCHŪSA, (*Anchuſa, æ*, f. αγχου- ; from αγχειν, to ſtrangle; from its oppoſed conſtringent quality; or, as others ſay, becauſe it ſtrangles ſer- nts.

ANCHŪSA OFFICĬNĀLIS. The ematic name for the *bugloſſum* of e ſhops. See *Bugloſſum*.

ANCHŪSA TINCTORĬA. The ſyſ- natic name for the anchuſa or al- nna of the pharmacopœias. See *nchuſa*.

ANCHYLOMERISMA, (*Anchylome- ma, atis*, n. αγκυλομερισμα; from αγ- λομαι, to bend). Sagar uſes this m to expreſs a concretion or grow- g together of the ſoft parts.

ANCHYLŌSIS, (*Anchyloſis, is*, f. αγκυλωσις; from αγκυλομαι, to bend). A ſtiff joint.

ANCON, (*Ancon, ōnis*, m. αγκων; from αγκαζομαι, to embrace, απο του αγκαισθαι ετερω οστεω τη οστεον; becauſe the bones meeting, and there uniting, are folded one into another). The el- bow.

ANCONĒUS, (*Anconeus ſc. muſculus*; from αγκων, the elbow). *Anconeus mi- nor* of Winſlow. *Anconeus vel Cubi- talis Riolani* of Douglas. A ſmall tri- angular muſcle ſituated on the back part of the elbow. It ariſes from the ridge and from the external condyle of the humerus by a thick, ſtrong, and ſhort tendon: from this it be- comes fleſhy, and after running about three inches obliquely backwards, it is inſerted by its oblique fleſhy fibres into the back part or ridge of the ulna. Its uſe is to extend the fore- arm.

ANCONĒUS EXTERNUS. See *Tri- ceps extenſor cubiti*.

ANCONĒUS INTERNUS. See *Tri- ceps extenſor cubiti*.

ANCONĒUS MAJOR. See *Triceps extenſor cubiti*.

ANCONĒUS MINOR. See *Ancon- neus*.

ANCONOID PROCESS, (*Proceſſus anconoideus*; from αγκων, the elbow). A proceſs of the cubit. See *Ulna*.

ANCYLOBLEPHĂRON, (*Ancyclob- lepharon, i*, n. αγκυλοβλεφαρον; from αγκυλη, a hook, and βλεφαρον, an eye- lid). A diſeaſe of the eye, by which the eyelids are cloſed together.

ANCYLOGLOSSUM, (*Ancylogloſſum, i*, n. αγκυλογλοσσον; from αγκυλη, a hook, and γλωσσα, the tongue). A contraction of the frænulum of the tongue. Tongue-tied.

ANCYLŌSIS, (*Ancyloſis, is*, f. αγ- κυλωσις; from αγκυλος, crooked). *An- chyloſis*. A contraction of the joints impeding their motion.

ANEMŌNE HEPATĪCA. The ſyſ tematic name for the *hepatica nobilis*

of the pharmacopæias. See *Hepatica nobilis*.

ANEMONE, MEADOW. See *Pulsatilla nigricans*.

ANEMŌNE NEMŎRŌSA. The systematic name of the *ranunculus albus* of the pharmacopæias. See *Ranunculus albus*.

ANEMŌNE PRATENSIS. The systematic name for the *pulsatilla nigricans* of the pharmacopœias. See *Pulsatilla nigricans*.

ANĒTHUM, (*Anethum, i*, n. ανηθον; from ανευ, afar, and θεω, to run; so called becouse its roots run out a great way). Common dill. *Anethum graveolens* of Linnæus. *Anethum, fructibus compressis*. *Class*. Pentandria. *Order*. Monogynia. This plant is a native of Spain, but cultivated in several parts of England. The seeds of dill are directed for use by the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopœias: they have a moderately warm, pungent taste, and an aromatic, but sickly smell. There is an essential oil, and a distilled water, prepared from them, which are given in flatulent colics and dyspepsia. They are also said to promote the secretion of milk.

ANĒTHUM FŒNĬCŬLUM. The systematic name for the *fœniculum dulce* of the shops. See *Fœniculum dulce*.

ANĒTHUM GRAVEŎLENS. The systematic name for the *Anethum* of the shops. See *Anethum*.

ANEURISM, (*Aneurisma, ătis*, n. ανευρυσμα; from ανευρυνω, to dilate). A præternatural dilatation of an artery. A genus of disease ranked by Cullen in the class *locales*, and order *tumores*. There are three species of aneurism: 1. The *true aneurism, aneurisma verum*, which answers to the above definition, and is known by the presence of a pulsating tumour. 2. The *spurious aneurism, aneurisma spurium*, which is a collection of blood in the cellular membrane from a ruptured artery. 3. The *varicose aneurism, aneurisma varicosum*: this was first described by Dr. W. Hunter. It happens when the brachial artery is punctured in opening a vein: the blood then rushes into the vein, which becomes varicose. Aneurisms may happen in any part of the body, except the latter species which can only take place where a vein runs over an artery.

ANEURISMA SPURĬUM. See *Aneurism*.

ANEURISMA VARĬCŌSUM. See *Aneurism*.

ANEURISMA VERUM. See *Aneurism*.

ANGEIOTOMY, (*Angeiotomia, æ*, f. αγγειοτωμια; from αγγειον, a vessel, and τεμνω, to cut). The dissection of the blood-vessels of an animal body; also the opening of a vein or an artery.

ANGELĬCA, (*Angelica, æ*, f. called from its supposed angelic virtues). Garden angelica. *Angelica archangelica* of Linnæus. *Angelica, foliorum impari lobato*. Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Digynia*. A plant, native of Lapland, but cultivated in our gardens. The roots of angelica have a fragrant, agreeable smell, and a bitterish, pungent taste. The stalk, leaves, and seeds, which are also directed in the pharmacopœias, possess the same qualities, though in an inferior degree. Their virtues are aromatic and carminative. A sweetmeat is made by the confectioners of the root, which is extremely agreeable to the stomach, and is surpassed only by that of ginger.

ANGELĬCA ARCHANGELĬCA. The systematic name for the *angelica* of the shops. See *Angelica*.

ANGELICA, GARDEN. See *Angelica*.

ANGELĬCA SATĪVA. See *Angelica sylvestris*.

ANGELĬCA SYLVESTRIS. *Angelica sativa. Wild angelica. Angelica sylvestris; foliis æqualibus ovato-lanceolatis serratis* of Linnæus. This species of angelica possesses similar properties to the garden species, but in a much in-

rior degree. It is only used when the latter cannot be obtained. The seeds, powdered and put into the hair, kill lice.

ANGELICA, WILD. See *Angelica sylvestris*.

ANGELĪNÆ CORTEX. The tree from which this bark is procured is a native of Grenada. It has been recommended as an anthelmintic for children.

ANGĬNA, (*Angina, æ*, f. from αγχω, to strangle; because it is often attended with a sense of strangulation). A sore throat. See *Cynanche*.

ANGĬNA PECTŎRIS. *Syncope anginosa*. An extremely dangerous disease, which seizes those who are subject to it, when walking, with a very painful sensation in the breast, threatening immediate suffocation, and often inducing syncope; but the moment they stand still all the uneasiness vanishes. A few months after the disease has taken place, the fits will not cease instantaneously on standing still, and they take place in almost all situations, sitting still, or a-bed, as well as when walking about. The duration of the paroxysm is uncertain: at first, it goes off on being still; it then continues some time after with great palpitation of the heart; and, at length, does not leave the patient for some hours. It frequently happens that persons die soon after the attack of a fit; but cases are related where it induced some other disease, which terminated in lingering illness. In all cases the seat of pain is about the sternum and heart; and very frequently there is a fixed pain in the left arm, near the insertion of the deltoid muscle. The proximate cause of this disease is not known. Ossification of the coronary arteries of the heart, and accumulation of fat about that organ, the mediastinum, pericardium, and diaphragm, have been observed in those who have died under the disease.

ANGIOLOGY, (*Angiologia, æ*, f. αγγειολογεια; from αγγειον, a vessel, and λογος, a discourse). The doctrine of the vessels of the human body.

ANGUSTŪRÆ CORTEX, (*Angustura, æ*, f.). A bark imported from Angustura, in South America. Its external appearances vary considerably. The best is not fibrous, but hard, compact, and of a yellowish brown colour, and externally of a whitish hue. When reduced into powder it resembles that of Indian rhubarb. It is very generally employed as a febrifuge, tonic, and adstringent. In intermittents it is by many preferred to the Peruvian bark; and has been found useful in diarrhœa, dyspepsia, and scrofula. It is thought to be the bark of the *Brucea antidysenterica* or *ferruginea*.

ANIMAL, (*Animal, alis*, n.). An organized body endowed with life and voluntary motion.

ANIMAL ACTIONS. *Actiones animales*. Those actions, or functions, are so termed, which are performed through the means of the mind. To this class belong the external and internal senses, the voluntary action of muscles, voice, speech, watching, and sleep.

ANIMAL HEAT. Heat is essentially necessary to life. That of a man in health is from about 94° to 100° of Fahrenheit. It appears to depend upon the absorption of oxygen in the lungs.

ANĬMĒ, OR ANIMÆ, GUMMI. The substance which bears this name in the shops is a resin, the produce of the *Hymenæa courbaril* of Linnæus. It is seldom ordered in the practice of the present day, and is only to be met with in the collections of the curious.

ANIMI DELIQUIUM, (from *animus*, the mind, and *delinquo*, to leave). Fainting. *Lipothymia*. See *Syncope*.

ANĬMUS. This word is to be distinguished from *anima*; the former expresses the faculty of reasoning, and the latter the being in which that faculty resides.

ANISE. See *Aniſum.*

ANĪSUM, (*Aniſum, i*, n. ανισον; from α, neg. and νισος, equal). *Aniſum vulgare.* Aniſe. *Pimpinella aniſum* of Linnæus. *Pimpinella, foliis radicalibus triſidis inciſis.* Claſs. *Pentandria.* Order. *Digynia.* A native of Egypt. Aniſeſeeds have an aromatic ſmell, and a pleaſant, warm, and ſweetiſh taſte. An eſſential oil and diſtilled water are prepared from them, which are emyloyed in flatulences and gripes, to which childrenare more eſpecially ſubject, alſo in weakneſs of the ſtomach, diarrhœas, and loſs of tone in the primæ viæ.

ANĪSUM SINENSE. See *Aniſum ſtellatum.*

ANĪSUM STELLĀTUM. *Aniſum ſinenſe. Semen badian.* The plant which affords theſe ſeeds is the *Illicium aniſatum* of Linnæus. They are uſed with the ſame views as thoſe of the *Pimpinilla aniſum.* The ſame tree is ſuppoſed to furniſh the aromatic bark called *cortex aniſi ſtellati* or *cortex lavola.*

ANĪSUM VULGĀRE. See *Aniſum.*

ANNULAR, (*Annularis*). Like a ring; thus, annular bone, &c.

ANNULAR BONE. *Circulus oſſeus.* A ring-like bone placed before the cavity of the tympanum in the fœtus.

ANNULAR CARTILAGES. See *Cricoid cartilages.*

ANNŬLĀRIS DIGITUS. The ring finger. The one between the little and middle finger.

ANNULĀRIS PROCESSUS. See *Pons varolii.*

ANODYNES, (*Anōdўna*, ανωδυνα; from α, priv. and οδυνη, pain). *Narcotics. Hypnotics. Opiates. Paragorics. Antalgics.* Thoſe medicines are ſo termed which eaſe pain and procure ſleep.

ANOMALOUS. This term is often applied to thoſe diſeaſes whoſe ſymptoms do not appear with that regularity generally obſerved in diſeaſes. A diſeaſe is alſo ſaid to be anomalous when the ſymptoms are ſo varied as not to bring it under the deſcription of any known affection.

ANORCHĬDES, (*Anorchis, idis*, f. ανορχις; from α, priv. and ορχις, the teſticle). Children are ſo termed which come into the world without teſticles. This is a very common occurrence. The teſticles of moſt male infants at the time of birth are within the abdomen. The time of their deſcent is very uncertain, and inſtances have occurred where they had not reached the ſcrotum at the age of ten and fifteen.

ANOREXĬA, (*Anorexia, æ*, f. from α, priv. and ορεξις, appetite). A want of appetite, without loathing of food. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales*, and order *dyſorexiæ*; he believes it to be generally ſymptomatic, but enumerates two ſpecies, viz. the *anorexia humoralis* and the *anorexia atonica.*

ANOSMĬA, (*Anoſmia, æ*, f. ανοσμια; from α, neg. and οζω, to ſmell). A loſs of the ſenſe of ſmelling. This genus of diſeaſe is arranged by Cullen in the claſs *locales*, and order *dyſæſtheſiæ.* When it ariſes from a diſeaſe of the Schneiderian membrane, it is termed *anoſmia organica*; and when from no manifeſt cauſe, *anoſmia atonica.*

ANSER DOMESTĬCUS. The tame gooſe. The fleſh of this bird is ſometimes ſimilar to that of the duck, and requires the aſſiſtance of ſpirituous and ſtimulating ſubſtances, to enable the ſtomach to digeſt it. Both are very improper for weak ſtomachs.

ANSERINA, (*Anſerina*; from *anſer*, a gooſe; ſo called, becauſe geeſe eat it). Wild tanſey or gooſe graſs. *Argentia.* This herb, *Potentilla anſerina, foliis dinnatis ſerratis, caule repente, pedunculis unifloris* of Linnæus, was formerly uſed as an aſtringent in laxity of the inteſtines and phthiſical complaints, but is now fallen into diſuſe.

ANTACIDS, (*Antacida, ſc. medica*

menta; from *anti*, againſt, and *acidus*, acid). Thoſe medicines that have the power of deſtroying acidities in the ſtomach and inteſtines. The remedies which poſſeſs this power are comprehended in two orders. 1. *Eccoprotic antacids*, as *magneſia alba*, *tartarum ſolubile*, *ſapo*, and all alkaline preparations, which are alſo calculated to remove coſtiveneſs. 2. *Reſtringent antacids*, as *creta*, *oculi cancrorum*, and *teſtæ oſtreorum*, which are to be ſelected when there is a looſeneſs of the bowels.

ANTAGONIST MUSCLES, (*Muſculi antagoniſti*; from αντι, againſt, and αγωνιζω, to ſtrive). Muſcles are ſo called, which act in oppoſition to others.

ANTALGĬCA, (*Antalgica*, *ſc. medicamenta*, αντιαλγικα; from αντι, againſt, and αλγος, pain). Remedies which eaſe pain.

ANTALKALINES, (*Antalkalina*, *ſc. medicamenta*: from *anti*, againſt, and *alkali*, an alkali). Medicines which poſſeſs the power of neutralizing alkalis.

ANTERĬOR AURIS. One of the common muſcles of the ear, ſituated before the the external ear. It ariſes, thin and membranous, near the poſterior part of the *zygoma*, and is inſerted into a ſmall eminence on the back of the helix, oppoſite to the concha, which it draws a little forwards and upwards.

ANTERIOR INTERCOSTAL NERVE. *Splanchic nerve.* A branch of the great intercoſtal that is given off in the thorax.

ANTERĬOR MALLĔI. See *Laxator tympani.*

ANTHELMINTICS, (*Anthelmintica*, *ſc. medicamenta*, ανθελμινθικα; from αντι, againſt, and ελμινς, a worm). *Antithelmintics.* Medicines which procure the removal of worms from the human ſtomach and inteſtines. This claſs of medicine comprehends four orders. 1. *Venenous anthelmintics*, as *mercurial preparations*, *tin*, and *ſulphur*, which are principally adapted to ſtrong and robuſt habits, thoſe in the prime of life, and where there is a degree of torpor of the inteſtines. 2. *Lubricating anthelmintics*, as *common* and *linſeed oil*, which are beſt calculated for reduced habits. 3. *Tonic anthelmintics*, as, *ſabina*, *tanacetum*, and *ſantonicum*, which are principally adapted for children and delicate habits. 4. *Cathartic anthelmintics*, as *ſcammonium*, *jalappa*, *aloë*, and *gambogia*. The conſtitutions in which theſe are to be preferred are the ſtrong and robuſt, and thoſe in the prime of life.

ANTHĔMIS COTŬLA, (*Cotula*, a dim of *cos*, a whetſtone; ſo called from its leaves reſembling a whetſtone). The ſyſtematic name for the plant called *Cotula fœtida* in the pharmacopœias. See *Cotula fœtida.*

ANTHĔMIS NOBĬLIS, (*Anthemis*, ανθεμις; from ανθος, a flower). The ſyſtematic name for the *chamæmelum* of the ſhops. See *Chamæmelum.*

ANTHĔMIS PYRĒTHRUM. The plant is ſo called from which we obtain the pyrethrum of the pharmacopœias. See *Pyrethrum.*

ANTHOPHYLLI, (*Anthophyllus*, *i. m.* ανθοφυλλον; from ανθος, a flower, and φυλλον, a leaf; ſo called from the fragrance of the flowers and the beauty of the leaves). Cloves are ſo termed when they have been ſuffered to grow to maturity.

ANTHŎRA, (*quaſi antithora*, ανθιθορα; from αντι, againſt, and θορα, monkſhood; ſo called becauſe it is ſaid to conteract the effects of the thora or monkſhood). Wolfſbane. The root is the part of this plant (*Aconitum anthora*; *floribus pentagynis*, *foliorum laciniis linearibus* of Linnæus), which is employed medicinally. Its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of the *aconitum*, ſee *Aconitum.*

ANTHOS FLORES. The flowers of the *roſmarinus* are ſo termed in ſome pharmacopœias.

ANTHRAX, (*Anthrax, acis*, m. ἀνθραξ, a burning coal). *Carbunculus.* An hard and circumſcribed inflammatory tubercle like a boil, which ſometimes forms on the cheek, neck, or back, and in few n days becomes highly gangrenous. It then diſcharges an extremely fetid ſanies from under the black core, which, like a burning coal, continues deſtroying the ſurrounding parts. It is ſuppoſed to ariſe from a peculiar miaſma, and is moſt common in warm climates.

ANTI, (ἀντι, againſt). There are many names compounded with this word, as *antiaſthmatics, antihyſterics, antidyſenterics*, &c. which ſignify medicines againſt the aſthma, hyſterics, dyſentery, &c.

ANTIDOTE, (*Antidotus, i*, f. ἀντιδοτος; from ἀντι, againſt, and διδωμι, to give). A remedy. A medicine which poſſeſſes the property of expelling the the miſchiefs of another, as of poiſon.

ANTILYSSUS, (*Antilyſſus*, ἀντιλυσσους; from ἀντ., againſt, and λυσσα, the madneſs cauſed by the bite of a mad dog). Medicines againſt the bite of a mad dog.

ANTIMONĬUM, (*Antimonium, i*, n. Ἀντιμονιον. The origin of this word is very obſcure. The moſt received etymology is, from ἀντ., againſt, and μονος, a monk; becauſe Valentine, by an injudicious adminiſtration of it, poiſoned his brother monks). *Stibium.* See *Antimony*.

ANTIMONĬUM CALCINĀTUM.—*Calx antimonii. Antimonium diaphoreticum.* This preparation of antimony, termed *oxydum ſtibii album*, in the new chemical nomenclature, is greatly fallen into diſuſe. Its virtues are diaphoretic and alterative.

ANTIMONĬUM MURIĀTUM. *Butyrum antimonii. Cauſtieum antimoniale. Butter of antimony.* This preparation of antimony, called in the new chemical nomenclature *murias ſtibii hyperoxygenatus*, is employed to deſtroy warts, carcinomatous excreſcences, ſtaphyloma, &c.

ANTIMONĬUM TARTĂRISĀTUM. *Tartarus emeticus. Tartarus antimonialis.* Tartar emetic, given in ſmall doſes, is nauſeating, cathartic, ſudorific, deobſtruent, and antiſpaſmodic, promoting abſorption. Internally, it is exhibited in bilious fevers, foulneſs of the ſtomach, retrocedent and atonic exanthemata, abdominal phyſconia, tumour of the teſticle, paralyſis, amauroſis, pituitous diſeaſes of the lungs, rheumatiſm, and ſoporoſe diſeaſes. When given in very ſmall doſes, ſo as to create nauſea, it is recommended in tabes, laxation, and incarcerated hernia. Externally, in the form of powder, or diſſolved in water, it is applied by a pencil to warts and obſtinate ulcers: it is alſo given in the form of clyſter, with a view to produce irritation in ſoporoſe diſeaſes, apoplexy, ileus, and hernia incarcerata. The powder mixed with ſaliva, and rubbed on the ſcrobiculus cordis, excites vomiting. The beſt antidote againſt the bad effects of too large a quantity of this and other antimonial preparations, is a decoction of the bark of cinchona. See alſo *Antimony*.

ANTIMONĬUM VITRIFACTUM. Glaſs of antimony. See *Antimony*.

ANTIMONY. *Antimonium. Stibium.* A brittle and ponderous ſemimetal of a grayiſh ſparkling white colour, bearing a ſtrong reſemblance to tin or ſilver. It appears to conſiſt of laminæ, arranged one over another, and its ſurface exhibits a kind of cryſtals in the form of ſtars or fern-leaves. If taken into the ſtomach it proves a very active vomit and purge. It is rarely met with in nature, but moſtly prepared by art. It is generally combined with ſulphur, and in that ſtate is found in great abundance in Hungary, Bourbon, Auvergne, and Poitou. This is what is commonly but improperly called antimony, for in propriety of language it is an ore or *ſulphur of antimony*. It is of a blackiſh gray colour, in plates or needles o

various sizes, and friable. Sulphur of antimony melts very readily, loses its sulphur in the operation, and the metal combines gradually with the oxygen of the atmosphere, forming a *gray oxyd of antimony*, which, if urged with fire, melts into a transparent substance, called the glass of antimony, or *vitreous oxyd of sulphurated antimony*; and, if the oxyd contain a large proportion of sulphur (for it does not wholly lose it by melting), it produces an opake glass, or *liver of antimony*, so called from its red colour, like that of the liver of animals. If the *gray oxyd* be heated in a crucible, with an equal quantity of black flux, and a little black soap and oil, it is reduced to pure antimony, or, as it is termed in commerce, *regulus of antimony*. The semimetal, when melted in open vessels, is very quickly oxydated. It suffers no alteration from combustible matters; is not much altered by the air, its surface being only a little tarnished, and earthy substances have no power of action on it. These are the principal properties of this semimetal; but as its ore, sulphur of antimony, is commonly used in a great number of pharmaceutical preparations, it may not be amiss to remind the reader of this particular. Beat in a mortar to a powder, and levigated, with the addition of a little water, upon a hard and polished, but not calcareous stone, into as fine a dust as possible, and then dried, it forms the *antimonium præparatum*, or *sulphuretum stibii nigrum*; powdered, and burnt in an earthen vessel, until it no longer emits a sulphureous smoke, and then put into a covered crucible, and exposed to a strong heat, it melts, and forms the *antimonium vitrifactum*. Powdered and mixed with nitre, in the proportion of eight ounces to two pounds, and cast by degrees into a red-hot crucible, and burnt for about half an hour, it affords the *antimonium calcinatum*, or *oxydum stibii album*. Similar to this preparation is the celebrated James's powder, as a substitute for which the London College have ordered the pulvis antimonialis (*phosphas calcis stibiatus*), made by throwing into a red-hot pot an equal quantity of crude sulphur of antimony and hartshorn shavings, and agitating it until they become of an ash colour. The matter is then to be put into a crucible with another inverted upon it, and kept in a red heat for two hours. It is then to cool, and be reduced to a fine powder. The *crocus of antimony* is prepared by mixing a pound of powdered antimony and nitre, and one ounce of sea salt, by degrees, into a red-hot crucible, and melting them with an augmented heat, and when cold separating the scoriæ. If one pound of vitriolic acid be poured into a retort, and a mixture of one pound of this crocus of antimony, with two pounds of dry sea salt, be added by degrees thereto, and distilled in the same bath, the product is the *murias stibii hyperoxygenatus*, called *antimonium muriatum*, or butter of antimony, in the Lond. Pharm. The *antimonium tartarisatum*, or tartarised antimony, *tartris potassæ acidulus stibiatus*, is made by boiling for about a quarter of an hour, a mixture of one pound and a half of the crocus with two pounds of crystals of tartar, and two gallons of water. The liquor is then to be filtered, and the strained liquor set by to crystalize. Besides these preparations there are the *wine of antimony*, and the *tartarised wine*. The former is made by digesting one ounce of powdered vitrified antimony with a pint and a half of Spanish white wine; the latter by dissolving two scruples of the tartarised antimony in two ounces of boiling water, and then adding eight ounces of Spanish white wine. With regard to the use of antimony in medicine, it is very considerable, though not so general

as in former times. *Calcined antimony* is esteemed as an alterative and diaphoretic. *Muriated antimony* is employed by surgeons as a very powerful caustic for destroying warts and fungous flesh, and especially venereal excrescences. The *prepared antimony* is alterative and diaphoretic in small doses. *Antimonium tartarisatum* is used in common as a vomit in the dose of from one to four grains. Dissolved in water, and given, with or without nitre, in the dose of an eighth of a grain every four hours, it cures inflammatory affections, as synocha, pleuritis, &c. acting as a very powerful diaphoretic. In pneumonia it is exhibited in nauseating doses as an expectorant. The *vitrified antimony* is emetic in the dose of from a quarter of a grain to a grain and a half. *Pulvis antimonialis*, supposed to be the same as James's powder, is given as a febrifuge in the dose of from three to five grains, and is a powerful diaphoretic. *Antimonial wine* in small doses, gut. xx to xxx, is a febrifuge, diaphoretic, and alterative. ʒiij to ʒß proves a useful emetic in hooping cough, &c. The *tartarised antimonial wine* is also emetic, ʒij to ʒiv, and a good febrifuge and diaphoretic in doses of from fifteen to forty drops.

Antiphlogistic. A term applied to those medicines, plans of diet, and other circumstances, which tend to oppose inflammation, or which, in other words, weaken the system by diminishing the activity of the vital power.

Antirrhinum, (*Antirrhinum, i*, n. ἀντίρρινον; from ἀντι, against, and ῥις, the nose; so called because it represents the nose of a calf).

Antirrhinum linaria. The systematic name for the *linaria* of the pharmacopœias. See *Linaria*.

Antiscorbutics, (*Antiscorbutica, sc. medicamenta*; from *anti*, against, and *scorbutus*, the scurvy). Those medicines which cure the scurvy. To this class belong oxygen gaz, acids, vegetables, bark, &c.

Antiseptics, (*Antiseptica, sc. medicamenta*, ἀντισηπτικα; from ἀντι, against, and σηπω, to putrefy). Those medicines which possess a power of preventing animal substances from passing into a state of putrefaction, and of obviating putrefaction when already begun. This class of medicine comprehends four orders. 1. *Tonic antiseptics*, as *cinchona*, *Angusturæ cortex*, *chamæmelum*, &c. which are suited for every condition of body, and are, in general, preferable to other antiseptics, for those with relaxed habits. 2. *Refrigerating antiseptics*, as *acids*, which are principally adapted for the young, vigorous, and plethoric. 3. *Stimulating antiseptics*, as *wine* and *alkohol*, best adapted for the old and debilitated. 4. *Antispasmodic antiseptics*, as *camphora* and *assafœtida*, which are to be selected for irritable and hysterical habits

Antispasmodics, (*Antispasmodica, sc. medicamenta*, ἀντισπασμοδικα; from ἀντι, against, and σπασμος, a spasm). Those medicines which possess the power of allaying inordinate motions in the system, particularly those involuntary contractions which take place in muscles, naturally subject to the command of the will. The medicines referable to this class are divided into two orders. 1. *Stimulating antispasmodics*, as *alkali volatile, olea essentialia, liquor æthereus*, which are to be given to the melancholic and those with torpid habits. 2. *Sedative antispasmodics*, as *camphora, moschus*, and *opium*, which are preferred to the former for sanguine and irritable habits.

Antithenar, (*Antithenar*, ἀνθενας; from ἀντι, against, and θενας, the palm of the hand). A muscle of the foot. See *Adductor pollicis pedis*.

Antitragicus, (*Antitragicus, sc. musculus*). One of the proper muscles of the ear, whose use it is, to turn up the tip of the antitragus a little out-

wards, and to depress the extremity of the antithelix towards it.

Antitrāgus, (*Antitragus, i*, m. from ἀντὶ, and τραγος, the tragus). An eminence of the outer ear, opposite to the tragus.

Antrum of highmore, (*Antrum, i*, n.). *Antrum genæ. Sinus maxillaris pituitarius.* A large cavity in the middle of each superior maxillary bone, between the eye and the roof of the mouth, lined by the mucous membrane of the nose, and first described by Highmore.

Ants, acid of. See *Formic acid.*

Anus, (*Anus, i.* m. *anus, quasi onus*, as carrying the burden of the bowels). The fundament. Also the small opening of the third ventricle of the brain, which leads into the fourth.

Aorta, (*Aorta, æ*, f. ἀορτη; from ἀηρ, air, and τηρεω, to keep; so called because the antients supposed that only air was contained in it). The great artery of the body, which arises from the left ventricle of the heart, forms a curvature in the chest, and descends into the abdomen; and from which all the other arteries arise, except the pulmonary arteries. See *Artery.*

Aparīne, (*Aparine, es*, f. Απαρινη; from ξυνω, a file; because its bark is rough, and rasps like a file). Cleavers, or goose-grass. This plant, which is common in our hedges and ditches, is the *Galium aparine*; *foliis octonis lanceolatis carinatis scabris retrorsum aculeatis, geniculis venosis, fructu hispido*, of Linnæus. The expressed juice has been given with advantage as an aperient and diuretic in incipient dropsies; but the character in which it has of late been chiefly esteemed, is that of an anticarcinomatous remedy. A tea-cup full, gradually increased to half a pint two or three times a-day, has been known to cure cancers.

Aperiens palpebrārum rectus. See *Levator palpebræ superioris.*

Aperients, (*Aperientia, sc. medicamenta*; from *aperio*, to open). Eccoprotics. Laxatives. Medicines which gently open the bowels; such as *magnesia, electuarium è cassia, electuarium è senna, kali vitriolatum*, &c.

Apertor ocŭli. See *Levator palpebræ superioris.*

Apepsĭa, (*Apepsia, æ*, f. απεψια; from α, priv. and πεπτω, to digest). Indigestion.

Apex, (*Apex, ĭcis*, m.). The extremity of a part; as the apex of the tongue, apex of the nose, &c.

Aphōnĭa, (*Aphonia, æ*, f. αφωνια; from α, priv. and φωνη, the voice). A suppression of the voice, without either syncope or coma. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dyscinesiæ* of Cullen. When it takes place from a tumour of the fauces, or about the glottis, it is termed *aphonia gutturalis*; when from a disease of the trachea, *aphonia trachealis*; and when from a paralysis, or want of nervous energy, *aphonia atonica.*

Aphrodisiacs, (*Aphrodisiaca, sc. medicamenta*, αφροδισιακα; from αφροδισια, venery). Medicines which excite a desire for venery, as the *meloë vesicatorius Linn.*

Aphthæ, (*Aphthæ, arum*, f. αφθαι; from απτω, to inflame). The thrush. A disease to which children are very subject. It appears in small white ulcers upon the tongue, gums, and around the mouth and palate. It is ranked by Cullen in the class *pyrexiæ*, and order *exanthemata.*

Apĭum, (*Apium, i*, n.). Smallage. The root, seeds, and fresh plant, *Apium graveolens foliolis caulinis cuneiformibus, umbellis sessilibus* of Linnæus, are aperient and carminative.

Apĭum graveŏlens. The systematic name for the *apium* of the pharmacopœias. See *Apium.*

Apĭum petrŏsĕlīnum. The systematic name for the *petroselinum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Petroselinum.*

Apocenōsis, (*Apocenoſis, is*, f. αποκενωσις; from απο, and κενοω, to evacuate). A ſuperabundant flux of blood or other fluid without pyrexia. The name of an order in the claſs *locales* of Cullen.

Apolepsis, (*Apolepſis, is*, f. αποληψις; from απο, and λαμβανω, to take from). An interception, ſuppreſſion, or retention of urine, or any other natural evacuation.

Aponeurōsis, (*Aponeuroſis, is*, f. απονευρωσις; from απο, from, and νευρον, a nerve; from an erroneous ſuppoſition of the ancients, that it was formed by the expanſion of a nerve). A tendinous expanſion.

Apophўsis, (*Apophyſis, is*, f. αποφυσις; from απο, and φυω, to grow). A proceſs of a bone, as the naſal apophyſis of the frontal bone, &c.

Apoplexĭa, (*Apoplexia, æ*, f. αποπληξια; from αποπλησσω, to ſtrike or knock down; becauſe perſons, when ſeized with this diſeaſe, fall down ſuddenly). Apoplexy. A ſudden abolition, in ſome degree, of the powers of ſenſe and motion, with ſleep, and ſometimes ſnoring; the reſpiration and motion of the heart remaining. Cullen arranges it in the claſs *neuroſes*, and order *comata*. When it takes place from a congeſtion of blood it is termed *apoplexia ſanguinea*; and when there is an abundance of ſerum, as in perſons of a cold temperament, *apoplexia ſeroſa*; if it ariſe from water in the ventricles of the brain, it is called *apoplexia hydrocephalica*; if from a wound, *apoplexia traumatica*; if from poiſons, *apoplexia venenata*; if from the action of ſuffocating exhalations, *apoplexia ſuffocata*; if from paſſions of the mind, *apoplexia mentalis*; and when it is joined with catalepſy, *apoplexia cataleptica*.

Apostēma, (*Apoſtema, ătis*, αποστημα; from αφιστημι, to recede). The term given by the ancients to abſceſſes in general. See *Abſceſs*.

Apothecarius, (*Apothecarius, i*, m.; from απο, *cum*, with, and τιθημι, *pono*, to put; ſo called from his employ being to prepare, and keep in readineſs the various articles in the *Materia Medica*, and to compound them for the phyſician's uſe). An apothecary. In every European country except Great Britain, the *apothecary* is the ſame as in England we name the *druggiſt* and *chemiſt*.

Apozem, (*Apozema, ătis*, n. αποζημα; from αποζεω, to boil). A decoction.

Appendicŭla cæci vermiformis. A vermicular proceſs, about four inches in length, and the ſize of a gooſe-quill, which hangs to the inteſtinum cæcum of the human body.

Appendicŭlæ epiploïcæ. *Appendices coli adipoſæ*. The ſmall appendices of the colon and rectum, which are filled with adipoſe ſubſtance. See *Inteſtines*.

Apple, common thorn. See *Stramonium*.

Apples. The common crab tree, *Pyrus malus* of Linnæus, is the parent of all the vaſt variety of apples at preſent cultivated. Apples, in general, when ripe, afford a pleaſant and eaſily digeſtible fruit for the table; but, when the ſtomach is weak, they are very apt to remain unaltered for ſome days, and to produce dyſpepſia. Sour fruits are to be conſidered as unwholeſome, except when boiled or baked, and rendered ſoft and mellow by the addition of ſugar.

Apricot. The fruit of the *Prunus armeniaca* of Linnæus. When ripe they are eaſily digeſted, and are conſidered as a pleaſant and nutritious delicacy.

Apyrexĭa, (*Apyrexia, æ*, f. απυρεξια; from α, priv. and πυρεξια, a fever). Apyrexy. Without fever. The intermiſſion of feveriſh heat.

Aqua, (*Aqua, æ*, f. water). Water. See *Water*.

Aqua alumĭnis compoſĭta. *Aqua aluminoſa Bateana*. This pre-

paration is employed externally as a detergent. It forms a useful collyrium if properly diluted, and is an excellent injection for the cure of Leucorrhœa.

AQUA AMMONĬÆ. *Spiritus salis ammoniaci.* This preparation is called *carbonas animoniacæ liquidus* in the new chemical nomenclature. Similar to this in composition and virtues is the *liquor volatilis cornu cervi.* They are highly esteemed for their stimulating, nervine, antacid virtues, and are administered in debility, typhus, ataxia, atonic spasms, paralysis, syncope, arthritis, rheumatism, &c. They are also employed externally with fixed oils, in paralysis, indolent tumours, internal inflammations, and a variety of affections.

AQUA AMMONĬÆ ACETĀTÆ. *Acetis ammoniacalis. Spiritus Mindereri.* This preparation is called *Acetis ammoniacæ liquidus* in the new chemical nomenclature, it being a neutral salt in solution, formed by the combination of acetous acid with ammoniac. It is much esteemed as possessing nervine, diaphoretic, diuretic, and deobstruent virtues.

AQUA AMMONĬÆ PURÆ. *Spiritus salis ammoniaci cum calce.* Water saturated with ammoniacal gaz. It is much used to smell at in faintings, &c. and possesses the same properties as ammoniacal gaz. See *Ammoniac.*

AQUA ANĒTHI. *Aqua seminum anethi.* For the virtues of this distilled water, see *Anethum.*

AQUA CALCIS. Lime-water. It is given internally in cardialgia, spasms, diarrhœa, and convulsions of children, arising from acidity or ulcerated intestines, intermittent fevers, &c. Externally it is applied to burns and ulcers.

AQUA CINNAMŌMI. *Aqua cinnamomi simplex.* Distilled cinnamon water. For its virtues see *Cinnamomum.*

AQUA CUPRI AMMONIĀTI. *Aqua sapphirina.* This preparation is employed by surgeons to stimulate and clear foul ulcers.

AQUA CUPRI VITRĬOLĀTI COMPOSĬTA. This preparation of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia, is used externally to stop hœmorrhages of the nose.

AQUA DISTILLĀTA. See *Water.*

AQUA FŒNĬCŬLI. For the virtues of distilled fennel water see *Fœniculum.*

AQUA FORTIS. See *Acidum nitrosum dilutum.*

AQUA KALI. *Oleum tartari per deliquium. Lixivium tartari.* This is the liquid carbonate of pot-ash, *carbonas potassæ liquidus.* It possesses antacid virtues, and is a good antidote against arsenic taken into the stomach. It is also given with advantage in convulsions and spasms, from acidity in the stomach of children, in calculous diseases, gouty affections, scrophula, aphthæ, &c. The carbonate of soda is milder, and perhaps a preferable remedy for general use. See *Carbonas sodæ.*

AQUA KALI PURI. *Lixivium saponarium.* This possesses diuretic and lithontriptic virtues, envelloped in weak broths or mucilaginous drinks. Diluted in tepid water, in the proportion of three drops to two ounces, it serves as an efficacious detergent in *Xerophthalmia.*

AQUA LITHARGŸRI ACETĀTI. *Acetum lithargyri. Extractum saturni.* This is the celebrated *extract of Goulard.* It is called *acetis plumbi liquidus* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is principally employed by surgeons in the *aqua lithargyri acetati composita,* &c. externally, as a resolvent against inflammatory affections.

AQUA LITHARGŸRI ACETĀTI COMPOSĪTA. *Aqua vegeto-mineralis. Goulard's vegeto-mineral water.* The virtues of this water, are resolvent, refrigerant, and sedative.

AQUA MENTHÆ PIPERITĬDIS. See *Mentha piperitis.*

AQUA MENTHÆ SATĪVÆ. *Aqua menthæ vulgaris ſimplex.* See *Mentha ſativa.*

AQUA PIMENTO. *Aqua piperitidis Jamaicenſis.* For the virtues of this diſtilled water ſee *Pimento.*

AQUA PULEGĬI. *Aqua pulegii ſimplex.* For its virtues ſee *Pulegium.*

AQUA ROSÆ. *Aqua roſarum damaſcenarum.* Diſtilled roſe water is employed only as a pleaſant vehicle for other medicines, colyria, &c.

AQUA ZINCI VITRĬOLATI CUM CAMPHŎRA. *Aqua vitriolica camphorata.* This, when properly diluted, is an uſeful collyrium for inflammations of the eyes, in which there is a weakneſs of the parts. Externally it is applied by ſurgeons to ſcorbutic and phagedenic ulcerations.

AQUÆ MINERĀLES. See *Waters, mineral.*

AQUÆDUCT OF FALLOPIUS. A canal in the petrous portion of the temporal bone, firſt accurately deſcribed by Fallopius.

AQUATĬCA NUX. See *Tribulus aquaticus.*

AQUEOUS HUMOUR OF THE EYE. *Humor aqueus.* The very limpid watery fluid which fills both chambers of the eye.

AQUIFOLĬUM, (*Aquifolium, i.* n. from *acus*, a needle, and *folium*, a leaf; ſo called on account of its prickly leaf). The leaves of this plant, *Ilex aquifolium*; *foliis ovatis acutis ſpinoſis* of Linnæus, have been known to cure intermittent fevers; and an infuſion of the leaves, drank as tea, is ſaid to be a preventative againſt the gout.

AQUILA ALBA. One of the names given to calomel. See *Calomelas.*

AQUILĒGĬA, (*Aquilegia, æ*, f. from *aqua*, water, and *lego*, to gather; ſo called from the ſhape of its leaves, which retain water). The herb columbine. The ſeeds, flowers, and the whole plant, *Aquilegia vulgaris*; *nectariis incurvis*, of Linnæus, have been uſed medicinally, the firſt in exanthematous diſeaſes, the latter chiefly as an antiſcorbutic. Though retained in ſeveral foreign pharmacopœias, their utility appears to be forgot in this country.

AQUULA, (*Aquŭula, æ*, f. dim. of *aqua*). A ſmall quantity of very fine and limpid water; thus it is applied to the pellucid water, which diſtends the capſule of the cryſtalline lens, and the lens itſelf.

ARABIC, GUM, (*Gummi Arabicum*, n.; ſo called from its being brought from Arabia). This gum exudes, in a liquid ſtate, from the bark of the trunk of the *Mimoſa nilotica* of Linnæus (*mimoſa, ſpinis ſtipularibus patentibus, foliis bipinnatis: partialibus extimis glandula intertinctis, ſpicis globoſis pedunculatis*), in a ſimilar manner to the gum which is found upon the cherry-trees in this country. That of a pale yellowiſh colour is moſt eſteemed. Gum arabic is neither ſoluble in ſpirit nor in oil, but in twice its quantity of water it diſſolves into a mucilaginous fluid, of the conſiſtence of a thick ſyrup, and in this ſtate anſwers many uſeful pharmaceutical purpoſes, by rendering oily, reſinous, and pinguious ſubſtances miſcible with water. The glutinous quality of gum arabic renders it preferable to other gums and mucilages as a demulcent in coughs, hoarſeneſſes, and other catarrhal affections. It is alſo very generally employed in ardor urinæ, diarrhœas, and calculous complaints.

ARACHNOID MEMBRANE, (*Membrāna arachnoidēa*, f. from ἀραχνη, a ſpider, and εἶδος, likeneſs; ſo named from its reſemblance to a ſpider's web). A thin membrane of the brain, without veſſels and nerves, ſituated between the dura and pia mater, and ſurrounding the cerebrum, cerebellum, medulla oblongata, and medulla ſpinalis. The term is alſo applied by ſome writers to the tunic of the cryſtalline lens and vitreous humour of the eye.

ARBOR VITÆ. The cortical ſubſtance of the cerebellum is ſo diſpoſed, that, when cut traverſely, it appears ramified like a tree, from which circumſtance it is termed *arbor vitæ*.

ARBOR VITÆ. The leaves and wood of this tree, *Thuya occidentalis*; *ſtrobilis lævibus, ſquamis obtuſis*, of Linnæus, were formerly in high eſtimation as reſolvents, ſudorifics, and expectorants, and were given in phthiſical affections, intermittent fevers, and dropſies.

ARBŬTUS UVA URSI. The ſyſtematic name for the officinal *woolly headed burdock*. See *Uva urſi*.

ARCĂNUM, (*Arcanum, i.* n. a ſecret). A medicine whoſe preparation or efficacy, is kept from the world, to enhance its value. With the chemiſts it is a thing ſecret and incorporeal; it can only be known by experience, for it is the virtue of every thing, which operates a thouſand times more than the thing itſelf.

ARCTĬUM, (*Arctium, i,* n. αρκτιον; from αρκτος, a bear; ſo called from its roughneſs).

ARCTĬUM LAPPA. (Called *lappa*, απο το λαβειν, from its ſeizing the garments of paſſengers). The ſyſtematic name for the *bardana*. See *Bardana*.

ARĔOLA, (*Areola, æ,* f. a dim. of *area*, a void ſpace). A ſmall brown circle, which ſurrounds the nipples of females. During and after pregnancy it becomes conſiderably larger.

ARGENTUM, (*Argentum, i,* n. from αργυνος, white). See *Silver*.

ARGENTUM NITRĀTUM. *Cauſticum lunare. Lunar cauſtic.* This preparation of ſilver is called *nitras argenti fuſus* in the new chemical nomenclature. Its virtues are corroſive and adſtringent. Internally it is exhibited in very ſmall quantities in epilepſy; and externally it is employed to deſtroy fungous excreſcences, callous ulcers, fiſtulas, &c. In the latter diſeaſe it is injected in the quantity of from two grains to three diſſolved in an ounce of water.

ARGENTUM VIVUM. See *Hydrargyrus*.

ARGILLACEOUS EARTH. *Terra argillacea.* Clay. See *Alumin*.

ARISTŎLŎCHIA, (*Ariſtolochia, æ,* f. from αριστος, good, and λοχια or λοχεια, parturition; ſo called becauſe it was ſuppoſed to be of ſovereign uſe in diſorders incident to child-birth). *Long-rooted birthwort. Ariſtolochia longa* of Linnæus. *Ariſtolochia, foliis cordatis petiolatis integerrimis obtuſiuſculis, caule infirmo, floribus ſolitariis.* Claſs. *Gynandria.* Order. *Hexandria.* The root of this plant only is in uſe; it poſſeſſes a ſomewhat aromatic ſmell, and a warm bitteriſh taſte, accompanied with a ſlight degree of pungency. The virtues aſcribed to this root by the ancients were very conſiderable, and it was frequently employed in various diſeaſes, but particularly in promoting the diſcharge of the *lochia*: hence its name. It is now very rarely uſed, except in gouty affections, as an aromatic ſtimulant.

ARISTŎLOCHĬA ANGUICIDA.—Snake-killing birthwort. The juice of the root of this plant, *Ariſtolochia anguicida*; *foliis cordatis, acuminatis*; *caule volubili, fruticoſo*; *pedunculis ſolitariis*; *ſtipulis cordatis*, of Linnæus, has the property of ſo ſtupefying ſerpents, that they may be handled with impunity. One or two drops are ſufficient, and if more be dropt into the mouth they become convulſed. So ungrateful is the ſmell of the root to thoſe reptiles, that it is ſaid they immediately turn from it. The juice is alſo eſteemed as a preventative againſt the effects uſually produced by the bite of venemous ſerpents.

ARISTOLOCHĬA CLEMATĪTIS.—(Called *clematitis*, κληματιτις; from κληματα, a tendril, from its climbing up trees or any thing it can faſten upon with its tendrils). The ſyſtematic name of the *ariſtochia vulgaris* of the

pharmacopœias. See *Ariſtolachia vulgaris.*

ARISTOLOCHĬA FABACĔA. The root of this plant, *Fumaria bulboſa; caule ſimplici, bracteis longitudine florum*, of Linnæus, was formerly given to reſtore ſuppreſſed menſes, and as an anthelmintic.

ARISTOLOCHĬA LONGA. The ſyſtematic name for the ariſtolochia of our pharmacopœias. See *Ariſtolochia.*

ARISTOLOCHĬA ROTUNDA. The root of this ſpecies, *Ariſtolochia rotunda, foliis cordatis, ſubſeſſilibus, obtuſis; caule infirmo; floribus ſolitariis*, of Linnæus, is uſed indiſcriminately with that of the *ariſtolochia longa.* See *Ariſtolochia.*

ARISTOLOCHĬA SERPENTĀRĬA. The ſyſtematic name for the *ſerpentaria virginiana* of the pharmacopœias. See *Serpentaria virginiana.*

ARISTOLOCHĬA TENUIS. See *Ariſtolochia vulgaris.*

ARISTOLOCHĬA TRILOBĀTA.—Three-lobed birthwort. The root and every part of this plant, *Ariſtolochia trilobata; foliis trilobis, caule volubili, floribus maximis*, is diuretic, and is employed in America againſt the bite of ſerpents.

ARISTOLOCHĬA VULGĀRIS. *Ariſtolochia tenuis.* An extract is prepared from this ſpecies, *Ariſtolochia clematitis; foliis cordatis; caule erecto; floribus axillaribus confertis*, of Linnæus, by the Wertemberg pharmacopœia, and the plant is retained in that of Edinburgh. It is eſteemed as poſſeſſing antipodagric virtues.

ARMORACĬA, (*Armoracia, æ*, f. from *Armorica*, the country from whence it was brought). See *Raphanus ruſticanus.*

ARNĬCA, (*Arnica, æ*, f. αρνικη; from αρ, a lamb; becauſe of the likeneſs of the leaf of this plant to the coat of the lamb). *Doronicum Germanicum.* Mountain arnica. *Arnica montana* of Linnæus. *Arnica, foliis ovatis integris; caulinis geminis oppoſitis.* Claſs. *Syngeneſia.* Order. *Polygamia ſuperflua.* The flowers of this plant are very generally employed on the continent. Of the advantages derived from their uſe in paralytic and other affections depending upon a want of nervous energy, there are ſeveral proofs; and their extraordinary virtues, as a febrifuge and antiſeptic, have been highly extolled. Much caution is neceſſary in regulating the doſe, as it is a medicine very apt to produce vomiting and much uneaſineſs of the ſtomach.

ARNĬCA MONTĀNA. The ſyſtematic name for the *arnica* of the pharmacopœias. See *Arnica.*

ARNĬCA SUEDENSIS. See *Conyza media.*

ARNOTTO. See *Galeana.*

ARŌMA, (*Aroma, ătis*, n. αρωμα; from αρι, intenſely, and οζω, to ſmell). *Spiritus rector.* Each plant has its characteriſtic ſmell. This odorant principle is called by the moderns *aroma.* Water charged with aroma is called the diſtilled water of the ſubſtance made uſe of; thus lavendar and peppermint waters are water impregnated with the aroma of the lavender and peppermint.

AROMATICS, (*Aromatica, αρωματικα*; from αρωμα, an odour). A term applied to all medicines which have a grateful ſpicy ſcent, and an agreeable pungent taſte, as cinnamon bark, cardamoms, &c.

ARQUEBUSADE. *Aqua ſclopetaria.* This is a French word, implying *good for a gun-ſhot wound.* The name of a ſpirituous water diſtilled from a farrago of aromatic plants.

ARRACK. A ſpirituous liquor diſtilled from rice, and drank in the rice countries as we do brandy in this iſland. Its effects on the animal œconomy are the ſame. See *Brandy.*

ARROWHEAD. The roots of this plant, *Sagittaria ſagittifolia* of Linnæus, are ſaid to be eſculent, but it muſt be in times of very great ſcarcity.

ARROW ROOT. *Indian arrow root.*

ARSĒNĬAS, (*Arſenias, ātis*, m. from *arſenicum*, arſenic). An arſeniate or arſenical ſalt. Arſeniates are formed by a combination of arſenic acid with different baſes, as arſeniate of ammoniac, which is produced by the union of ammoniac with arſeniac acid.

ARSENIC, (*Arſenĭcum, i*, n.). A metal of tin found in black maſſes, almoſt without luſtre and very heavy. Its aſpect, however, and fracture are ſometimes brilliant, rainbow-coloured, and ſcaly, when it is called *teſtaceous arſenic*. Sometimes it is found extremely pure, and is then termed *virgin arſenic*; this is known by its ponderoſity, and diffuſing the ſmell of garlic when expoſed to heat on burning coals. It is alſo met with in the form of a whitiſh duſt or oxyd of arſenic. It is often combined with ſulphur, forming what is called orpiment or realgar. *Orpiment* is found in yellow, brilliant, micaceous maſſes, ſometimes approaching to a green colour. *Realgar* is of a red colour, more or leſs lively and tranſparent, and ſometimes cryſtallized in bright needles. The white ore of arſenic, called *miſpickel*, or *arſenical pyrites*, is ſometimes found cryſtallized in cubic cryſtals, but moſtly without any determinate form. Arſenic is alſo found intermingled amongſt the ores of cobalt, antimony, tin, iron, copper, and ſilver. Saxony affords the arſenic uſed in this country. *Pure arſenic*, commonly called regulus of arſenic, is of a blackiſh gray colour, reflects the colours of the rainbow, is very ponderous and friable; combined by combuſtion, or otherwiſe, with oxygen, it forms an oxyd, formerly called the calx of arſenic: and if ſuper-oxydated, which is generally done by means of the nitric acid, it affords an acid, called the *arſeniac acid*, which combined with different baſes, form a claſs of ſalts termed *arſeniates*. Arſenic, and its various preparations, are the moſt active of all poiſons; nevertheleſs it is a very valuable article in the materia medica. It is very generall uſed as a tonic in intermittents and hyſterical complaints. The following is Dr. Fowler's method of preparing it for internal uſe. Take of powdered arſenic and prepared kali, each ſixty-four grains, boil them gently in a Florentine caſk, or other glaſs veſſel, with half a pound of diſtilled water, until the arſenic is diſſolved; to this ſolution, when cold, add half an ounce of compound ſpirit of lavender, and as much water as will make the whole equal to a pint, or fifteen ounces and half in weight. The doſe of this ſolution is as follows: From two years old to four, gut. ij, or iij, to v; from five to ſeven, gut. v to vij; from eight to twelve, gut. vij to x; from thirteen to eighteen, gut. x to xij; from eighteen, and upwards, gut. xij. Theſe doſes may be repeated once in eight or twelve hours, diluted with thick gruel or barley water. Arſenic has long been the favourite eſcharotic amongſt quacks who pretend to cure cancer, and it enters into the celebrated Plunket's cauſtic. The following plan ſhould be purſued when arſenic has been ſwallowed in a quantity ſufficient to endanger the life of the perſon. A vomit of white or blue vitriol ſhould be exhibited immediately, and large quantities of water, in which the hepar ſulphuris is diſſolved, ſwallowed. The ſtomach having been thus emptied, a mixture, containing the hepar ſulphuris, ſo as to have about a ſcruple to a doſe, ſhould be exhibited, frequently alternating with milk, butter, or caſtor oil.

ARSENICAL ACID. *Acĭdum arſenĭcum.* Arſenic acid. This is prepared by diſtilling ſix parts of nitrous acid from one of the calx of arſenic. See *Arſenic*.

ARTEMĬSĬA, (*Artemiſia, æ*, f. ἀρτεμισια; ſo called from a queen of that name, who firſt uſed it; or from ἀρτεμις, Diana; becauſe it is uſed in ſecret

disorders of women, over which she presided).

ARTEMĬSĬA ABROTĂNUM. The systematic name for the *abrotanum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Abrotanum.*

ARTEMĬSĬA ABSYNTHĬUM. The systematic name for the *absynthium vulgare* of the pharmacopœias. See *Absynthium vulgare.*

ARTEMĬSĬA JUDĬĂCA. The systematic name for the *Santonicum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Santonicum.*

ARTEMĬSĬA MARĬTĬMA. The systematic name for the *absynthium maritimum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Absynthium maritimum.*

ARTEMĬSĬA PONTĬCA. The systematic name for the *absynthium ponticum.* See *Absynthium Ponticum.*

ARTEMĬSĬA RUPESTRIS. The systematic name for the *genipi album* of the pharmacopœias. See *Genepi album.*

ARTEMĬSĬA VULGĀRIS. Mugwort. This plant, *Artemisia, foliis pinnatifidis planis incisis subtus tomentosus, racemis simplicimis recurvatis floribus radio quinquefloro,* of Linnæus, is slightly bitter, and although in high esteem in former days, is now almost wholly forgotten. By beating and rubbing the dried tops of this plant, the Japanese prepare a soft substance, which they call moxa. See *Moxa.*

ARTERĬÆ ADIPŌSÆ. The arteries which secrete the fat about the kidneys are so called. They are branches of the capsular and diaphragmatic, renal and spermatic arteries.

ARTERĬÆ VENŌSÆ. The four pulmonary veins were so called by the ancients.

ARTERIŌSUS DUCTUS. See *Ductus arteriosus.*

ARTERIOTOMY, (*Arteriotomia, æ,* f. from αρτηρια, an artery, and τεμνω, to cut). The opening of an artery. This operation is only performed on the temporal artery.

ARTERY, (*Arteria, æ,* f. from αηρ, air, and τηρεω, to keep; because the ancients believed they carried the finer parts of the blood, mixed with air). Arteries are membranous pulsating canals, which gradually become less as they proceed from the heart. They are composed of three membranes, a common or external, a muscular, and an internal one, which is very smooth. They originate from the heart; the pulmonary artery from the right ventricle, and the aorta from the left: the other arteries are all branches of the aorta. Their termination is either in the veins, or in capillary exhaling vessels, or they anastomose with one another. It is by their means that the blood is carried from the heart to every part of the body, for nutrition, preservation of life, generation of heat, and the secretion of the different fluids. The action of the arteries, called the pulse, corresponds with that of the heart, and is effected by the contraction of their muscular, and great elasticity of their innermost coat.

A Table of the Arteries.

All the arteries originate from the pulmonary artery and the aorta.

The *pulmonary artery* emerges from the right ventricle of the heart, soon divides into a right and left branch, which are destributed by innumerable branches through the lungs.

The *aorta* arises from the left ventricle of the heart, and supplies every part of the body with blood in the following order.

a. It first forms an *arch*;

b. It then descends along the spine, and

c. It divides into the two *iliacs.*

a. The ARCH OF THE AORTA gives off three branches.

I. The *arteria innominata,* which divides into the *right carotid* and *right subclavian.*

II. The *left carotid.*

III. The *left subclavian.*

I. The *carotids* are divided into *external* and *internal.*

The *external carotids* give off

1. The *thyroid,*

2. The *lingual*,
3. The *labial*,
4. The *inferior pharyngeal*,
5. The *occipital*,
6. The *posterior auris*,
7. The *internal maxillary*, from which the *spinous artery of the dura mater*, the *lower maxillary*, and *several branches about the palate and orbit* arise,
8. The *temporal*.

The *internal carotid* affords

1. The *ophthalmic*,
2. The *middle cerebræ*,
3. The *communicans*, which inosculates with the *vertebræ*.

II. The *sublcavians* give off the following branches:

1. The *internal mammary*, from which the *thymic*, *comes phrenici*, *pericardiac*, and *phrenico-pericardiac arteries* arise,
2. The *inferior thyroid*, which gives off the *tracheal*, *ascending thyroid*, and *transversalis humeri*,
3. The *vertebral*, which proceeds within the vertebræ, and forms within the cranium the *basilary artery*, from which the *anterior cerebelli*, the *posterior cerebri*, and *many branches about the brain* are given off,
4. The *cervicalis profunda*,
5. The *cervicalis superficialis*,
6. The *superior intercostal*,
7. The *supra-scapular*.

As soon as the subclavian arrives at the arm-pit, it is called the *axillary artery*; and when the latter reaches the arm, it is called the *brachial*.

The *axillary artery* gives off

1. *Four mammary arteries*,
2. The *sub-scapular*,
3. The *posterior circumflex*,
4. The *anterior circumflex*, which ramify about the shoulder joint.

The *brachial artery* gives off

1. *Many lateral branches*,
2. The *profunda humeri superior*,
3. The *profunda humeri inferior*,
4. The *great anastomosing artery*, which ramifies about the elbow-joint;

The *brachial artery* then divides, about the bend of the arm, into the *ulnar* and *radical arteries*, which are ramified to the ends of the fingers.

The *ulnar artery* gives off

1. *Several recurrent branches*,
2. The *common interosseal*, of which the *dorsal ulnar*, the *pulmaris profunda*, the *palmary arch*, and the *digitals*, are branches.

The *radial artery* gives off

1. The *radial recurrent*,
2. The *superficialis volæ*, and then divides into the *palmaris profunda* and the *digitals*.

b. The DESCENDING AORTA gives off,

In the breast,

1. The *bronchial*,
2. The *æsophageal*,
3. The *intercostals*,
4. The *inferior diaphragmatic*;

Within the abdomen,

1. The *cæliac*, which divides into three branches:
   1. The *hepatic*, from which are given off, before it reaches the liver,
      α. The *duodeno-gastric*, which sends off the *right gastro-epiploic* and the *pancreatico-duodenal*,
      β. The *pilorica superior hepatica*;
   2. The *coronaria ventriculi*,
   3. The *splenic*, which emits the *great* and *small pancreatics*, the *posterior gastric*, the *left gastro-epiploic*, and the *vasa brevia*;
2. The *superior mesentric*,
3. The *emulgents*,
4. The *spermatics*,
5. The *inferior mesentric*,
6. The *lumbar arteries*,
7. The *middle sacral*.

c. The aorta then bifurcates into the ILIACS, each of which divide into *external* and *internal*.

The *internal iliac*, called also *hypogastric*, gives off

1. The *lateral sacrals*,
2. The *gluteal*,

3. The *ischiatic*,
4. The *pudical*, from which the *external hæmorrhoidal*, the *perineal*, and the *arteriæ penis* arise,
5. The *obturatory*.

The *external iliac* gives off, in the groin,

1. The *epigastric*,
2. The *circumflexa iliaca*;

It then passes under Poupart's ligament, and is called the *femoral artery*, and sends off

1. The *profunda*,
2. The *ramus anastomoticus magnus*, which runs about the knee joint;

Having reached the ham, where it gives off some small branches, it is termed the *poplitical*. It then divides into the *anterior* and *posterior tibial*.

The *tibialis antica* gives off

1. The *recurrent*,
2. The *internal malleolar*,
3. The *external malleolar*,
4. The *tarseal*,
5. The *metatarseal*,
6. The *dorsales externa halicus*.

The *posterior tibial* sends off

1. The *nutritia tibiæ*,
2. *Many small brauches*,
3. The *internal plantar*,
4. The *external plantar*, from which an *arch* is formed, that gives off the *digitals of the toes*.

ARTHANĪTA, (*Arthanita*, *æ*, f. αρθανιτα; from αρουρα, bread; because it is the food of swine). The herb sowbread. See *Cyclamen*.

ARTHRĪTIS, (*Arthritis*, *ĭdis*, f. from αρθρον, a joint). The gout. A disease arranged by Cullen in the class *pyrexiæ*, and order *phlegmasiæ*. It begins with an excruciating pain in the part, which swells and inflames, induces a high degree of fever, and mostly terminates by resolution or the deposition of a chalky matter. The species of this complaint are *arthritis regularis*, *arthritis atonica*, *arthritis retrogradâ*, and *arthritis aberrans*.

ARTHRŌDĬA, (*Arthrodia*, *æ*, from αρθρωω, to articulate). A species of *diarthrosis*, or moveable connexion of bones, in which the head of one bone is received into the superficial cavity of another, so as to admit of motion in every direction, as the head of the humerus with the glenoid cavity of the scapula.

ARTHRODŸNĬA, (*Arthrodynia*, *æ*, f. from αρθρον, a joint, and οδυνη, pain). Chronic pains in the joints, without pyrexia. It is one of the terminations of acute rheumatism. See *Rheumatismus*.

ARTHROPUŌSIS, (*Arthropuosis*, *is*, f. αρθροπυωσις; from αρθρον, a joint, and πυον, pus). A collection of pus in a joint. It is, however, frequently applied to other affections as, *lumbago psoadica*, *&c.*

ARTICHOKE. See *Cinara*.

ARTICHOKE, FRENCH. See *Cinara*.

ARTICHOKE, JERUSALEM. Although formerly in estimation for the table, this plant, *Helianthus tuberosus* of Linnæus, is now neglected, it being apt to produce flatulency and dispepsia.

ARTICULATION, (*Articulatio*, *onis*, f. from *articulus*, a joint). The connexion of one bone with another. There are three *genera* of articulations, viz. *diarthrosis*, or moveable connexion; *synarthrosis*, or immoveable connexion; and *symphysis*, or mediate connexion. See *Diarthrosis*, *Synarthrosis*, and *Symphysis*.

Table of the Connexions of Bones.

I. *Diarthrōsis*, or *moveable connexion*. This genus contains five species:

1. *Enathrōsis*,
2. *Arthrodia*,
3. *Ginglymus*,
4. *Trochōides*,
5. *Amphiarthrōsis*.

II. *Synarthrōsis*, or *immoveable connexion*. This genus comprehends three species:

1. *Suture*,

2. *Harmony*,
3. *Gomphōsis*.

III. *Symphysis*, or *mediate connexion*, which has five species:
1. *Synchondrōsis*,
2. *Syssarcōsis*,
3. *Syneurōsis*,
4. *Syndesmōsis*,
5. *Synostōsis*.

ARUM, (*Arum*, *i*, n. from the Hebrew word *jaron*, which signifies a dart, so named because its leaves are shaped like a dart; or from αρω, injury). Common arum, or wake-robin. *Arum maculatum* of Linnæus. *Arum acaule*, *foliis hastatis integerrimis*, *spadice clavato*. Class. *Gynandria*. Order. *Polyandria*. The root is the medicinal part of this plant, which, when recent, is very acrimonious. It is employed as a stimulant in chlorotic, rheumatic, and paralytic cases, mixed with oleaginous or mucilaginous substances to sheath its acrimony. The London Pharmacopœia directs a conserve to be made of the fresh root.

ARUM, COMMON. See *Arum*.

ARUM MACŬLĀTUM. The systematic name for the *arum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Arum*.

ARYTÆNO-EPIGLOTTIDĒUS. A muscle composed of a number of fibres running between the artytænoid cartilage and epiglottis. It pulls the side of the epiglottis towards the external opening of the glottis, and when both act, they pull it close upon the glottis.

ARYTÆNOID CARTILAGE, (*Cartilago arytænoidea*; from αρυταινα, a funnel, and ειδος, shape). The name of two cartilages of the larynx.

ARYTÆNOIDĒUS MINOR. See *Arytænoideus obliquus*.

ARYTÆNOIDĒUS MAJOR. See *Arytænoideus transversus*.

ARYTÆNOIDĒUS OBLIQUUS. *Arytænoidēus minor* of Douglas. A muscle of the glottis, which arises from the base of one arytænoid cartilage, and crossing its fellow, is inserted near the tip of the other arytænoid cartilage. It is a muscle that is occasionally wanting; but when present, and both muscles act, their use is to pull the arytænoid cartilages towards each other.

ARYTÆNOIDĒUS TRANSVERSUS. *Arytænoidēus major* of Douglas. An azygos, or single muscle of the glottis, that arises from the side of one arytænoid cartilage, from near its articulation with the cricoid to near its tip. The fibres run across, and are inserted in the same manner into the other arytænoid cartilage. Its use is to shut the glottis, by bringing the two arytænoid cartilages, with their ligaments, nearer to each other.

ASAFŒTĬDA (*Asafœtida*, *æ*, f. from the Hebrew word *asa*, to heal). Gum asafœtida. The plant which affords this gum-resin is the *Ferula asafœtida* of Linnæus, (*Ferula foliis alternatim sinuatis obtusis*. Class. *Petandria*. Order. *Digynia*), which grows plentifully on mountains in the provinces of Chorasaan and Laar in Persia. The process of obtaining it is as follows: the earth is cleared away from the top of the roots of the oldest plants; the leaves and stalks are then twisted away, and made into a covering, to screen the root from the sun; in this state the root is left for forty days, when the covering is removed, and the top of the root cut off transversely; it is then screened again from the sun for forty-eight hours, when the juice it exudes is scraped off, and exposed to the sun to harden. A second transverse section of the root is made, and the exudation suffered to continue for forty-eight hours, and then scraped off. In this manner it is eight times repeatedly collected in a period of six weeks. The juice thus obtained has a bitter, acrid, pungent taste, and is well known by its peculiar nauseous smell, the strength of which is the surest test of its goodness. It is highly esteemed as an antihysteric, nervine,

and ſtimulating remedy, and is much uſed in hyſteria, hypochondriaſis, dyſpepſia, &c.

Asarabacca. See *Aſarum.*

Asărum, (*Aſarum, i,* n. from α, neg. and σαιρω, to adorn; becauſe it was not admitted into the ancient coronal wreaths). Aſarabacca. *Aſarum europæum* of Linnæus. *Aſarum foliis reniformibus obtuſis binis.* Claſs. *Dodecandria.* Order. *Monogynia.* It is a native of England, but not very common. The leaves of this plant are extremely acrid, and are occaſionally uſed, when powdered, as a ſternutatory. The plant was formerly very generally employed internally as well as externally.

Asărum europæum. The ſyſtematic name for the *aſarum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Aſarum.*

Ascăris, (*Aſcaris, ĭdis,* f.). There are ſeveral kinds of worms diſtinguiſhed by this term; but thoſe which claim a place here as belonging only to the human body, are, 1. *Aſcaris vermicularis, the thread* or *maw worm,* which is very ſmall and ſlender, not exceeding half an inch in length: they inhabit the rectum. 2. *Aſcaris lumbricoides, the long and round worm,* which is a foot in length, and about the breadth of a gooſe-quill.

Ascītes, (*Aſcites, æ,* m. from ασκος, a ſack, or bottle). Dropſy of the belly. A tenſe, but ſcarcely elaſtic, ſwelling of the abdomen from the accumulation of water. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ,* and order *intumeſcentiæ.* He enumerates two ſpecies: 1. *Aſcites abdominalis,* when the water is in the cavity of the peritonæum, which is known by the equal ſwelling of the parietes of the abdomen. 2. *Aſcites ſiccatus,* or encyſted dropſy, in which the water is encyſted, as in the ovarium; the fluctuation is here leſs evident, and the ſwelling is at firſt partial.

Asclepĭas, (*Aſclepias, adis,* f. ασκληπιας; from Aſclepias, its diſcoverer, or from Æſculapius, the god of medicine). The herb ſwallow-wort. See *Vincetoxicum.*

Asclepĭas vincetoxĭcum. Officinal ſwallow-wort, or tame poiſon. The ſyſtematic name for the *vincetoxicum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Vincetoxicum.*

Ash. See *Fraxinus.*

Aspalathi lignum. See *Lignum aloes.*

Aspăragus, (*Aſparagus, i,* m. ασπαραγος, a young ſhoot, before it unfolds its leaves).

Asparăgus officinālis. The ſyſtematic name for the officinal *aſparagus.* See *Aſparagus.*

Aspĕra arterĭa. See *Trachea.*

Asperŭla odorāta. The ſyſtematic name for the officinal *matriſylva.* See *Matriſylva.*

Asphodĕlus, (*Aſphodelus, i,* m. ασφοδελος; from ασπις, a ſerpent, and δειλος, fearful, becauſe it deſtroy sthe venom of ſerpents; or from σποδελος, aſhes, becauſe it was formerly ſown upon the graves of the dead). Daffodil. This plant, *Aſphodelus racemoſus; caule nudo, foliis enſiformibus carinatis lævibus,* of Linnæus, was formerly ſuppoſed to be efficacious in the cure of ſordid ulcers. It is now wholely laid aſide.

Asphodĕlus racemōsus. The ſyſtematic name for the officinal *aſphodelus.* See *Aſphodelus.*

Asphyxĭa, (*Aſphyxia, æ,* f. ασφυξια; from α, priv. and σφυξις, a pulſe). The ſtate of the body, during life, in which the pulſation of the heart and arteries cannot be perceived. There are ſeveral ſpecies of aſphyxia enumerated by different authors.

Asplenĭum ruta muralĭa. The ſyſtematic name for the *ruta muraria* of the pharmacopœias. See *Ruta muraria.*

Asplenĭum scolopendrĭum. The ſyſtematic name for the *ſcolopendrium* of the pharmacopœias. See *Scolopendrium.*

ASPLENĬUM TRICHOMĂNES.—The syſtematic name for the *trichomanes* of the pharmacopœias. See *Trichomanes*.

ASSA DULCIS. See *Benzoinum*.

ASSES MILK. This is preferred to cows and other kinds of milk in phthiſical caſes, and where the ſtomach is weak, as containing leſs oleaginous particles, and being more eaſily converted into chyle.

ASSIMULATION, (*Aſſimilatio, onis*, f. from *ad*, and *ſimilis*, to make like to). The converſion of the food into nutriment.

ASTĂCUS FLUVIATĬLIS. The officinal crab.

ASTHENIA, (*Aſthenia, æ*, f. ασθενια; from , priv. and σθενος, ſtrength). Extreme debility.

ASTHMA, (*Aſthma, ătis*, n. ασθμα; from ασθμαζω, to breathe with difficulty). Difficult reſpiration, returning at intervals, with a ſenſe of ſtricture acroſs the breaſt, and in the lungs; a wheezing, hard cough, at firſt, but more free towards the cloſe of each paroxyſm, with a diſcharge of mucus, followed by a remiſſion. It is ranked by Cullen in the claſs *neuroſes*, and order *ſpaſmi*. There are three ſpecies of aſthma: 1. *Aſthma ſpontaneum*, when without any manifeſt cauſe. 2. *Aſthma plethoricum*, when it ariſes from plethora. 3. *Aſthma exanthematicum*, originating from the repulſion of ſome humour.

ASTRĂGĂLUS, (*Aſtragalus, i*, m. αστραγαλος, a cockal, or die; becauſe it is ſhaped like the die uſed in ancient games). A bone of the *tarſus*, upon which the tibia moves. It is placed poſteriorly and ſuperiorly in the tarſus, and is formed of two parts, one large, which is called its body, the other ſmall, like a proceſs. The part where theſe two unite is termed the neck.

ASTRAGĂLUS EXCĂPUS. Stemleſs milk vetch. The root of this plant, *Aſtragalus excapus*; *acaulis excapus leguminibus lunatis, foliis villoſis* of Linnæus, is ſaid to cure confirmed ſyphilis, eſpecially when in the form of nodes and nocturnal pains.

ASTRAGĂLUS TRAGĂCANTHA. The ſyſtematic name for the plant which affords the gum tragacanth. See *Tragacantha*.

ASTRINGENTS. See *Adſtringents*.

ATAXIA, (*Ataxia, æ*, f. αταξια; from α, neg. and τασσω, to order). Want of regularity in the ſymptoms of a diſeaſe, or of the functions of an animal body.

ATHA-MANTA CRETENSIS. The ſyſtematic name for the *daucus creticus* of the pharmacopœias. See *Daucus creticus*.

ATHAMANTA OREOSELĪNUM.—The ſyſtematic name for the officinal *oreoſelinum*. See *Oreoſelinum*.

ATHERŌMA, (*Atheroma, ătis*, n. αθηρωμα, pulſe, pap). An encyſted tumour that contains a ſoft ſubſtance of the conſiſtence of a poultice.

ATLAS, (*Atlas, antis*, m. ατλας; from ατλαω, to ſuſtain, becauſe it ſuſtains the head; or from the fable of Atlas, who was ſuppoſed to ſupport the world upon his ſhoulders). The name of the firſt cervical vertebra. This vertebra differs very much from the others. See *Vertebræ*. It has no ſpinous proceſs which would prevent the neck from being bent backwards, but in its place it has a ſmall eminence. The great foramen of this is much larger than that of any other vertebra. Its body, which is ſmall and thin, is nevertheleſs firm and hard. It is ſomewhat like a ring, and is diſtinguiſhed into its *great arch*, which ſerves in the place of its body, and its *ſmall poſterior arch*. The atlas is joined ſuperiorly to the head by ginglymus; and inferiorly, to the ſecond cervical vertebra, by means of the inferior oblique proceſſes and the odontoid proceſs by trochoides.

ATMOSPHERE, (*Atmoſphera, æ*, f. from ατμος, vapour, and σφαιρα, a circle). The gazeous, or aeriform fluid,

which every where inveſts the ſurface of the globe. See *Air atmoſpheric.*

ATMOSPHERIC AIR. See *Air atmoſpheric.*

ATONIC. Relaxed, diminution of ſtrength, weakneſs, debility.

ATONY, (*Atonĭa, æ*, f. ατονια; from α, neg. and τεινω, to extend). A defect of muſcular power.

ATRIPLEX FŒTĬDA. *Atriplex olida. Vulvaria.* The very fetid ſmell of this plant, *Chenopodium vulvaria; foliis integerrimis rhombeo ovatis, floribus conglomeratis axillaribus*, of Linnæus, induced phyſicians to exhibit it in hyſterical diſeaſes. It is now ſuperceded by more active preparations.

ATRIPLEX HORTENSIS. The ſyſtematic name for the *atriplex ſativa* of the pharmacopœias. See *Atriplex ſativa.*

ATRIPLEX SATĪVA. The herb and ſeed of this plant, *Atriplex hortenſis caule erecto herbaceo, foliis triangularibus*, of Linnæus, have been exhibited medicinally, but the practice of the preſent day appears to have totally rejected them.

ATRŎPA BELLADONNA. The ſyſtematic name for the *belladonna* of the pharmacopœias. See *Belladonna.*

ATRŎPA MANDRAGŌRA. The ſyſtematic name for the plant which affords the *radix mandragoræ* of the pharmacopœias. See *Mandragora.*

ATROPHY, (*Atrophĭa, æ*, f. ἀτροφια; from α, neg. and τρεφω, to nouriſh). Emaciation and weakneſs, but without hectic fever. This diſeaſe is arranged by Cullen in the claſs *cachexiæ*, and order *marcores.* When it takes place from too copious evacuations, it is termed *atrophia inanitorum*; when from famine, *atrophia famelicorum*; when from corrupted nutriment, *atrophia cacochymica*; and when from an interruption in the digeſtive organs, *atrophia debilium.*

ATTENUANTS, (*Attenuantia, ſc. medicamenta*; from *attenuo*, to make thin). Diluents. Thoſe ſubſtances are ſo termed, which poſſeſs a power of imparting to the blood a more thin and more fluid conſiſtence than it had previous to their exhibition; ſuch are, *aqua, ſerum lactis*, &c.

ATTOLLENS AUREM, (*Attollens*; from *attollo*, to lift up). A common muſcle of the ear, which ariſes, thin, broad, and tendinous, from the tendon of the occipito-frontalis, from which it is almoſt inſeparable, where it covers the aponeuroſis of the temporal muſcle; and is inſerted into the upper part of the ear, oppoſite to the antihelix. Its uſe is to draw the ear upwards, and to make the parts into which it is inſerted, tenſe.

ATTRACTION, (*Attractio, onis*, f. from *attraho*, to attract). See *Affinity.*

AUDITORY NERVE. See *Nervus auditorius.*

AUDITORY NERVES. *Nervi auditorii.* The ſeventh pair of nerves, which are diſtributed on the organ of hearing. See *Portio mollis.*

AUDITORY PASSAGE. See *Meatus auditorius externus* and *internus.*

AURA, (*Aura, æ*, f. αυρα; from αω, to breathe). Any ſubtle vapour or exhalation.

AURA EPILEPTĬCA. A ſenſation which is felt by epileptic patients, as if a blaſt of cold air aſcended from the lower parts towards the heart and head.

AURA SEMĬNIS. The extremely ſubtle and vivifying portion of the ſemen virile, that aſcends through the Fallopian tubes, to impregnate the ovum in the ovarium.

AŪRANTĬUM, (*Aurantium, i*, n. *ab aureo colore*, from its golden colour). *Aurantium Hiſpalenſe.* The Seville orange. The plant which affords this fruit is the *Citrus aurantium, petiolis alatis, foliis acuminatis*, of Linnæus. Claſs. *Polyadelphia.* Order. *Icoſandria.* The leaves, flowers, and exterior rind are directed for medicinal uſe. The latter poſſeſſes ſtomachic and ſtimulant qualities, and

is ordered in tinctures, conſerves, and ſyrups. The leaves and flowers are very ſeldom uſed.

AURĬCŬLA, (*Auricula, æ*, f. dim. of *auris*, the ear). The external ear, upon which are ſeveral eminences and depreſſions, as the *helix*, *antihelix*, *tragus*, *antitragus*, *conchæ auriculæ*, *ſcapha*, and *lobulus*.

AURĬCŬLA JUDÆ. *Fungus ſambucinus*. A membraceous fungus, *Peziza auricula*; *concava rugoſa auriformis* of Linnæus, which reſembles the human ear. Its virtues are adſtringent, and it is generally employed in form of decoction, as a gargle for relaxed ſore throats.

AURĬCŬLA MURIS. See *Piloſella*.

AURĬCLŬLÆ CORDIS. The auricles of the heart. See *Heart*.

AURĬCŬLĀRIS, (*Auricularis, ſc. digitus*; from *auris*, the ear). The little finger; ſo called becauſe people generally put it into the ear, when the hearing is obſtructed.

AURIPIGMENTUM. Yellow orpiment. See *Arſenic*.

AURIS, (*Auris, is*, f. from *aura*, air, as being the medium of hearing). The ear, or organ of hearing. See *Ear*.

AUSTERE. A rough adſtringent taſte.

AVĒNA, (*Avena, æ*, f. from *aveo*, to covet; becauſe cattle are ſo fond of it). Oats. *Avena ſativa* of Linnæus. Oatmeal is very generally employed in emollient poultices.

AVĒNA SATĪVA. The ſyſtematic name for the *avena* of the pharmacopœias. See *Avena*.

AVENS, COMMON. See *Caryophyllata*.

AVICENNĬA TOMENTŌSA. The ſyſtematic name for the plant which affords the *Anacardium orientale* of the pharmacopœias. See *Anacardium orientale*.

AVIGATO PEAR. This delicious fruit, the produce of the *Laurus perſea* of Linnæus, when ripe melts in the mouth like marrow, which it greatly reſembles in flavour. It is ſuppoſed to be the moſt nutritious of all the tropical fruits, and grows in vaſt abundance in the Weſt Indies and New Spain. The unripe fruit have but little taſte; yet being very ſalubrious, are often eaten with ſalt and pepper. The ſailors, when they arrive at the Havannah and thoſe parts, purchaſe them in great quantities; and chopping them into ſmall pieces with green capſicums and a little ſalt, regale themſelves heartily with them. They are eſteemed alſo for their antidyſenteric qualities, and are prepared in a variety of ways for the tables of the rich.

AXILLA, (*Axilla, æ*, f.). The cavity under the upper part of the arm, called the arm-pit.

AXILLARY ARTERIES. *Arteriæ axillares*. The axillary arteries are continuations of the ſubclavians, and give off, each of them, in the axilla, four mammary arteries, the ſubſcapular, and the poſterior and anterior circumflex arteries, which ramify about the joint.

AXILLARY NERVE. Articular nerve. A branch of the brachial plexus, and ſometimes of the radial nerve. It runs outwards and backwards around the neck of the humerus, and is loſt in the muſcles of the ſcapula.

AXILLARY VEINS. *Venæ axillares*. The axillary veins receive the blood from the veins of the arm, and evacuate it into the ſubclavian vein.

AXIS, (*Axis*; from *ago*, to act). See *Dentatus*.

AXUNGĬA, (*Axungia, æ*, f. from *axis*, an axle-tree, and *unguo*, to anoint). Hog's lard.

AZORIAN FENNEL. See *Finochio*.

AZOT, (*Azotum, i*, n. from *α*, priv. and *ζωη*, to live; becauſe it is unfit for reſpiration). Azot. Phlogiſticated air. Mephitic air. *Nitrogen*. *Alcaligen*. *Moſette*. A taſte-

leſs and inodorous element, which exiſts in great quantities in the atmoſphere, and is obtained largely from the fibrous parts of animals, and from nitre. If the latter be ſubjected to certain chemical proceſſes, it is decompoſed into two different bodies: of theſe, the one is white, yellow, or red, and known by the name of nitric, or nitrous acid. Renewed decompoſition reſolves this acid into oxygen, and the ſubſtance we term azot. Thus obtained, the azot is a ſimple elementary ſubſtance, not diſtinctly perceptible to the human ſenſes, but the reality of the exiſtence of which is known by its compoſitions, &c. One of its moſt remarkable combinations is with light and heat, when it forms what chemiſts call gaz azot, azotic gaz, or nitrogen gaz, phlogiſticated air, or atmoſpheric mephites. Of this compound there exiſts always in the atmoſphere a proportion equal to no leſs than ſeventy-two parts out of a hundred. It is lighter than atmoſpheric air, inſtantly extinguiſhes burning tapers, and acts with great energy and rapidity in deſtroying the life of animals.

AZOT, GAZEOUS OXYD OF. See *Gazeous oxyd of azot.*

AZYGOS, (Αζυγος; from α, priv. and ζυγος, a yoke; becauſe it has no fellow). Several muſcles, veins, bones, &c. are ſo called.

AZYGOS VEIN. *Vena azygos. Vena ſine pari.* This vein is ſituated in the right cavity of the thorax, upon the dorſal vertebræ. It receives the blood from the vertebral, intercoſtal, bronchial, pericardiac, and diaphragmatic veins, and evacuates it into the vena cava ſuperior.

B.

BACCÆ BERMUDENSES.—See *Saponariæ nuculæ.*

BACCÆ NORLANDĬCÆ. The fruit of the *Rubus arcticus*; *foliis alternatis, caule inermi unifloro* of Linnæus. They are recommended by Linnæus as poſſeſſing antiſeptic, refrigerant, and antiſcorbutic qualities.

BACHER'S PILLS. A celebrated medicine in France for the cure of dropſies. Their principal ingredient is the extract of the *melampodium*, or black hellebore.

BADIAN SEMEN. See *Aniſum ſtellatum.*

BALĀNUS MYREPSĬCA. See *Ben nux.*

BAGNIGGE WELLS. The water of this place is claſſed by Dr. Saunders amongſt the *ſimple ſaline waters* which contain a conſiderable quantity of Epſom ſalt, and are taken in the doſe of a pint as an eaſy purgative.

BALAUSTINE FLOWER. See *Granatum.*

BALAUSTĬUM, (*Balauſtium, i*, n.). *Flores balauſtiorum.* Balauſtine flower. A large roſe-like flower, of a deep red colour; the produce of the plant from which we obtain the *granatum*. See *Granatum.*

BALBUTIES, (*Balbuties, ei*, f. *balbus*, ſtammering). A defect of ſpeech, and properly that ſort of ſtammering where the patient ſometimes heſitates, and immediately after ſpeaks precipitately. See *Pſelliſmus.*

BALDMONEY. See *Meum athamanticum.*

BALM. See *Meliſſa.*

BALM OF GILEAD. See *Moldavica.*

BALM OF GILEAD FIR. See *Balſamea.*

BALM OF MECCA. See *Balſamum gileadenſe.*

BALM, TURKEY. See *Moldavica.*

BALNĔUM, (*Balneum, i*, n.). A bath. See *Bath.*

BALNĔUM MARĬÆ. See *Bath, chemical.*

Balnĕum maris. The ſame as *balneum mariæ*. See *Bath chemical*.

Balnĕum siccum. See *Bath chemical*.

Baloon. *Balon. Ballon. Balloon.* A large glaſs receiver in the form of a hollow globe. For certain chemical operations *ballons* are made with two necks placed oppoſite to each other; one to receive the neck of a retort, and the other to enter the neck of a ſecond *balloon*: this apparatus is called *enfiladed balloons*. Their uſe is to increaſe the whole ſpace of the receiver, becauſe any number of theſe may be adjuſted to each other. The only one of theſe veſſels which is generally uſed, is a ſmall oblong *balloon* with two necks, which is to be luted to the retort, and to the receiver or great *balloon*; it ſerves to remove this receiver from the body of the furnace, and to hinder it from being too much heated.

Balsam. A balſam is a fluid, odorous, combuſtible ſubſtance, that communicates a ſweet taſte to water, and contains a concrete acid, which may be obtained by ſublimation or decoction. Chemiſts are not agreed as to the difference between balſam and reſin.

Balsam, artificial. Compound medicines are thus termed which are made of a balſamic conſiſtence and fragrance. They are generally compoſed of expreſſed or ætherial oils, reſins, and other ſolid bodies, which give them the conſiſtence of butter. The baſis, or body of them, is expreſſed oil of nutmeg, and frequently wax, butter, &c. They are uſually tinged with cinnabar and ſaffron.

Balsam, Canary. See *Moldavica*.

Balsam of Canada. See *Balſamum canadenſe*.

Balsam of Copaivæ. See *Balſamum Copaivæ*.

Balsam, natural. A Reſin, which has not yet aſſumed the concrete form, but ſtill continues in a fluid ſtate, is ſo called, as common turpentine, balſamum copaiva, peruvianum, tolutanum, &c.

Balsam, peruvian. See *Balſamum peruvianum*.

Balsum of Tolu. See *Balſamum tolutanum*.

Balsam, Turkey. See *Moldavica*.

Balsamea. The balm of Gilead fir. The tree formerly ſo called in the pharmacopœias, is the *Pinus balſamea* of Linnæus: it affords the Canada balſam. See *Balſamum canadenſe*.

Balsamics. A term generally applied to ſubſtances of a ſmooth and oily conſiſtence, which poſſeſs emollient, ſweet, and generally aromatic qualities.

Balsamita mas. *Tanacetum hortenſe. Coſtus hortorum.* Coſtmary, or alecoſt. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias, is the *Tanacetum balſamita; foliis ovatis, integris ſerratis* of Linnæus. A fragrant ſmelling herb, ſomewhat like that of mint; formerly eſteemed as a corroborant, carminative, and emmenagogue.

Balsamĭta fœmĭna. See *Ageratum*.

Balsămum amerĭcānum. See *Balſamum peruvianum*.

Balsămum brasilĭense. See *Balſamum copaibæ*.

Balsămum canădense. Canada balſam. One of the pureſt turpentines, procured from the *Pinus balſamea* of Linnæus, and imported from Canada. For its properties ſee *Turpentines*.

Balsămum copaivæ. *Balſamum braſilienſe. Balſamum copaibæ. Balſamum de copaihu.* A yellow reſinous juice, of a moderately agreeable ſmell, and a bitteriſh biting taſte, that remains a long time in the mouth. It is obtained from the *Copaifera officinalis* of Linnæus, Claſs. *Decandria*, Order. *Monogynia*, by making deep

incisions near the the base of its trunk. The juice flows so freely as to afford twelve pounds in about three hours. Balsam of Copaiva, like most other balsams, is nearly allied to the turpentines, with which it is always mixed in the shops. It was formerly thought to be a very efficacious remedy. It determines very powerfully to the kidneys, and impregnates the urine with its qualities. It is given principally in gonorrhœas, phthisis pulmonalis, fluor albus, and in nephritic complaints.

Balsāmum gilĕadense. *Balsamum de Mecca. Balsamum meccanum. Balsamum verum.* This resinous juice, obtained by making incisions into the bark of the *Amyris gileadensis* of Linnæus (*Amyris foliis ternatis integerrimis, pedunculis unifloris lateralibus*. Class. *Octandria*. Order. *Monogynia*), is of a light yellow colour, of a bitter, acrid, adstringent taste, and of a very strong smell, resembling that of lemons. The chief mark of its goodness is said to be founded on this, that when dropped on water, it spreads itself all over the surface, forming a thin pellicle, tough enough to be taken up upon the point of a pin, and, at the same time, impregnating the water with its smell and flavour. Its virtues are similar to those of the Canada and Copaiva balsams. The fruit of this tree is termed *carpobalsamum* in the pharmacopœias; and the wood or branches, *xylobalsamum*.

Balsāmum de Mecca. See *Balsamum gileadense*.

Balsāmum indĭcum. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

Balsāmum meccānum. See *Balsamum gileadense*.

Balsāmum mexĭcānum. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

Balsāmum peruvĭānum. *Balsamum indicum. Balsamum mexicanum. Balsamum americanum.* Balsam of Peru. The tree which produces this resinous fluid is described by the younger Linnæus by the name of *Myroxylon peruiferum*. Class. *Decandria*. Order. *Monogynia*. Two species of this balsam are imported into this country—the *common* or *black*, and the *white*. The first, which is chiefly used, is about the consistence of a syrup, of a dark, opake, reddish brown colour, inclining to black, and of an agreeable aromatic smell, and a very hot pungent taste. The *white* balsam, called also *white storax*, is brought over in gourd-shells, and is of a pale yellow colour, thick and tenacious, becoming, by age, solid and brittle. They are esteemed as warm nervine medicines, and are sometimes used by surgeons in certain conditions of wounds and ulcers.

Balsāmum peruvĭanum album. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

Balsāmum peruvĭānum nigrum. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

Balsāmum rackasira. This balsam, which is inodorous when cold, but of a smell approaching to that of Tolu balsam when heated, is brought from India in gourd shells. It is slightly bitter to the taste, and adheres to the teeth on chewing. It is supposed by some to be factitious. It is never prescribed in this country.

Balsāmum tolutānum. *Balsam of Tolu.* This juice, which is considered as a true balsam by modern chemists, is of a reddish, yellow, transparent colour; in consistence thick and tenacious; by age it becomes so hard and brittle, that it may be rubbed into a powder between the finger and thumb. Its smell is extremely fragrant, somewhat resembling that of citrons: its taste is warm and sweetish; on being chewed it adheres to the teeth. Thrown into the fire it immediately liquefies, takes flame, and disperses an agreeable odour. The tree which affords this balsam, from incisions of its bark, is

the *Toluifera balſamum* of Linnæus, Claſs. *Decandria*. Order. *Monogynia*, which grows in South America, between Carthagena and Honduras. Tolu balſam poſſeſſes corroborant, ſtomachic, and nervine qualities. It has been chiefly uſed as a pectoral, and is directed in the pharmacopœias in the *ſyrupus tolutanus*, *tinctura tolutana*, and *ſyrupus balſamicus*.

BALSĂMUM VERUM. See *Balſamum gileadenſe*.

BAMBOO CANE. The young ſhoots of this plant, *Arundo bambos* of Linnæus, are prepared by the natives of both Indies, with vinegar, garlic, &c. into a very excellent pickle, which promotes appetite and aſſiſts digeſtion.

BAMĬA MOSCHĀTA. See *Abelmoſchus*.

BANANA. The fruit of this tree, *Muſa ſapientum* of Linnæus, which is much cultivated in the American iſlands, has an agreeable delicious taſte, and is eaten as deſert either before or after dinner. They are very wholeſome.

BANCIA. See *Elaphoboſcum*.

BANGUE. An Italian plant, whoſe ſtalks reſemble that of hemp. Its ſeeds and leaves are heating, and ſtrangely affect the imagination. Aphrodiſiac qualities are alſo attributed to them.

BANILĬA. See *Vanilla*.

BARBARÆA. The leaves of this plant, *Eryſimum barbaræa*; *foliis lyratis, extimo ſubrotundo* of Linnæus, may be ranked amongſt the antiſcorbutics: they are ſeldom uſed.

BARBA CAPRIÆ. See *Ulmariæ*.

BARBA HIRCI. See *Tragopogon*.

BARBA JOVIS. See *Sedum majus*.

BARBADOES CHERRY. The fruit of the *Malphigia glabea* of Linnæus. They are of a red colour, of the ſize of ſmall cherries, and are gathered and eaten by the inhabitants of the Weſt India iſlands, particularly Barbadoes. In moderate quantity they are conſidered as wholeſome, though very inferior to cherries.

BARBADOES NUT. See *Ricinus major*.

BARBADOES TAR. See *Petroleum barbadenſe*.

BARBERRY. See *Berberis*.

BARDĀNA, (*Bardana, æ*, f. from *bardus*, fooliſh; becauſe ſilly people are wont to make garments of its burrs, that they might ſtick to whatever they come near). *Happa major. Perſonata.* Burdock. *Arctium lappa* of Linnæus. *Arctium foliis cordatis inermibus petiolatis.* Claſs. *Syngeneſia.* Order. *Polygamia æqualis.* A plant which grows about waſte grounds, and in hedges. The pharmacopœia directs the root for medicinal uſe; it has no ſmell, but taſtes ſweetiſh, and mixed, as it were, with a ſlight bitterneſs and roughneſs. It does not appear to poſſeſs thoſe qualities which have been attributed to it; yet, as a diuretic and pectoral, in form of decoction, it has ſome claim to our attention.

BAREGE WATER. This is claſſed among the hot ſulphureous waters; and is recommended againſt ſeveral cutaneous diſeaſes.

BARK. A term very frequently employed to ſignify peruvian bark. See *Cinchona*.

BARK, CARRIBÆAN. See *Cinchona jamaicenſis*.

BARK, JAMAICA. See *Cinchona jamaicenſis*.

BARK, PERUVIAN. See *Cinchona*.

BARK, RED. See *Cinchona rubra*.

BARK, YELLOW. See *Cinchona flava*.

BARLEY. See *Hordeum*.

BARLEY, CAUSTIC. See *Cavadilla*.

BARLEY, PEARL. See *Hordeum perlatum*.

BARILLA, (*Barilla, æ*, f.). *Carbonas ſodæ alcaleſcens impurus. Sal alkalinus fixus foſſilis. Natron. Soda. Anatron. Nitrum antiquorum. Aphroni-*

trum. Baurach. Natron. Mineral alkali. Mineral fixed alkaline ſalt. The plant from which this impure mineral alkali is principally procured, is the *Salſoli kali* of Linnæus (*Salſola herbacea decumbens, foliis ſubulatis ſpinoſis ſcabris, calycibus marginatis axillaribus.* Claſs. *Pentandria.* Order. *Digynia*), which is cultivated on the coaſt of the Mediterranean. It may be obtained in Britain from a variety of plants, but principally from the *ſalſola kali, ſalicornia europæa, zoſtera maritima, triglochin maritimum, chenopodium maritimum, atriplex portulacoides,* and *littoralis, plantago maritima, tamarix gallica, eryngium maritimum, ſedum telephum, dipſacus fullonum,* &c. Good barilla is firm, hard, heavy, porous, dry, and ſounds on percuſſion: it is of a bluiſh colour, and imparts a flavour at firſt ſlightly reſembling that of a violet. The plants, about the time the ſeeds become ripe, are pulled up by the roots, and expoſed in a ſuitable dry place, where they are tied up in bundles, and burned in an oven conſtructed for the purpoſe, where the aſhes are continually ſtirred, while hot. The ſaline matter falls to the bottom, and, on becoming cold, forms a hard, ſolid maſs, which is afterwards broken into pieces of convenient ſize for exportation.

Barnet water. A ſaline purgative ſpring, much weaker than the water of Epſom.

Bartholines glands. See *Sublingual glands.*

Barytes, (*Baryta, æ,* f. or *barytes, etis,* f. from βαρυ, εια, υ, heavy). *Cauk. Calk. Terra ponderoſa. Baryt.* Ponderous earth. Heavy earth. A very heavy earth, that is ſeldom met with pure in nature, but moſtly in compoſition with the ſulphuric acid. It hath acquired its name from its extraordinary ſpecific gravity, which is, according to Kirwan, ſomewhat more than 4000, that is, it is ſomewhat more than four times as heavy as an equal meaſure of water. Pure barytes, obtained by a proper proceſs, from its natural compounds, appears in a pulverent form, very fine and white. It does not affect the tongue with any diſcernible taſte. By ſome modern chemiſts barytes is ſuppoſed to be a compound ſubſtance, and actually a metallic oxyd. Mr. Fourcroy ſuſpects it to be a compound of gaz-azot with ſome other ſubſtance. In combination with acids this earth forms the following ſpecies of neutral ſalts uſed medicinally: 1. *Sulphate of barytes,* called *terra ponderoſa,* and ponderous ſpar, which is found in great abundance in nature with metallic ores. 2. *Muriate of barytes. Terra ponderoſa ſalita* of Bergman. A neutral ſalt formed of this earth and the muriatic acid. Taken internally in large doſes, it is poiſonous; but given in ſmall doſes, it is eſteemed by ſome phyſicians as poſſeſſing antiſcrofulous virtues. Any portion, however ſmall, of the ſulphuric acid, may be detected in mineral waters, by this ſalt. 3. *Carbonate of barytes,* a ſalt found in nature, which poſſeſſes ſome ſingular properties, and ſeems to bear a reſemblance to common chalk. It is the *terra ponderoſa aerata* of Bergman. If taken internally it is acrid and poiſonous, and very frequently proves emetic.

Basaltes, (*Baſaltes,* βασαλτης. In the Æthiopic tongue this word means *iron,* which is the colour of the ſtone). Some regard this fuſible ſubſtance as a volcanic production, others have ſuppoſed that it was formed of water. The Giant's Cauſeway, in the county of Antrim, in Ireland, and the rock of Pereniere, near St. Santdoux, in Auvergne, are formed of theſe ſtones. The diſtinctive characters of baſaltes are, a regular form, hardneſs ſufficient to give fire with the ſteel; and a cinereous, gray colour, inclining to black.

Bases, acidifiable. See *Acid.*

Basil. See *Baſilicum.*

Basilare os, (*Baſilaris*; from

βασιλευς, a king). Several bones were so termed by the ancients, as the sphœnoid and occipital bones.

Basilary artery. *Arteria basilaris.* An artery of the brain. So called because it lies upon the basilary process of the occipital bone. It is formed by the junction of the two vertebral arteries within the skull, and runs forwards to the sella turcica along the *pons varolii*, which it supplies, as well as the adjacent parts, with blood.

Basilary process. *Processus basilaris.* Cuneiform process. See *Occipital bone.*

Basilic vein, (*Basilicus*, βασιλικος, royal. Many parts and compositions have this epithet from their eminence). *Vena basilica.* The large vein that runs in the internal part of the arm, and evacuates its blood into the axillary vein. The branch which crosses, at the head of the arm, to join this vein, is called the *basilic median.* They may either of them be opened in the operation of bloodletting.

Basilĭcum. *Ocimum.* Basil. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias, is the *Ocimum basilicum*; *foliis ovatis, glabris; calycibus ciliatis* of Linnæus. It is supposed to possess nervine qualities, but is seldom employed but as a condiment to season high dishes, to which it imparts a grateful odour and taste.

Basĭo-cerato-chondro-glossus. See *Hyo-glossus.*

Basĭo-glossum. See *Hyo-glossus.*

Basĭo-pharyngēus. See *Constrictor pharyngis medius.*

Basis, (*Basis, is*, f. βασις; from βαινω, to go: the support of any thing upon it stands or goes). This word is very frequently applied anatomically to the body of any part, or to that part from which the other parts appear, as it were, to proceed, or by which they are supported.

Bastard pleurisy. Rheumatism of the muscles of the side.

Bath, chemical. When the vessels in which bodies are exposed to the action of heat, are not placed in immediate contact with the fire, but receive the required degree of heat by another intermediate body, such apparatus is termed *balneum*, or bath. They have been variously named, as dry, vapour, &c. Modern chemists distinguish three kinds: 1. *Balneum arenæ*, or the sand bath. This consists merely of an open iron, or baked clay sand pot, whose bottom is mostly convex and exposed to the furnace. Finely sifted sea sand is put into this, and the vessel containing the substance to be heated, &c. is the sand bath, immersed in the middle. 2. *Balneum mariæ*, or the water bath. This is very simple, and requires no particular apparatus. The object is to place the vessel containing the substance to be heated in another containing water; which last must be of such a nature as to be fitted for the application of fire, as a common still or kettle. 3. *The vapour bath.* When any substance is heated by the steam or vapour of boiling water, chemists say it is done by means of a vapour bath.

Bath water. Chemical analysis shows that it contains a good deal of calcareous salts, which render it hard and unfit for domestic purposes; that it holds in solution but little, if any neutral alkaline salts, and therefore is scarcely saline; that it is in a very slight degree impregnated with carbonic acid; in a still slighter with iron, and, as it should appear, only when hot from the spring; and that it holds suspended a small portion of siliceous earth. The diseases for which these celebrated waters are resorted to are very numerous; in most of them the bath is used along with the waters as an internal medicine. The general indications for the use of this medicinal water are in cases where a gentle stimulus is required. The cases

to which it is more particularly ſuited are moſtly of the chronic kind. This water is recommended in chloroſis, in complicated diſeaſes brought on by a long reſidence in hot climates, affecting the ſecretion of the bile, the functions of the ſtomach and alimentary canal, in dyſpepſia from a long courſe of high and intemperate living; in jaundice, gout, rheumatiſm unattended with inflammation, and ſeveral other diſorders which give riſe to many varieties of paralyſis.

BATRACHĬUM. See *Geranium batrachioides.*

BAULDMONEY. See *Meum athamanticum.*

BAURACH. See *Barilla.*

BAY-CHERRY. See *Lauro-ceraſus.*

BAY-LEAVES. See *Laurus.*

BAY-LEAVED PASSION FLOWER. The plant ſo called, is the *Paſſiflora laurifolia* of Linnæus, a native of Surinam, where the fruit grows to the ſize of a ſmall lemon, which it greatly reſembles. Its flavour is delicately acid, and much eſteemed to quench thirſt, ſtrengthen the ſtomach; and is a ſalutary fruit in gaſtric affections, fevers, &c.

BDELLĬUM, (*Bdellium, i.* n. Heb). A gummy, reſinous juice, the produce of an oriental tree. All we know of it, is that it is imported from Arabia and the Eaſt Indies, in pieces of various ſizes; externally of a dark reddiſh brown colour, not unlike myrrh; internally clear, and ſomewhat reſembling glue. It is never met with in the ſhops of this country; but is ſaid to poſſeſs diuretic and deobſtruent qualities.

BEAN. The common bean is the ſeed of the *Vicia faba* of Linnæus, a native of Egypt. There are many varieties. Beans are very wholeſome and nutritious to thoſe whoſe ſtomachs are ſtrong and accuſtomed to the coarſer modes of living. With delicate ſtomachs they produce flatulency, dyſpepſia, cardialgia, &c. eſpecially when old.

BEAN, FRENCH. See *Bean, kidney.*

BEAN, KIDNEY. The ſeed and pericard of the *Phaſeolus vulgaris* of Linnæus, which when young and well boiled are eaſy of digeſtion and delicately flavoured. They are leſs liable to produce flatulency than peas.

BEAN, MALACA. See *Anacardium orientale.*

BEAN, ST. IGNATIUS'S. See *Faba indica.*

BEARS-BREECH. See *Acanthus.*

BEARSFOOT. See *Helleboraſter.*

BEARS WHORTLEBERRY. See *Uva urſi.*

BECCABUNGA, (*Becabunga, æ,* f. from *back bungen,* German; becauſe it grows in rivers). Brooklime ſpeedwell. *Veronica becabunga* of Linnæus. *Veronica racemis lateralibus, foliis ovatis planis, caule repente.* Claſs. *Diandria.* Order. *Monogynia.* This plant is very common in ditches and ſhallow ſtreams. Its leaves are ſomewhat bitter, and are ſaid to poſſeſs antiſcorbutic qualities. The juice is directed by the London Pharmacopœia in the *ſuccus cochleariæ compoſitus.*

BEDEGUAR. *Spongia roſæ.* The rough excreſcence found on the branches of the *Roſa canina* of Linnæus, which are produced by a ſpecies of *ichneumon,* irritating the plant, and forming a neſt in the excreſcence.

BEDSTRAW, LADIES. See *Aperine.*

BEE. *Apis.* This inſect was formerly exhibited, after being dried and powdered, internally as a diuretic. It is to the induſtry of bees we are indebted for thoſe valuable articles, honey and wax. See *Honey* and *Wax.*

BEECH-TREE. See *Fagus.*

BEET, RED. See *Beta rubra.*

BEET, WHITE. A variety of the red beet. The juice and powder of

the root are good to excite ſneezing, and will bring away a conſiderable quantity of mucus.

BEHEN ALBUM. The root which bears this name in the pharmacopœias, is obtained from the *Centaurea behen*; *calycibus ſcarioſis*; *foliis radicalibus lyratis, lobis oppoſitis*; *caulinis amplexicaulibus* of Linnæus. An aromatic odor, a glutinous and gently ſtyptic taſte, and a white colour are its properties. It is never uſed in this country.

BEHEN RUBRUM. The officinal root ſo called is of a deep red colour; and obtained from the *Statice limonium*; *ſcapo paniculato, tereti; foliis lævibus, enerviis, ſubtus mucronatis* of Linnæus. It poſſeſſes adſtringent and ſtrengthening properties.

BELA-AYE CORTEX. The bark of a tree growing in Madagaſcar, called *bela-aye*. It is thin, of a yellowiſh colour externally, reddiſh within, and to the taſte ſlightly bitter and adſtringent. It is ſaid to be very efficacious in the cure of diarrhœas.

BELLADONNA, (*Belladonna, æ*, f. from *bella donna*, handſome lady. Italian. It is ſo called, becauſe the ladies of Italy uſe it to take away the too florid colour of their faces). *Solanum melanoceraſus. Solanum lethale.* Deadly nightſhade, or dwale. *Atropa belladonna, caule herbaceo, foliis ovatis integris* of Linnæus. Claſs. *Pentandria.* Order. *Monogynia.* This plant has been long known as a ſtrong poiſon of the narcotic kind, and the berries have furniſhed many inſtances of their fatal effects, particularly upon children that have been tempted to eat them. The leaves were firſt uſed externally, to diſcuſs ſcirrhous and cancerous tumours, and from the good effects attending their uſe, phyſicians were induced to employ them internally for the ſame diſorders; and there are a conſiderable number of well-authenticated facts, which prove them a very ſerviceable and important remedy. The doſe, at firſt, ſhould be ſmall, and gradually and cautiouſly increaſed. Five grains are conſidered a powerful doſe, and apt to produce dimneſs of ſight, vertigo, &c.

BELLIS MAJOR. *Bupthalmum majus. Leucanthemum vulgare. Conſolida media. Oculus bovis.* Ox-eye daiſy. The pharmacopœial name for the plant deſcribed by Linnæus *Chryſanthemum leucanthemum*; *foliis amplexicaulibus, oblongis, ſuperne ſerratis, inferne dentatis.* The flowers and herb were formerly eſteemed in aſthmatic and phthiſical diſeaſes, but have now deſervedly fallen into diſuſe.

BELLIS MINOR. The *Bellis perennis; ſcapo nudo* of Linnæus; called common daiſy: was formerly directed in pharmacopœias by this name. Although the leaves and flowers are rather acrid, and are ſaid to cure ſeveral ſpecies of wounds, they are never employed by modern ſurgeons.

BELLIS PERENNIS. The ſyſtematic name for the *bellis minor* of the pharmacopœias.

BEN NUX. Βαλανος μυρεψικη. Βαλανος αιγυπτια. *Glans unguentaria. Been nux. Balanus migrepſica.* Ben nut. A whitiſh nut, about the ſize of a ſmall filberd, of a roundiſh triangular ſhape, including a kernel of the ſame figure covered with a white ſkin; the fruit of the *Guilandina moringa*; *inermis, foliis ſubbinnatis, foliolis inferioribus ternatis* of Linnæus. They were formerly employed to remove obſtructions of the *primæ viæ.* The oil afforded by expreſſing theſe nuts, is uſed by the Italians in ſeveral ointments: it is ſaid to be particularly ſerviceable in allaying the itching of the *prurigo ſenilis.*

BENGALÆ RADIX. See *Coſſumuniar.*

BENGAL QUINCE. This fruit, the produce of the *Erateva marmelos* of Linnæus, which grows ſpontaneouſly in ſeveral parts of India, is about the ſize of an orange, and covered with

a hard bony ſhell, containing a yellow viſcous pulp, of a moſt agreeable flavour; this is ſcooped out, and being mixed with ſugar and orange, is brought to the tables of the grandees in India, who eat it as a great delicacy. It is alſo eſteemed as a ſovereign remedy againſt dyſentery.

BENIT-HERB. See *Caryophyllata.*

BENJAMIN. See *Benzoinum.*

BENJAMIN FLOWERS. See *Benzoic acid.*

BEN NUT. See *Ben nux.*

BENZOATS, (*Benzoas, tis*, m.). Salts, formed by the union of the benzoic acid with certain baſes; as *benzoat of allumin*, &c.

BENZOIC ACID. *Acĭdum benzŏicum. Flores benzoes* of the pharmacopœias. Benjamin flowers. Beſides the proceſs given in the pharmacopœias to obtain it from gum benzoe, it may alſo be obtained from many other reſins and balſams; as the balſams of Peru, tolu, ſtorax, &c.

BENZOĪNUM, (*Benzoinum, i.* n. Arab.). *Benzoe. Benjoinum. Aſſa dulcis.* Gum benjamin. This ſubſtance is claſſed, by modern chemiſts, among the balſams. There are two kinds of benzoin: *benzoe amygdaloides*, which is formed of white tears, reſembling almonds, united together by a brown matter; and *common benzoin*, which is brown and without tears. The tree which affords this balſam is the *Styrax benzoin*, according to the London Philoſophical Tranſactions (*Styrax foliis oblongis acuminatis, ſubtus tomentoſis, racemis compoſitis longitudine foliorum. Dryander.* Claſs. *Decandria.* Order. *Monogynia*), from which it is obtained by inciſions. The benzoin of the ſhops is uſually in very large brittle maſſes. When chewed, it imparts very little taſte, except that it impreſſes on the palate a ſlight ſweetneſs; its ſmell, eſpecially when rubbed or heated, is extremely fragrant and agreeable. It has rarely been uſed medicinally in a ſimple ſtate, but its preparations are much eſteemed againſt inveterate coughs and phthiſical complaints. The acid of benzoin is employed in the *tinctura opii camphorata*, and a tincture is directed to be made of the balſam.

BERBĔRIS, (*Berberis, is*, f. An Arabic name, uſed by Averrhoes and the officinal writers). *Oxycantha Galeni. Spina acida. Creſpinus.* Common barberry. This tree, *Berberis vulgaris; pedunculis racemoſis; ſpinis triplicibus* of Linnæus, is a native of England. The fruit or berries, which are gratefully acid and moderately adſtringent, are ſaid to be of great uſe in biliary fluxes, and in all caſes where heat, acrimony, and putridity of the humours prevail. The filaments of this ſhrub poſſeſs a remarkable degree of irritability; for on being touched near the baſe with the point of a pin, a ſudden contraction is produced, which may be repeated ſeveral times.

BERBĔRIS VULGĀRIS. The ſyſtematic name for the *berberis* of the pharmacopœias. See *Berberis.*

BERBERRY. See *Berberis.*

BERGAMOTE. *Eſſentia de cedra.* A ſpecies of citron, produced at firſt caſually by an Italian's grafting a citron on a ſtock of a bergamot pear-tree; whence the fruit produced by this union, participated both of the citron-tree and the pear-tree. The eſſence prepared from this fruit is called eſſence of bergamote.

BERMUDAS BERRY. See *Saponariæ nuculæ.*

BETA RUBRA. Red beet. The ſpecies of beet directed to be uſed in the pharmacopœias by this name, is the *Beta vulgaris; floribus congeſtis* of Linnæus. The root of this plant is frequently eaten by the French; it may be conſidered as nutritious and antiſcorbutic, and forms a very elegant pickle with vinegar. The root and leaves, although formerly em-

ployed medicinally as laxatives and emollients, are now forgotten.

BETA VULGĀRIS. The syſtematic name for the red beet of the pharmacopœias. See *Beta rubra.*

BETONĬCA, (*Betonica, æ*, f. Corrupted from *Vettonica*, which is derived from the *Veetones*, an ancient people of Spain). *Betonica purpurea. Vetonica cordi.* Wood betony. This plant, *Betonica officinalis*; *ſpica interrupta, corollarum labii lacinia intermedia emarginata* of Linnæus, is common in our woods and heaths. The leaves and tops have an agreeable, but weak ſmell; and to the taſte they diſcover a ſlight warmth, accompanied with ſome degree of adſtringency and bitterneſs. Like many other plants, formerly in high medical eſtimation, betony is now almoſt entirely neglected. Antonius Muſa, phyſician to the Emperor Auguſtus, filled a whole volume with enumerating its virtues, ſtating it as a remedy for no leſs than forty-ſeven diſorders; and hence in Italy the proverbial compliment, *You have more virtues than betony.*

BETONĬCA AQUATICA. *Scrophularia aquatica.* Greater water figwort. Water betony. The leaves of this plant, *Scrophularia aquatica*; *foliis cordatis obtuſis, petiolatis, decurrentibus*; *caule membranis angulato*; *racemis terminalibus* of Linnæus, are celebrated as correctors of the ill flavour of ſenna. They were, alſo, formerly in high eſtimation againſt piles, tumours of a ſcrophulous nature, inflammations, &c.

BETONĬCA PAULI. See *Veronica.*

BETONĬCA VULGĀRIS. The ſyſematic name of the *betonica* of the pharmacopœias. See *Betonica.*

BETONY, PAULS. See *Veronica.*

BETONY WATER. See *Betonica aquatica.*

BETŬLA, (*Betula, æ*, f.). Birch. The juice, leaves, and bark of this tree, *Betula alba*; *foliis ovatis, acuminatis, ſerratis* of Linnæus, have been employed medicinally. If the tree be bored early in the ſpring, there iſſues by degrees a large quantity of limpid, watery, ſweetiſh juice: it is ſaid that one tree will afford from one to two gallons a-day. This juice is eſteemed as an antiſcorbutic, deobſtruent, and diuretic. The leaves and bark are uſed externally as reſolvents, detergents, and antiſeptics.

BETŬLA ALBA. The ſyſtematic name for the *betula* of the pharmacopœias. See *Betula.*

BETŬLA ALNUS. The ſyſtematic name for the *alnus* of the pharmacopœias. See *Alnus.*

BEZETTA CŒRULĔA, (*Bezetta, æ*, f.). *Succus heliotropii. Lacmus ſeu tornæ. Lacca cærulea. Litmus.* The juice of the *Croton tinctorium*; *foliis rhombeis repandis, capſulis pendulis, caule herbaceo* of Linnæus. It is much uſed by chemiſts as a teſt. See *Teſts.*

BEZOAR, (*Bezoar*; from *pa-zahar* Perſian, a deſtroyer of poiſon). *Bezoard.* A preternatural or morbid concretion formed in the bodies of land animals. Several of theſe kinds of ſubſtances were formerly celebrated for their medicinal virtues, and diſtinguiſhed by the names of the countries from whence they came, or the animal in which they were found. They were conſidered as high alexipharmics, in ſo much ſo, that other medicines, poſſeſſed, or ſuppoſed to be poſſeſſed of alexipharmic powers, were called *bezoardics.* Theſe virtues, however, are in the preſent day juſtly denied them, as they produce no other effects than thoſe common to the ſaline particles which they contain, and which may be given to greater advantage from other ſources.

BEZOAR OCCIDENTĀLE. Occidental bezoar. This concretion is ſaid to be found in the ſtomach of an animal of the ſtag kind, a native of

Peru, &c. It is of a larger size than the oriental bezoar, and sometimes as large as a hen's egg: its surface is rough, and the colour green, greyish, or brown. For its virtues see *Bezoar*.

Bezoar orientāle. *Lapis bezoar orientalis*. Oriental bezoar stone. This concretion is said to be found in the pylorus, or fourth stomach of an animal of the goat kind, which inhabits the mountains of Persia. It is generally about the size of a kidney bean, of a roundish or oblong figure, smooth, and of a shining olive or dark greenish colour. For its virtues see *Bezoar*.

Bezoar microcosmĭcum. See *Calculus humanus*.

Bezoar porcīnum. *Lapis porcinus*. *Lapis malacensis*. *Bezoar hystricis*. *Pedro del porco*. Porcupine bezoar. This concretion, of a roundish figure, pale purplish colour, soft consistence, and slippery to the touch, is said to be found in the gall bladder of an Indian porcupine, in the province of Malacca. For its virtues see *Bezoar*.

Bezoar simĭæ. *Lapis simiæ*. Bezoar of the monkey. This species is about the size of a hazel nut, and of a very dark green colour. It is found in the stomach of certain monkeys common in the Brazils. For its virtues see *Bezoar*.

Bibitorĭus, (*Bibitorius, sc. musculus*; from *bibo*, to drink; because by drawing the eye inwards towards the nose, it causes those who drink to look into the cup). See *Rectus internus oculi*.

Biceps, (*Biceps, ĭpĭtis*; from *bis*, twice, and *caput*, a head). Many muscles have this denomination from their having two distinct heads or origins.

Biceps. See *Biceps flexor cruris*.

Biceps brachĭi. See *Biceps flexor cubiti*.

Biceps cruris. See *Biceps flexor cruris*.

Biceps externus. See *Triceps extensor cubiti*.

Biceps flexor cruris. *Biceps cruris* of Albinus. *Biceps* of Winslow and Douglas. A muscle of the leg, situated on the hind part of the thigh. It arises by two distinct heads; the first, called *Longus*, arises, in common with the semitendinosus, from the upper and posterior part of the tuberosity of the os ischium. The second, called *Brevis*, arises from the linea aspera, a little below the termination of the glutæus maximus, by a fleshy acute beginning, which soon grows broader as it descends to join with the first head, a little above the external condyle of the os femoris. It is inserted by a strong tendon into the upper part of the head of the fibula. Its use is to bend the leg. This muscle forms what is called the outer ham-string; and, between it and the inner, the nervus popliteus, arteria, and vena poplitea, are situated.

Biceps flexor cubĭti. *Biceps brachii* of Albinus. *Coraco-radialis, seu biceps* of Winslow. *Biceps internus* of Douglas. A muscle of the fore-arm, situated on the fore part of the *os humeri*. It arises by two heads. The first and outermost, called *Longus*, begins tendinous from the upper edge of the glenoid cavity of the scapula, passes over the head of the os humeri within the joint, and, in its descent without the joint, is enclosed in a groove near the head of the os humeri, by a membranous ligament that proceeds from the capsular ligament and adjacent tendons. The second or innermost head, called *Brevis*, arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the coracoid process of the scapula, in common with the coracobrachialis muscle. A little below the middle of the fore-part of the os humeri these heads unite. It is inserted by a strong roundish tendon into the tubercle on the upper end of the radius internally.

Its uſe is to turn the hand ſupine, and to bend the fore-arm. At the bending of the elbow, where it begins to grow tendinous, it ſends off an aponeuroſis, which covers all the muſcles on the inſide of the fore-arm, and joins with another tendinous membrane, which is ſent off from the triceps extenſor cubiti, and covers all the muſcles on the outſide of the fore-arm, and a number of the fibres, from oppoſite ſides, decuſſate each other. It ſerves to ſtrengthen the muſcles, by keeping them from ſwelling too much outwardly, when in action, and a number of their fleſhy fibres take their origin from it.

Biceps internus. See *Biceps flexor cubiti.*

Bicorn, (*Bicornis*; from *bis*, twice, and *cornu*, an horn). An epithet ſometimes applied to the os hyoides, which has two proceſſes or horns; and likewiſe, in former times, to muſcles that had two terminations.

Bicuspis, (*Bicuſpis, idis*; from *bis*, twice, and *cuſpis*, a ſpear). The name of thoſe teeth which have double points or fangs. See *Teeth.*

Bifurcated, (*Bifurcus*; from *bis*, twice, and *furca*, a fork). A veſſel, or nerve, is ſaid to bifurcate when it divides into two branches; thus the bifurcation of the aorta, &c.

Bigaster, (*Bigaſter*; from *bis*, twice, and *gaſter*, a belly). A name given to muſcles which have two bellies.

Bile. *Bilis.* A bitter fluid, ſecreted in the glandular ſubſtance of the liver; in part flowing into the inteſtines, and in part regurgitating into the gall bladder. The ſecretory organ of this fluid is the vaſcular *glomeruli*, called the penicilli of the liver, which terminate in very minute canals, called biliary ducts.—(See *Liver*). The biliary ducts exonerate their bile into the *ductus hepaticus*, which conveys it into the *ductus communis choledochus*, from whence it is in part carried into the duodenum. The other part of the bile regurgitates through the cyſtic duct (ſee *Gall bladder*), into the gall bladder: for hepatic bile, except during digeſtion, cannot flow into the duodenum, which contracts when empty; hence it neceſſarily regurgitates into the gall bladder. The branches of the *vena portæ* contribute moſt to the ſecretion of bile; its peculiar blood, returning from the abdominal viſcera, is ſuppoſed to be, in ſome reſpects, different from other venal blood, and to anſwer exactly to the nature of bile. It is not yet aſcertained clearly whether the florid blood in the hepatic artery, merely nouriſhes the liver, or whether, at the ſame time, it contributes a certain principle, neceſſary for the formation of bile. It has been ſuppoſed by phyſiologiſts, that cyſtic bile was ſecreted by the arterious veſſels of the gall bladder; but the fallacy of this opinion is proved by making a ligature on the cyſtic duct of a living animal. From what has been ſaid, it appears that there are, as it were, two kinds of bile in the human body: 1. *Hepatic bile*, which flows from the liver into the duodenum: this is thin, of a faint yellow colour, inodorous, and very ſlightly bitter, otherwiſe the liver of animals would not be eatable. 2. *Cyſtic bile*, which regurgitates from the hepatic duct into the gall bladder, and there, from ſtagnating, becomes thicker, the aqueous part being abſorbed by lymphatic veſſels, and more acrid from concentration. Healthy bile is of a yellow, green colour; of a plaſtic conſiſtence, like thin oil, and when very much agitated, it froths like ſoap and water: its ſmell is fatuous, ſomewhat like muſk, eſpecially the putrefying or evaporated bile of animals: its taſte is bitter. The conſtituent principles of bile are: 1. *Water*, which conſtitutes the greateſt part of bile. 2. *An albuminous principle*, precipitated

by alkohol and mineral acids. 3. *A resinous principle*, obtained by evaporating a tincture made of alkohol and bile. 4. *A colouring principle*, which adheres to the resinous part, and gives the colour to bile. 5. *Soda*, in its caustic state: hence healthy bile does not effervesce with acids, and affords a neutral salt. 6. *A phosphorated calx*. The primary use of this fluid, so important in the animal economy are; 1. *To extricate the chyle from the chyme*: thus chyle is never observed in the duodenum before the chyme has been mixed with the bile: and thus it is that oil is extricated from linen by the bile of animals. 2. By its *acridity* it excites the peristaltic motion of the intestines; hence the bowels are so inactive in people with jaundice. 3. It imparts a *yellow colour* to the excrements; thus the white colour of the fœces in jaundice, in which disease the flow of bile into the duodenum is entirely prevented. 4. It prevents the *abundance of mucus and acidity* in the primæ viæ; hence acid, pituitous, and verminous saburra are so frequent from deficient or inert bile.

Biliary duct. *Ductus biliosus*. The very vascular *glomeruli*, which compose almost the whole substance of the liver, terminate in very small canals, called *biliary ducts*, which at length form one trunk, the *ductus hepaticus*. Their use is to convey the bile, secreted by the liver, into the hepatic duct.

Bilious. A term very generally made use of, to express diseases which arise from too copious a secretion of bile.

Bilis, (*Bilis, is*, f. from *bis*, twice, and *lis*, contention; as being supposed to be the seat of anger and dispute). See *Bile*.

Bind weed. See *Convolvulus major albus*.

Bingalle. See *Casumunar*.

Birch tree. See *Betula*.

Birdstongue. A name given to the seeds of the *Fraxinus excelsior* of Linnæus.

Birthwort, See *Aristolochia*.

Birthwort, climing. See *Aristolochia tenuis*.

Bishop's weed. See *Ammi*.

Bismuth. *Bismuthum. Marcasita*. Tin glass. A semimetal of a yellowish white silver colour; very ponderous, and disposed in very large plates. It is found at Scala, in Neritia, in Dalecarlia, and at Schneeberg. Neither the metal nor any of its combinations are applied to medicinal purposes.

Bismuthum, (*Bismuthum, i*, n. from *bismut*. German). See *Bismuth*.

Bistort. See *Bistorta*.

Bistorta, (*Bistorta, æ*, f. from *bis*, twice, and *torqueo*, to bend; so called from the contortions of its roots). Bistort. *Polygonum bistorta* of Linnæus. *Polygonum caule simplicissimo monostachio, foliis ovatis in petiolum decurrentibus*. Class. *Octandria*. Order. *Trigynia*. A native of Britain. Every part of the plant manifests a degree of stipticity to the taste, and the root is esteemed to be one of the most powerful of the vegetable adstringents.

Bitter apple. See *Colocynthis*.

Bitter cucumber. See *Colocynthis*.

Bitter gourd. See *Colocynthis*.

Bitter sweet. See *Dulcamara*.

Bitŭmen, (*Bitumen, inis*, n. πίτυμα; from πίτυς, a pine; because it flows from the pine-tree; or, *quod vi tumeat e terra*, from its bursting forth from the earth). Bitumens are combustible, solid, soft, or fluid substances, whose smell is strong, acrid, or aromatic, composed of hydrogen and carbon with a contamination of earth and other substances in small proportions. They are found either in the internal part of the earth, or exuding through the clefts of the rocks, or floating on the surface of waters.

Like oils they burn with a rapid flame. Natural hiſtorians have divided them into ſeveral genera; but modern chemiſts arrange them according to their chemical properties, and are only acquainted with ſix ſpecies, which are very diſtinct from each other: theſe are, naphtha, amber, aſphaltos, jet, pit-coal, and petroleum.

BITŬMEN BARBĂDENSE. See *Petroleum barbadenſe*.

BITŬMEN JUDAĬCUM. *Aſphaltus*. Jews pitch. A ſolid light bituminous ſubſtance, of a duſky colour on the outſide, and a deep ſhining black within; of very little taſte, and ſcarcely any ſmell, unleſs heated, when it emits a ſtrong pitchy one. It is ſaid to be found plentifully in the earth in ſeveral parts of Egypt, and floating on the ſurface of the Dead Sea. It is now wholly expunged from the catalogue of officinals of this country; but was formerly eſteemed as a diſcutient, ſudorific, and emmenagogue.

BITŬMEN LIQUĬDUM. See *Petroleum*.

BIVENTER, (*Biventer*; from *bis*, twice, and *venter*, a belly). A muſcle is ſo termed, which has two bellies.

BIVENTER MAXILLÆ INFERIORIS. See *Digaſtricus*.

BIXA ORELLĀNA. The ſyſtematic name for the *terra orleana* of the pharmacopœias. See *Orleana*.

BLACKBĔRRY. The fruit of the common bramble, *Rubus fruticoſus* of Linnæus. The berries are eaten in abundance by children, and are wholeſome and gently aperient. Too large quantities, however, when the ſtomach is weak, produce vomiting and great diſtention of the belly, from flatus. See *Fruits, ſummer*.

BLADDER. See *Urinary bladder*, and *Gall bladder*.

BLENDE. Falſe galena. A ſpecies of zinc ore, formed of zinc in combination with ſulphur.

BLENNORRHŒA, (*Blennorrhœa, æ*, f. βλεννορραια; from βλεννα, mucus, and ῥεω, to flow). *Gonorrhœa mucoſa*. A gleet. An increaſed diſcharge of mucus from the urethra, ariſing from weakneſs.

BLENNORRHAGĬA, (*Blennorrhagia, æ*, f. βλεννορραγια; from βλεννα, mucus, and ῥεω, to flow). The diſcharge of mucus from the urethra, ariſing from an impure connexion. See *Gonorrhœa*.

BLEPHAROPHTHALMĬA, (*Blepharophthalmia, æ*, f. βλεφαροφθαλμια; from βλεφαρον, the eyelid, and ὀφθαλμος, the eye). An inflammation of the eyelid.

BLEPHAROPTŌSIS, (*Blepharoptoſis, is*, f. βλεφαροπτωσις; from βλεφαρον, the eyelid, and πτωσις, from πιπτω, to fall). A prolapſe, or falling down of the upper eyelid, ſo as to cover the cornea.

BLESSED THISTLE. See *Carduus benedictus*.

BLĪTUM FŒTĬDUM. See *Atriplex fœtida*.

BLOOD, (*Sanguis, ĭnis*, m.). A red homogeneous fluid, of a ſaltiſh taſte, and ſomewhat urinous ſmell, and glutinous conſiſtence, which circulates in the cavities of the heart, arteries, and veins. The quantity is eſtimated to be about 28 pounds in an adult: of this, four parts are contained in the veins, and a fifth in the arteries. The colour of the blood is red; in the arteries it is of a florid hue, in the veins darker; except only the pulmonary veins, in which it is of a lighter caſt. Phyſiology demonſtrates, that it acquires this florid colour in paſſing through the lungs, from the oxygen it abſorbs. The blood is the moſt important fluid of our body. Some phyſicians and anatomiſts have conſidered it as alive, and have formed many ingenious hypotheſes in ſupport of its vitality. The temparature of this fluid is of conſiderable importance, and appears to depend upon the circulation and reſpiration. The blood of man, qua-

drupeds, and birds, is hotter than the medium they inhabit; hence they are termed animals of warm blood; whilſt in fiſhes and reptiles, animals with cold blood, it is nearly of the temperature of the medium they inhabit. The microſcope diſcovers that the blood contains a great number of round globules, which are ſeen floating about in a yellowiſh fluid, the ſerum. The blood alſo poſſeſſes remarkable phyſical properties; its taſte is ſaltiſh, and the ſmell of its halitus or vapour, when recently drawn, is ſomewhat urinous; it is of a plaſtic conſiſtence, ſomewhat glutinous and adheſive. Chemical analyſis of blood, by means of diſtillation, diſcovers, 1. A conſiderable quantity of *inſipid water*, which very ſoon becomes putrid. 2. *Empyreumatic oil.* 3. *Ammoniacal ſpirit.* 4. *Carbon*, which remains behind, is very ſpongy, and with great difficulty incinerated. The aſhes, however, conſiſt of a ſmall quantity of culinary ſalt, ſoda, phoſphorated calx, and a very ſmall portion of iron. While hot, and in motion, the blood remains conſtantly fluid, and red; when it cools, and is at reſt, it takes the form of a fluid maſs, which gradually and ſpontaneouſly ſeparates into two parts; the one, which is red, and floating, becomes of a darker colour, remains concrete, and is called the *cruor*, *craſſamentum*, or *cake*; the other, which occupies the lower part of the veſſel, is of a yellow greeniſh colour, and adheſive, and is called the *ſerum* or *lymph*.

The cruor, or cake, forms more than one half of the blood; it is very plaſtic, thick, and, in conſiſtence, like glutinous jelly. It ſoon putrefies in the temperature of the air; but, dried by a gentle heat, becomes a brittle, dark, red maſs. It is inſoluble in water; and, when boiled in it, is converted into a hard grumous maſs, internally red. The ſurface of the cruor of the blood, after being expoſed in a veſſel to atmoſpheric air, becomes of a florid red colour; but the inferior ſurface, contiguous to the veſſel, is of a deep black: the change of colour on the ſurface is owing to the oxygen of the atmoſphere uniting with the blood. The cruor of the blood is compoſed of, 1. *Red globules*, which chemiſtry demonſtrates conſiſts of a fibrous gluten and oxydated iron. The experiments of the celebrated Rhades ſhew, that in twenty-five pounds of blood from the human body, near two drachms of the oxyd of iron were obtained. 2. The fibrous gluten of the cruor, which remains after waſhing the cruor of blood for a conſiderable time in cold water, and encloſed in a fine linen cloth; in which caſe the red globules are waſhed away. If the red water obtained in this experiment be evaporated, and then diſtilled to dryneſs, it leaves behind a carbon, exhibiting, when incinerated, a great quantity of iron, attractable by the magnet. From theſe experiments it would appear, that the redneſs of the globules is imparted from the oxydated iron; for which purpoſe a ſmall quantity is ſufficient:—one grain of purple mineral will colour many pounds of water very red.

The ſerum of the blood is a lymphatic fluid, almoſt inodorous; rather ſaltiſh to the taſte; pellucid, and of a yellowiſh green colour; and rather of a plaſtic conſiſtence. It forms ſcarcely one half of the blood; and it contains, 1. A large portion of *water*; from forty-ſeven ounces of ſerum, forty-three of inſipid water were yielded by diſtillation. 2. *Albuminous gluten*, like the white of an egg, obtained by boiling, or by ſtirring it with a ſtick, or by an admixture of alkohol or concentrated mineral acid. 3. *Jelly*. If equal parts of water and ſerum of the blood be coagulated by fire, that part of the ſerum which is not coagulated, upon

being cooled, puts on the appearance of a tremulous jelly. 4. *Aerated soda*, obtained by pouring a mineral acid upon recent diluted serum. 5. *Culinary salt*, found in the incinerated carbon of blood. The albuminous principle of the serum, more commonly called the coagulable lymph, appears to be of very considerable importance in the animal œconomy, both in diseased and healthy states of it: it affords, by analysis, carbon, azot, and hydrogen. The importance of the blood is very considerable; it distends the cavities of the heart and blood-vessels, and prevents them from collapsing; it stimulates to contraction the cavities of the heart and vessels, by which means the circulation of the blood is performed; it generates within itself animal heat, which it propagates throughout the body; it nourishes the whole body: and, lastly, it is that source from which every secretion of the body is separated.

Blood, dragon's. See *Sanguis draconis*.

Blood-letting. Under this term is comprehended every artificial discharge of blood made with a view to cure or prevent a disease. Blood-letting is divided into general and topical. As examples of the former, *venæsection* and *arteriotomy* may be mentioned; and of the latter the application of *leeches*, *cupping-glasses*, and *scarification*.

Blood stone. See *Hæmatites*.

Bloody-flux. *Dysenteria sanguinea*. See *Dysenteria*.

Bodies, combustible. This term is given by chemists to all substances which, on account of their affinity with oxygen, are capable of burning.

Bodies, gazeous. See *Gaz*.

Bodies, inflammable. Chemists give this name to such bodies as burn with facility, and flame in an increased temperature; although, strictly speaking, all combustible bodies are inflammable bodies: such are, the diamond, sulphur, bitumens, &c.

Bodies, phosphorescent. Bodies which produce light, though their temperature be not increased.

Body, (*Corpus, oris*, n.). The human body is divided by anatomists into the trunk and extremities: *i. e.* the head, and inferior and superior extremities, each of which have certain regions before any part is removed, by which the physician is enabled to direct the application of blisters and the like, and the situation of diseases is better described. The head is distinguished into the hairy part and the face. The former has five regions, viz. the crown of the head or *vertex*, the fore-part of the head or *sinciput*, the hind part or *occiput*, and the sides, *partes laterales capitis*. In the latter are distinguished the region of the forehead, *frons*; temples or *tempora*, the nose or *nasus*, the eyes or *oculi*, the mouth or *os*, the cheeks *buccæ*, the chin or *mentum*, and the ears or *aures*. The trunk is distinguished into three principal parts, the neck, thorax, and abdomen. The neck is divided into the anterior region or *pars antica*, in which, in men, is an eminence called *pomum Adami*; the posterior region is called *nuchæ colli*; and the lateral regions *partes laterales colli*. The thorax is distinguished into the anterior region, in which are the *sternum* and *mammæ*, and at whose inferior part is a pit or hollow called *scrobiculus cordis*; a posterior region called *dorsum*; and lateral regions or *latera thoracis*. The abdomen is distinguished into an anterior region, properly the *abdomen*, a posterior region called the loins or *lumbi*, and lateral regions or flanks, called *latera abdominis*. The anterior region of the abdomen being very extensive, is subdivided into the *epigastric*, *hypochondriac*, *umbilical*, and *hypogastric*

regions, which are described under their respective names. Immediately below the abdomen is the *mons Veneris*, and at its sides the groins or *inguina*. The space betweeen the organs of generation and the *anus* or fundament, is called the *perinæum*. The superior extremity is distinguished into the shoulder, *summitas humeri*, under which is the armpit called *axilla* or *fovea axillaris*; the *brachium* or arm; the *antibrachium* or fore-arm, in which anteriorly is the bend of the arm, where the veins are generally opened, called *flexura antibrachii*; and posteriorly the elbow, called *angulus cubiti*, and the hand, in which are the *carpus* or wrist, the back or *dorsum manus*, and the palm or *vola*. The inferior extremity is divided into, 1. the region of the femur, in which are distinguished the *coxa* or *regio ischiadica*, and outer and superior part; 2. the leg, in which are the knee or *genu*, the bend or *cavum poplitis*, and the calf or *sura*; 3. the foot, in which are the outer and inner ankle, or *malleolus externus* and *internus*, the back or *dorsum*, and the sole or *planta*.

Bog bean. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

Bohea tea. See *Tea*.

Bois de coissi. See *Quassia*.

Bolar earths. See *Bole*.

Bole, (*Bolus, i*, m. βωλος, a mass). A friable earthy substance, uniting with water into a smooth paste, adhering to the tongue, and dissolving, as it were, in the mouth; of the argillaceous or clay kind, but more readily imbibing water than the clays strictly so called. Those used in medicine, are the Armenian and French boles. See *Bole armenian*, and *Bolus gallica*. Many other bolar earths have been recommended for medicinal uses, and were formerly ranked amongst the officinals; as red boles from Armenia, Lemnos, Strigonium, Portugal, Tuscany, and Livonia; yellow boles from Armenia, Tockay, Silesia, Bohemia, and Blois; white boles from Armenia, Lemnos, Nocera, Eretria, Lamos, Chio, Malta, Tuscany, and Goltberg. Several of these earths have been commonly made into little cakes or flat masses, and stamped with certain impressions; from which circumstance they received the name of *terræ sigillatæ*, or sealed earths.

Bole, armenian. *Bolus armenæ*. Bole-armenic. A pale, but bright red coloured earth, which is occasionally mixed with honey, and applied to children's mouths when afflicted with aphthæ. It forms, like all argillaceous earths, a good tooth powder, when mixed with some aromatic.

Bolētus ignĭarĭus. The systematic name for the *agaricus* of the pharmacopœias. See *Agaricus*.

Bolētus larĭcis. The systematic name for the officinal *agaricus albus*. See *Agaricus albus*.

Bolētus suavĕolens. The systematic name for the *fungus salicis* of the pharmacopœias. See *Fungus salicis*.

Bolus, (*Bolus, i*, m. βωλος, a bole or bolus). Any medicine, rolled round, that is larger than an ordinary sized pea, and yet not too large to be swallowed.

Bolus Armenĭæ. See *Bole armenian*.

Bolus gallĭcus. French bole. A pale red coloured bolar earth, variegated with irregular specks and veins of white and yellow. It is occasionally administered as an absorbent and antacid.

Bombax, (*Bombax, acis*, n.) *Gossypium*. The cotton tree. The seeds of the cotton tree, *Gossypium herbaceum*; *foliis quinquelobis subtus eglandulosis, caule herbaceo* of Linnæus, are directed for medicinal use in some foreign pharmacopœias; and are administered in coughs, on account of the mucilage they contain. The cotton,

the produce of this tree, is well known for domeſtic purpoſes.

Bombiates, (*Bombias, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the bombic acid with different baſes; thus *bombiat of alumin*, &c.

Bombic acid. *Acidum bombicum*. Acid of the ſilk-worm. Silk-worms contain, eſpecially when in the ſtate of chryſalis, an acid liquor in a reſervoir placed near the anus. It is obtained by expreſſing their juice in a cloth, and precipitating the mucilage by ſpirit of wine, and likewiſe by infuſing the chryſalides in that liquor. This acid is very penetrating, of a yellow amber colour, but its nature and combinations are not yet well known.

Bombus, (*Bombus, i.* m. βομβος). A reſounding noiſe, or ringing of the ears. Alſo, a ſonorous expulſion of flatus from the inteſtines.

Bone, (*Os, oſſis*, n.). Bones are hard, dry, and inſenſible parts of the body, of a whitiſh colour, and compoſed of a ſpongy, compact, or reticular ſubſtance. They vary much in their appearances, ſome being long and hollow, others flat and compact, &c. The greater number of bones have ſeveral proceſſes and cavities, which are diſtinguiſhed from their figure, ſituation, uſe, &c. Thus proceſſes extended from the end of a bone, if ſmooth and round, are called *heads*; and *condyles*, when flattened either above or laterally. That part which is beneath the head, and which exceeds the reſt of the bone in ſmallneſs and levity, is called the neck. Rough, unequal proceſſes, are called *tuberoſities* or tubercles; but the longer and more acute, *ſpinous* or *ſtyloid* proceſſes, from their reſemblance to a thorn. Thin broad proceſſes with ſharp extremities, are known by the name of *criſtæ*, or *ſharp edges*. Other proceſſes are diſtinguiſhed by their form, and called *alar* or *pterygoid*, *mamillary* or *maſtoid*, *dentiform* or *odontoid*, &c. Others, from their ſituation, are called *ſuperior*, *inferior*, *exterior*, and *interior*. Some have their name from their direction, as *oblique*, *ſtraight*, *tranſverſe*, &c.; and ſome from their uſe, as *trocanters*, *rotators*, &c. *Furrows*, *depreſſions*, and *cavities*, are deſtined either for the reception of contiguous bones, to form an articulation with them, when they are called *articular cavities*, which are ſometimes deeper, ſometimes ſhallower; or they receive hard parts, but do not conſtitute a joint with them. Cavities ſerve alſo for the tranſmiſſion and attachment of ſoft parts. Various names are given to them, according to the magnitude and figure of bones. If they be broad and large at the beginning, and not deep, but contracted at their ends, they are called *foveæ* or *pits*. Furrows are open canals, extending longitudinally in the ſurface of bones. A hollow, circular tube, for the moſt part of the ſame diameter from beginning to end, and more or leſs crooked, ſtraight, long or ſhort, is named a *canal*. *Foramina* are the apertures of canals, or they are formed of the excavated margins of two bones, placed againſt each other. If ſuch be the form of the margin of a bone, as if a portion were taken out of it, it is called a *notch*.——With reſpect to the formation of bone, there have been various opinions. Phyſiologiſts of the preſent day aſſert that it is from a ſpecific action of ſmall arteries, by which oſſific matter is ſeparated from the blood, and depoſited where it is required. The firſt thing obſervable in the embryo, where bone is to be formed, is a tranſparent *jelly*, which becomes gradually firmer, and is formed into *cartilage*. The cartilage gradually increaſes to a certain ſize, and when the proceſs of oſſification commences, vaniſhes as it advances. Cartilages, previous to the oſſific action,

are ſolid, and without any cavity; but when the oſſific action of the arteries is about to commence, the abſorbents become very active, and form a *ſmall cavity* in which the bony matter is depoſited; bone continues to be ſeparated, and the abſorbents model the maſs into its required ſhape. The proceſs of oſſification is extremely rapid in utero: it advances ſlowly after birth, and is not completed in the human body till about the twentieth year. Oſſification in the flat bones, as thoſe of the ſkull, always begins from *central points*, and the radiated fibres meet the radii of other oſſifying points, or the edges of the adjoining bone. In long bones, as thoſe of the arm and leg, the clavicle, metacarpal, and metatarſal bones, a *central ring* is formed in the body of the bone, the head and extremities being cartilage, in the centre of which oſſification afterwards begins. The central ring of the body ſhoots its bony fibres towards the head and extremities, which extend towards the body of the bone. The head and extremities at length come ſo cloſe to the body as to be merely ſeparated by a cartilage, which becomes gradually thinner until the twentieth year. Thick and round bones, as thoſe of the tarſus, carpus, ſternum, and patella, are, at firſt, all cartilage; oſſification begins in the *centre* of each. When the bones are deprived of their ſoft parts, and are hung together in their natural ſituation, by means of wire, the whole is termed an *artificial* ſkeleton; but when they are kept together by means of their ligaments, it is called a *natural* ſkeleton.——The uſes of the bones are various, and are to be found in the account of each bone; it is, therefore, only neceſſary to obſerve, in this place, that they give ſhape to the body, contain and defend the vital viſcera, and afford an attachment to all the muſcles.

A Table of the Bones.

			No.
Bones of the Head.	Bones of the *cranium* or *ſkull*	Frontal	1
		Parietal	2
		Occipital	1
		Temporal	2
		Ethmoid	1
		Sphænoid	1
	Bones of the *face.*	Superior max.	2
		Jugal	2
		Naſal	2
		Lachrymal	2
		Palatine	2
		Inferior ſpongy	2
		Vomer	1
		Inferior maxil.	1
	Dentes or *teeth*	Inciſores	8
		Cuſpidati	4
		Molares	20
	Bone of the *tongue.*	Hyoides os	1
	Bones of the *ear,* within the temporal bones.	Malleus	2
		Incus	2
		Stapes	2
		Orbiculare os	2
Bones of the Trunk.	The *ſpine.*	Vertebræ. Cervical	7
		Dorſal	12
		Lumbar	5
		Sacrum	1
		Coccygis os	1
	The *thorax.*	Sternum	1
		Ribs	24
	The *pelvis.*	Innominata oſſa	2
Bones of the Upper Extremities.	The *ſhoulder*	Clavicle	2
		Scapula	2
	The *arm.*	Humeri os	2
	The *fore-arm.*	Ulna	2
		Radius	2
	The *hand.*	*Carpus* or *wriſt.* Naviculare os	2
		Lunare os	2
		Cuneiforme os	2
		Orbiculare os	2
		Trapezium os	2
		Trapezoides os	2
		Magnum os	2
		Unciforme os	2
		Metacarpus	10
		Phalanges	28

Bones of the Low. Extrem.	The *thigh.*	Femur –	2
	The *leg.*	Patella –	2
		Tibia – –	2
		Fibula – –	2
	The *foot.* *Tarsus* or *instep.*	Calcaneus	2
		Astragalus	2
		Cuboides os	2
		Naviculare os	2
		Cuneiform. ossa	6
		Metatarsus – – –	10
		Phalanges – – –	28
Sesamoid bones of the thumb and great toe, occasionally found – – – – – –			8
		Total	248

Bonebinder. See *Osteocolla.*

Bonus henricus, (*Henricus:* so called because its virtues were detected by some one whose name was Henry). *Tota bona. Chenopodium.* English mercury. The plant to which this name is given in the pharmacopœias, is the *Chenopodium bonus henricus; foliis triangulari-sagittatis integerrimis, spicis compositis aphyllis axillaribus,* of Linnæus. It is a native of this country, and common in waste grounds from June to August. The young plant differs little from spinage when cultivated; and in many places the young shoots are eaten in spring like asparagus.

Boracic acid. *Acidum boracicum.* Sedative salt of Homberg. Acid of borax. Boracine acid. A concrete salt crystallized in small white scales, which may be obtained from borax, by adding concentrated sulphuric, the nitric, muriatic, and even vegetable acids, to a hot solution of borax, till the lixivium becomes somewhat acid: the solution is then to be cooled, when the acid will appear in the shape of bright scales. In combination with soda it forms borax.

Borage. See *Borago.*

Borāgo, (*Borago, ĭnis:* formerly written *Corago*; from *cor*, the heart, and *ago*, to affect; because it comforts the heart and spirits). Borage. The leaves and flowers of this plant, *Borago officinalis; foliis omnibus alternis, calycibus patentibus,* of Linnæus, are esteemed in some countries as refrigerant and cordial. Their principal use in this island is in that grateful summer beverage, known by the name of cool tankard.

Borāgo officĭnalis. The systematic name for the borage of the shops. See *Borago.*

Boras sodæ. Borate of soda. See *Borax.*

Borates, (*Boras, tis,* m.). Salts formed of an union of the boracic acid with different bases; thus *borat of soda,* &c.

Borax, (*Borax, acis. Borak,* Arab.). *Boras sodæ. Boras sodæ alcalescens. Tincal.* A neutral salt, formed by the combination of the acid improperly called the sedative salt, with the marine alkali. It is dug out of the earth, in the kingdom of Thibet, in the East Indies. It is also said to be formed or produced by certain artificial processes. There are several kinds of borax; but that used in medicine is called Dutch or purified borax: it has a very regular form; its crystals are six-sided prisms, two of the sides being commonly larger than the others; its crystallization, however, varies: the taste is styptic, and acts strongly on the fibres of the tongue. It is generally employed in solution, to detach mucus, &c. from the mouth in putrid fevers. It also possesses antacid and deobstruent virtues, and is given internally in cardialgia. The salts formed by the union of the acid of borax with different bases, are called borates.

Borborygmus, (*Borborigmus, i.* m. βορβορυγμος; from βορβορυζω, to make a noise). The rumbling noise

occaſioned by flatus in the inteſtines. It frequently precedes hyſterical affections.

BOTANY, (*Botanica*, βοτανικη; from βοτανη, an herb or graſs). That part of natural hiſtory which includes every thing reſpecting the natural hiſtory of vegetables.

BOTRYS, (*Botrys*, *tryos*, βοτρυς, a cluſter of grapes; ſo called becauſe its ſeeds hang down like a bunch of *grapes*). The oak of Jeruſalem.

BOTRYS MEXICĀNA. *Botrys ambroſioides mexicana*. Mexico tea. A decoction of this plant, *Chenopodium ambroſioides*; *foliis lanceolatis dentatis, racemis foliatis ſimplicibus*, of Linnæus, is recommended in the paralitic caſes. Formerly the infuſion was drunk inſtead of Chineſe tea.

BOTRYS VULGĀRIS. *Botrys. Ambroſia. Botrys ambroſioides*. Jeruſalem oak. This plant, *Chenopodium botrys*; *foliis oblongis ſinuatis, racemis nudis multifidis*, of Linnæus, was formerly adminiſtered in form of decoction in ſome diſeaſes of the cheſt; as humoral aſthma, coughs, and catarrhs. It is now fallen into diſuſe.

BOUGIE, (*Candelula*, æ, f.). *Cereolus chirurgorum*. A term applied by ſurgeons to a long, ſlender inſtrument, that is introduced through the urethra into the bladder. Bougies made of the elaſtic gum are preferable to thoſe made of wax. The cauſtic bougie differs from the ordinary one in having a thin roll of cauſtic in its middle, which deſtroys the ſtricture, or any part of the urethra it comes in contact with. Thoſe made of catgut are very ſeldom uſed, but are deſerving of the attention of the ſurgeon.

BOVISTA. *Crepitus lupi*. Puff ball. This is the *Lycoperdon boviſta*; *ſubrotundum, lacerato dehiſcens*, of Linnæus, which when dry contains a powder uſed by the common people to ſtop the blood in recent cuts, &c.

BRACHIŒUS, (*Brachiæus*, *i*, m. *ſc. muſculus*, βραχιων, the arm). See *Brachialis internus*.

BRACHIAL ARTERY. *Arteria brachialis*. The brachial artery is the continuation of the axillary artery, which, as it paſſes behind the tendon of the pectoralis major, receives the name of *brachial*. It runs down on the inſide of the arm, over the muſculus coraco-brachialis, and anconæus internus, and, along the inner edge of the biceps, behind the vena baſilica, giving out ſmall branches as it goes along. Below the bend of the arm it divides into the cubitalis and radialis. Sometimes, though rarely, the *brachial artery* is divided from its origin into two large branches, which run down on the arm, and afterwards on the fore-arm, where they are called *cubitalis* and *radialis*.

BRACHĬALIS, (*Brachialis*, *is*, m. *ſc. muſculus*). See *Brachĭalis internus*.

BRACHĬALIS EXTERNUS. See *Triceps extenſor cubiti*.

BRACHĬALIS INTERNUS. *Brachialis* of Winſlow. A muſcle of the fore-arm, ſituated on the fore-part of the os humeri. It ariſes fleſhy from the middle of the os humeri, at each ſide of the inſertion of the deltoid muſcle, covering all the inferior and fore-part of this bone, runs over the joint, and adheres firmly to the ligament. Is inſerted, by a ſtrong ſhort tendon, into the coronoid proceſs of the ulna. Its uſe is to bend the fore-arm, and to prevent the capſular ligament of the joint from being pinched.

BRACHIO-CUBITAL LIGAMENT. *Ligamentum brachio-cubitale*. The expanſion of the lateral ligament which is fixed in the inner condyle of the os humeri, runs over the capſula, to which it cloſely adheres, and is inſerted like radii on the ſide of the great ſigmoid cavity of the ulna: it is covered on the inſide by ſeveral tendons, which adhere cloſely to it, and ſeem to ſtrengthen it very conſiderably.

BRACHIO-RADIAL LIGAMENT. *Ligamentum brachio-radiale.* The expanſion of the lateral ligament, which runs over the external condyle of the os humeri, is inſerted round the coronary ligament, from thence all the way down to the neck of the radius, and alſo in the neighbouring parts of the ulna. Through all this paſſage it covers the capſular ligament, and is covered by ſeveral tendons adhering cloſely to both.

BRACHĬI OS. See *Humeri os.*

BRACHĬUM, (*Brachium, i,* n. βραχιον, the arm). The arm, from the ſhoulder to the elbow.

BRAIN. See *Cerebrum.*

BRAIN, LITTLE. See *Cerebellum.*

BRAN, (*Furfur, ŭris,* m.). The huſks or ſhells of wheat which remain in the boulting machine. It contains a portion of the farinaceous matter, and is ſaid to have a laxative quality. Decoctions of bran, ſweetened with ſugar, are uſed by the common people, and ſometimes with ſucceſs, againſt coughs, hoarſeneſſes, &c.

BRANCA, (*Branca, æ,* f. Span. a foot or branch). A term applied to ſome herbs which are ſuppoſed to reſemble a particular foot; as *branca leonis*, lion's foot; *branca urſinæ*, bear's foot.

BRANCA LEONINA. See *Elaphoboſcum.*

BRANCA URSĪNA. The plant which is directed by this name in foreign pharmacopœias, is the *Heracleum ſpondylium*; *foliolis pinnatifidis, lævibus*; *floribus uniformibus*, of Linnæus: care ſhould be taken to diſtinguiſh it from the acanthus.—See *Acanthus*, which is alſo called *brancha urſina.* In Siberia it grows extremely high, and appears to have virtues in the cure of dyſentery, which the plants of this country do not poſſeſs.

BRANCHÆ, (βραγχοι; from βρεχω, to make moiſt). *Brancha.* The glands of the fauces, which ſecrete the ſaliva.

BRANCHUS, (*Branchus, i.* m. βραγχος; from βρεχω, to moiſten). A defluxion of humours from the fauces.

BRANDY. *Spiritus Gallicus.* A colourleſs, ſlightly opake, and milky fluid, of a hot and penetrating taſte, and a ſtrong and agreeable ſmell, when firſt diſtilled from the wine. It conſiſts of water, ardent ſpirit, and a ſmall portion of oil, which renders it milky at firſt, and after a certain time colours it yellow. It is the fluid from which rectified or ardent ſpirit is obtained. The utility of brandy is very conſiderable, but from its pleaſant taſte and exhilerating property it is too often taken to exceſs. It gives energy to the animal functions; is a powerful tonic, cordial, and antiſpaſmodic; and its utility with camphire, in gangrenous affections, is very great.

BRANKS. The name in Scotland for the mumps. See *Cynanche parotidea.*

BRANKURSINE. See *Acanthus.*

BRASILĬENSE LIGNUM. Logwood. See *Hæmatoxylum.*

BRASILĬENSIS RADIX. The ipecacuanha root is ſometimes ſo called. See *Ipecacuanha.*

BRASS. *Æs.* A combination of copper with zinc.

BRASSĬCA CAPĬTĀTA. Cabbage. There are ſeveral varieties of cabbage, all of which are, generally, hard of digeſtion, producing flatulencies, and afford very little nouriſhment. Theſe inconveniences are not experienced by thoſe whoſe ſtomachs are ſtrong and accuſtomed to them. Few vegetables run into a ſtate of putrefaction ſo quickly as cabbages; they ought, therefore, always to be uſed immediately after cutting. In Holland and Germany there is a method of preſerving them, by cutting them into pieces, and ſprinkling ſalt and ſome

aromatic herbs among them: this mass is put into a tub, where it is pressed close, and left to ferment, when it is called *sour crout* or *saur kraut*. These and all pickles of cabbage are considered as wholesome and antiscorbutic, from the vinegar and spices they contain.

BRASSĬCA ERŪCA. The systematic name for the plant which affords the *semen erucæ*. See *Eruca*.

BRASSĬCA ERUCASTRUM. See *Eruca sylvestris*.

BRASSĬCA MARĪNA. Κραμβη θαλασσια. *Convolvulus maritimus. Soldanella.* Soldanella. This plant, *Convolvulus soldanella; foliis reniformibus, pedunculis unifloris*, of Linnæus, is a native of our coasts. The leaves are said to be a drastic purge. They are only used by the common people, the pharmacopœias having now substituted more safe and valuable remedies in their place.

BRASSĬCA NAPUS. The systematic name for the plant from which the *semen napi* is obtained. See *Napi*.

BRASSĬCA OLERACĔA. The systematic name for the *brassica capitata* of the shops. See *Brassica capitata*.

BRASSĬCA RAPA. The systematic name for the plant whose root is called turnip. See *Rapa*.

BREAD FRUIT TREE. This grows in all the Ladrone Islands in the South Sea, in Otaheite, and now in the West Indies. The bread fruit grows upon a tree the size of a middling oak. The fruit is about the size of a child's head, and the surface is reticulated, not much unlike the surface of a truffle. It is covered with a thin skin, and has a core about the size of a small knife. The eatable part is between the skin and the core: it is as white as snow, and somewhat of the consistence of new bread. It must be toasted before it is eaten, being first divided into three or four parts. Its taste is insipid, with a slight sweetness, nearly like that of wheaten bread and artichoke together. This fruit is the constant food of the inhabitants all the year, it being in season eight months.

BREAST, (*Mamma, æ*, f.). The two globular projections, composed of common integuments, adipose substance, and lacteal glands and vessels, and adhering to the anterior and lateral regions of the thorax of females. On the middle of each breast is a projecting portion, termed the *papilla* or *nipple*, in which the excretory ducts of the glands terminate, and around which is a coloured orb or disc, called the *areola*. The use of the breasts is to suckle new-born infants.

BREGMA, (*Bregma, atis*, m.). An old name of the parietal bones. See *Parietal bone*.

BREVĬA VASA. See *Vasa brevia*.

BRIAR, WILD. See *Cynosbatus*.

BRIMSTONE. See *Sulphur*.

BRIMSTONE FLOWERS. See *Flores sulphuris*.

BRISTOL HOT-WELL. A thermal spring water, as its name imports, of very moderate heat at about 74°. A Winchester gallon of this water contains only 47¾ grains of solid contents, of which rather less than half are neutral salts with the basis of soda, and the remainder are calcareous salts: it also holds in solution about 1-7th to 1-8th of its bulk of a gaz which is chiefly carbonic acid. Bristol Hot-well has obtained great celebrity in the cure of a number of diseases of very opposite natures: in several disorders of the alimentary canal, in the dyspeptic symptoms which so often impair the health of the European who has long resided in hot climates in bilious diarrhœa, and slight dysentery; also in the cure of diabetes or at least in affording it considerable relief. But the high reputation which this spring has acquired is above all in alleviating some of the most harassing symptoms of pulmonary con-

ſumption. The Sion ſpring at Cliſton near Briſtol reſembles the Hotwell, except that it is one or two degrees colder.

BRITANĬCA HERBA. See *Hydrolapathum*.

BROCCOLI. *Braſſica Italica.* As an article of diet, this may be conſidered as more delicious than cauliflower and cabbage. Sound ſtomachs digeſt broccoli without any inconvenience; but in dyſpeptic ſtomachs, even when combined with pepper, &c. it always produces flatulency and nauſeous eructations.

BROMATOLOGY, (*Bromatologia, æ*, f. from βρωμα, food, and λογος, a diſcourſe). A diſcourſe or treatiſe on food.

BROMELĬA ANĀNAS. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the *ananas*. See *Ananas*.

BROMELĬA KARATAS. The ſyſtematic name of the plant from which we obtain the fruit called penguin, which is given in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies to cool and quench thirſt in fevers, dyſenteries, &c. It grows in a cluſter, there being ſeveral of the ſize of ones finger together. Each portion is clothed with a huſk, containing a white pulpy ſubſtance, which is the eatable part; and if it be not perfectly ripe, its flavour reſembles that of the pine-apple. The juice of the ripe fruit is very auſtere, and is made uſe of to acidulate punch. The inhabitants of the Weſt Indies make wine of the penguin, which is very intoxicating, and has a good flavour.

BRONCHĬA, (βρογχια, ϛρυγγος, the throat). See *Trachea*.

BRONCHIAL ARTERY. *Arteria bronchialis.* A branch of the aorta, given off in the cheſt.

BRONCHIAL GLANDS. Large blackiſh glands, ſituated about the bronchia and trachea, which ſecrete a blackiſh mucus.

BRONCHOCĒLE, (*Bronchocele, es*, from βρογχος, the windpipe, and κηλη, a tumour). Derbyſhire neck A tumour in the fore-part of the neck, originating moſtly from a diſeaſed thyroid gland, which covers the anterior part of the trachea. This diſeaſe is endemial to the Alps and ſome parts of Derbyſhire.

BRONCHOTOMY, (*Bronchotomia, æ*, f. from βρογχος, the windpipe, and τεμνω, to cut). Tracheotomy. The operation performed on the trachea, when the opening through the mouth is obſtructed, to make a paſſage for the air into the lungs.

BROOKLIME SPEEDWELL. See *Beccabunga*.

BROOM, COMMON. The Engliſh name of the *Spartium ſcoparium* of Linnæus. See *Geniſta*.

BRUCĒA: (So named by Sir Joſeph Banks, in honor of Mr. Bruce, the traveller into Abyſſinia, who firſt brought the ſeeds thence into England).

BRUCĒA ANTIDYSENTĔRĬCA.—The ſyſtematic name of the plant from which it is ſuppoſed we obtain the anguſtura bark. See *Anguſturæ cortex*.

BRUCĒA FERRUGINĔA. This plant is alſo ſuppoſed to afford the anguſtura bark. See *Anguſturæ cortex*.

BRUISEWORT. See *Saponaria*.

BRUNELLA. See *Prunella*.

BRUNNER'S GLANDS. Peyer's glands. The muciparous glands, ſituated between the villous and cellular coat of the inteſtinal canal; ſo named after Brunner, who diſcovered them.

BRUSCUS. See *Ruſcus*.

BRUTUA. See *Pariera brava*.

BRYONĬA, (*Bryonia, æ*, f. from βρυω, to abound, from its abuudance). *Vitis alba.* White bryony. *Bryonia alba* of Linnæus. *Bryonia foliis palmatis utrinque calloſo-ſcabris.* Claſs. *Dioecia.* Order. *Syngeneſia.* A very common plant in woods and hedges. The root has a very nauſeous biting taſte, and diſagreeable ſmell; and is

employed in hydropical cases as a diuretic or drastic purge, which qualities depend upon the dose that is administered.

BRYONIA ALBA. The systematic name of the plant from which the *radix bryoniæ* is obtained. See *Bryonia*.

BRYONY, WHITE. The English name of the *Bryonia alba* of Linnæus. See *Bryonia*.

BUBO, (*Bubo, nis*, m. from βουβων, the groin; because they most frequently happen in that part). An inflammation of a conglobate gland in any part of the body. Cullen arranges this disease in the class *locales*, and order *tumores*.

BUBON GALBĂNUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the officinal galbanum. See *Galbanum*.

BUBON MACEDONĬCUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the *semen petroselini macedonici* of the shops. See *Petroselinum macedonicum*.

BUBONOCĒLE, (*Bubonocele, es*, f. from βουβων, the groin, and κηλη a tumour). An inguinal rupture. See *Intestinal, Omental*, and *Intestino-omental hernias*.

BUCCA, (*Bucca, æ*, f.). The cheek, or side of the face, or that part composed of common integuments and muscles which lies between the eye, temple, nose, and ear.

BUCCAL GLANDS, (*Glandulæ buccinales*; from *bucca*, the cheek). The small glands of the mouth, under the cheek, which assist in secreting saliva into that cavity.

BUCCĬNĀTOR, (*Buccinator, oris*, m. so named from its use in forcing the breath to sound the trumpet). A muscle of the mouth, that in part forms the cheek. Its use is to draw the angle of the mouth backwards, and outwards, and to contract its cavity, by pressing the cheek inwards, by which the food is thrust between the teeth.

BUCEPHALON, RED FRUITED. The plant so called is the *Trophis americana* of Linnæus. Its fruit is a kind of rough red berry, which is eaten by the inhabitants of Jamaica, although its flavour is by no means pleasant.

BUCK-BEAN. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

BUCK-THORN. See *Spina cervina*.

BUCK-WHEAT. The *Polygonum fagopyrum* of Linnæus. The grain of this plant constitutes the principal food of the inhabitants of Russia, Germany, and Switzerland.

BUCK-WHEAT, EASTERN. The *Polygonum divaricatum* of Linnæus. The roots, reduced into a coarse meal, are the ordinary food of the Siberians. The mountain rats in those parts also live upon them, and are provident enough in the winter to lay up a large store, which the Siberians plunder the poor animals of.

BUGLE. See *Prunella*.

BUGLOSS. See *Buglossum*.

BUGLOSSUM, (*Buglossum, i*, n. from βους, an ox, and γλωσσα, a tongue). *Buglossa*. Officinal bugloss, or alkanet. This plant, *Anchusa foliis lanceolatis strigosis, spicis secundis imbricatis, calycibus quinquepartitis. Hort. Kew.* Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Monogynia*; was formerly esteemed as a cordial in melancholic and hypochondriacal diseases. It is seldom used in modern practice, and then only as a apercent and refrigerant.

BUGULA. See *Consolida media*.

BULBOCAVERNŌSUS, (*Bulbocavernosus, sc. musculus*: so called from its origin and insertion). See *Accelerator urinæ*.

BULGE-WATER-TREE. The English name of the plant from which we obtain the *cortex Geoffroyæ Jamaicensis*. See *Cortex Geoffroyæ Jamaicensis*.

BULIMĬA, (*Bulimia, æ*, f. βουλιμια from βε, a particle of excess, and λιμος, hunger). Canine appetite, or hunger. This affection is most

ſymptomatic, and ariſes from worms, rachitis, or from acids.

BULLACE. The fruit ſo called is he produce of the *Prunus inſitia* of Linnæus, which grows wild in our hedges. There are two varieties of bullace, the red and the white, which are uſed with the ſame intentions as the common damſons.

BULLÆ, (*Bulla*, æ, f.). Puſtules or ſmall veſicles on any part of the body, the ſize of a nutmeg.

BUNIAS. The name in the Parisian Pharmacopœia for the wild nape. See *Napus*.

BUNIUM BULBOCASTĂNUM — The ſyſtematic name of the plant whoſe root is called the *pig-nut*. See *Pig-nut*.

BUPLEURUM ROTUNDĬFOLĬUM. The ſyſtematic name of the plant called *perfoliata* in the pharmacopœias. See *Perfoliata*.

BURDOCK. See *Bardana*.

BURGUNDY PITCH. *Pix burgundĭca*. The juice of the *Pinus abies* of Linnæus (*Pinus foliis ſolitariis ſubtetragonis acutiuſculis diſtichis, ramis infra nudis, conis cylindraceis. Hort. Kew.* Claſs. *Monoecia*. Order. *Moadelphia*), boiled in water, and ſtrained through a linen cloth. It is cheifly imported from Saxony, is of a ſolid conſiſtence, yet ſomewhat ſoft, of a reddiſh brown colour, and not diſagreeable ſmell. It is uſed externally as a ſtimulant in form of plaſter.

BURNET SAXIFRAGE. See *Pimpinella*.

BURNT HARTSHORN. See *Cornu cervi uſtum*.

BURNT SPONGE. See *Spongia uſta*.

BURSALOGY, (*Burſalogia*, æ, f. βυρσαλογια; from βυρσα, a bag, and λογος, a diſcourſe). The doctrine of the burſæ mucoſæ.

BURSÆ MUCŌSÆ. Mucous bags, compoſed of proper membranes, containing a kind of mucous fat, formed by the exhaling arteries of the internal coat. They are of different ſizes and firmneſs, and are connected by the cellular membrane with articular cavities, tendons, ligaments, or the perioſteum. The uſe of the burſæ mucoſæ is to ſecrete, and contain a ſubſtance to lubricate tendons, muſcles, and bones, in order to render their motion eaſy.

A Table of all the Burſæ Mucoſæ.

In the head.

1. *A burſa of the ſuperior oblique muſcle* of the eye, ſituated behind its trochlea in the orbit.

2. *The burſa of the digaſtricus*, ſituated in the internal ſurface of its tendon.

3. *A burſa of the circumflexus*, or tenſor palati, ſituated between the hook-like proceſs of the ſphænoid bone and the tendon of that muſcle.

4. *A burſa of the ſterno-hyoideus muſcle*, ſituated between the os hyoides and larynx.

About the ſhoulder joint.

1. *The external acromial*, ſituated under the acromion, between the coracoid proceſs, deltoid muſcle, and capſular ligament.

2. *The internal acromial*, ſituated above the tendon of the infra-ſpinatus and teres major; it often communicates with the former.

3. *The coracoid burſa*, ſituated near the root of the coracoid proceſs: it is ſometimes double, and ſometimes triple.

4. *The clavicular burſa*, found where the clavicle touches the coracoid proceſs.

5. *The ſubclavian burſa*, between the tendon of the ſubclavicularis muſcle and the firſt rib.

6. *The coraco-brachial*, placed between the common origin of this muſcle and the biceps and the capſular ligament.

7. *The burſa of the pectoralis major*,

ſituated under the head of the humerus, between the internal ſurface of the tendon of that muſcle and another burſa placed on the long head of the biceps.

8. *An external burſa of the teres major*, under the head of the os humeri, between it and the tendon of the teres major.

9. *An internal burſa of the teres major*, found within the muſcle where the fibres of its tendon diverge.

10. *A burſa of the latiſſimus dorſi*, between the tendon of this muſcle and the os humeri.

11. *The humero-bicipital burſa*, in the vagina of the tendon of the biceps.

There are other burſæ mucoſæ about the humerus, but their ſituation is uncertain.

Near the elbow joint.

1. *The radio-bicipital*, ſituated between the tendon of the biceps, brachialis, and anterior tubercle of the radius.

2. *The cubito-radial*, between the tendon of the biceps, ſupinator brevis, and the ligament common to the radius and ulna.

3. *The anconeal burſa*, between the olecranon and tendon of the anconeus muſcle.

4. *The capitulo-radial burſa*, between the tendon common to the extenſor carpi radialis brevis, and extenſor communis digitorum and round head of the radius. There are occaſionally other burſæ, but as their ſituation varies, they are omitted.

About the inferior part of the fore-arm and hand.

On the inſide of the wriſt and hand.

1. A very *large burſa*, for the tendon of the flexor pollicis longus.

2. *Four ſhort burſæ* on the fore-part of the tendons of the flexor ſublimis.

3. *A large burſa* behind the tendon of the flexor pollicis longus, between it and the fore-part of the radius, capſular ligament of the wriſt, and os trapezium.

4. *A large burſa* behind the tendons of the flexor digitorum profundus and on the fore-part of the end of the radius, and fore-part of the capſular ligament of the wriſt. In ſome ſubjects it communicates with the former.

5. *An oblong burſa*, between the tendon of the flexor carpi radialis and os trapezium.

6. *A very ſmall burſa* between the tendon of the flexor carpi ulnaris and os piſiforme.

On the back part of the wriſt and Hand.

7. *A burſa* between the tendon of the abductor pollicis longus and the radius.

8. *A large burſa* between the two extenſores carpi radiales.

9. *Another* below it, common to the extenſores carpi radiales.

10. *A burſa*, at the inſertion of the tendon of the extenſor carpi radialis.

11. *An oblong burſa*, for the tendon of the extenſor pollicis longus, and which communicates with 9.

12. *A burſa*, for the tendon of the extenſor pollicis longus, between it and the metacarpal bone of the thumb.

13. *A burſa* between the tendons of the extenſor of the fore, middle, and ring fingers.

14. *A burſa* for the extenſors of the little finger.

15. *A burſa* between the tendon of the extenſor carpi ulnaris and ligament of the wriſt.

There are alſo burſæ mucoſæ between the muſculi lumbricales and interoſſei.

Near the hip joint.

On the fore-part of the joint.

1. The *ileo-puberal*, ſituated between the iliacus internus, pſoas magnus,

and the capsular ligament of the head of the femur.

2. *The pectineal*, between the tendon of the pectineus and the thigh-bone.

3. *A small bursa* of the gluteus medius muscle, situated between it and the great trochanter, before the insertion of the pyriformis.

4. *A bursa* of the gluteus minimus muscle between its tendon and the great trochanter.

5. *The gluteo-fascial*, between the gluteus maximus and vastus externus.

On the posterior part of the hip joint.

6. *The tubero-ischiatic bursa*, situated between the obturator internus muscle, the posterior spine of the ischium, and its tuberosity.

7. *The obturatory bursa*, which is oblong, and found between the obturator internus and gemini muscles and the capsular ligament.

8. *A bursa of the semi membranosus*, under its origin and the long head of the biceps femoris.

9. *The gluteo-trochanteral bursa*, situated between the tendon of the psoas muscle and the root of the great trochanter.

10. *Two gluteo-femoral bursæ*, situated between the tendon of the gluteus maximus and os femoris.

11. *A bursa of the quadratus femoris*, situated between it and the little trochanter.

12. *The iliac bursa*, situated between the tendon of the iliacus internus and the little trochanter.

Near the knee joint.

1. *The supra-genual*, which adheres to the tendons of the vastus and cruralis and the fore-part of the thigh bone.

2. *The infra-genual bursa*, situated under the ligament of the patella, and often communicates with the above.

3. *The anterior genual*, placed between the tendon of the sartorius gracilis and semitendinosus and internal and lateral ligament of the knee.

4. *The posterior genual*, which is sometimes double, and is situated between the tendons of the semi-membranosus, the internal head of the gastrocnemius, the capsular ligament, and internal condyle.

5. *The popliteal*, conspicuous between the tendon of that muscle, the external condyle of the femur, the semilunar cartilage, and external condyle of the tibia.

6. *The bursa of the biceps cruris*, between the external part of the tendon, the biceps cruris, and the external lateral ligament of the knee.

In the foot.

On the back, side, and hind-part of the foot.

1. *A bursa of the tibialis anticus*, between its tendon, the lower part of the tibia, and capsular ligament of the ankle.

2. *A bursa* between the tendon of the extensor pollicis pedis longus, the tibia and capsular ligament of the ankle.

3. *A bursa of the extensor digitorum communis*, between its tendons, the tibia, and ligament of the ankle.

4. *A large bursa*, common to the tendons of the peronei muscles.

5. *A bursa of the peroneus brevis*, proper to its tendon.

6. *The calcaneal bursa*, between the tendo Achillis and os calcis.

In the sole of the foot.

1. *A bursa for the tendon of the peroneus longus.*

2. *A bursa* common to the tendon of the flexor pollicis pedis longus, and the tendon of the flexor digitorum pedis communis longus profundus.

3. *A bursa of the tibialis posticus*, between its tendon, the tibia, and astragalus.

4. *Five burſæ for the flexor tendons*, which begin a little above the firſt joint of each toe, and extend to the root of the third phalanx or inſertion of the tendons.

BUTCHERSBROOM. See *Ruſcus*.

BUTOMON. See *Iris paluſtris*.

BUTTER, (*Butyrum, i*, n. βουτυρον; from βους, a cow, and τυρος, coagulum or cream). A concrete and ſoft ſubſtance, of a yellow colour, approaching more or leſs to that of gold, and of a mild agreeable taſte. It melts by a gentle heat, and becomes ſolid by cooling. Freſh butter is mild, temperate, and relaxing, but it readily becomes ſour, and, in general, agrees with few ſtomachs. Rancid butter is one of the moſt unwholeſome and indigeſtible of all foods.

BUTTERBUR. See *Petaſites*.

BUTTERFLOWER. See *Ranunculus*.

BUTTER-MILK. The milk-like fluid remaining after making of butter. It is recommended in coughs by the common people.

BUTTERWORT. See *Pinguicula*.

BUTUA. See *Pariera brava*.

BUTYRUM ANTIMONII. See *Antimonium muriatum*.

BUXUS, (*Buxus, i*, f. πυξος; from πυκαζω, to become hard). The leaves of the box-tree, *Buxus ſempervirens* of Linnæus, poſſeſs a very ſtrong nauſeous, bitter taſte, and aperient virtues. They are occaſionally exhibited in form of decoction amongſt the lower orders of people, in caſes of dropſy and aſthma.

BUXUS SEMPERVIRENS. The ſyſtematic name of the *buxus* of the pharmacopœias. See *Buxus*.

C.

CAACO. The name of a ſpecies of ſenſitive plant, whoſe root is uſed by the natives of America as an antidote to ſeveral poiſons.

CAAETIMARY. *Senecio braſilienſis*. A decoction of the plant thus called, is uſed as a waſh to cure the itch.

CAA-OPIA. The name of a tree in the Braſils, whoſe bark emits a juice, when wounded, which in a dried ſtate reſembles gamboge, except that it is rather of a darker red colour.

CAAROBA. The name of a tree which grows in the Brazils. A decoction of its leaves promotes perſpiration, and is given in the cure of the venereal diſeaſe.

CABBAGE. See *Braſſica*.

CABBAGE BARK TREE. See *Cortex Geoffroyæ Jamaicenſis*.

CACHEXĬA, (*Cachexia, æ*, f. from κακος, bad, and εξις, a habit). A bad habit of body, without pyrexia, and independent of any other diſeaſe. It conſtitutes the third claſs in Cullen's nauſology, and has three orders, viz. *marcores, intumeſcentiæ*, and *impetigines*.

CACHŎCHYMĬA, (*Cachochymia, æ*, f. from κακος, bad, and χυμος, humour). A depraved ſtate of the humours.

CACHRYS ODONTALGICA. The root of this plant may be ſubſtituted for that of the *pyrethrum*.

CACOA NUT. Chocolate nut. An oblong, roundiſh nut, nearly of the ſhape of an almond, but larger; the ſhell dark coloured, brittle and thin; the kernel, both externally and internally, browniſh. It is the produce of a ſmall tree, the *Theobroma cacoa*; *foliis integerrimis*, of Linnæus, bearing a large red fruit, ſhaped like a

cucumber, which contains thirty or more of the nuts. Cacoa is variouſly prepared in the ſhops; has a light, agreeable ſmell, and an unctuous, roughiſh, but pleaſant taſte. Chocolate, by far the beſt of all its preparations, affords a nutritious, and gently aperient dietetic fluid in conſumptive diſeaſes, emaciations, and various affections of the primæ viæ.

CACTUS OPUNTĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the plant bearing the epithet *opuntia* in the pharmacopœias. See *Opuntia*.

CADMIA. See *Tutia*.

CADŪCA, (*Caduca, ſc. membrana*; from *cado*, to fall down). See *Decidua*.

CADŪCUS MORBUS. See *Epilepſia*.

CÆCĬTAS, (*Cæcitas, ātis*, f. from *cæcus*, blind). Blindneſs, deprivation or want of ſight, which may ariſe from ſeveral cauſes. See *Caligo*.

CÆCUM, (*Cæcum, i*, n. from *cæcus*, blind). The firſt portion of the large inteſtines, placed in the right iliac region, about four fingers' breadth in length. It is in this inteſtine that the ileum terminates by a valve, called the valve of the cæcum. The *appendicula cæci vermiformis* is alſo attached to it. See *Inteſtines*.

CÆNESTHESIS, (*Cæneſtheſis, is*, f.). Self-feeling.

CÆSARIAN SECTION. Cæſarian operation. (So called becauſe Julius Cæſar is ſaid to have been extracted in this manner). The operation for extracting the fœtus from the uterus, by dividing the integuments of the abdomen and the uterus.

CAJEPUT OIL. *Oleum cajeputæ. Oleum Wittnebianum. Oleum cajeput.* The tree which affords this oil, by diſtillation of its leaves, is the *Melaleuca leucadendron* of Linnæus, of which there are two varieties, the *latifolia* and *anguſtifolia*, both natives of the woods of India. Thunberg ſays cajeput oil has the appearance of inflammable ſpirit, is of a green colour, and ſo completely volatile that it evaporates entirely, leaving no reſidium; its odour is of the camphoraceous kind, with a terebinthinate admixture. Goetz ſays it is limpid, or rather yelloviſh. It is a very powerful medicine, and in high eſteem in India and Germany in the character of a general remedy in chronic and painful diſeaſes: it is uſed for the ſame purpoſes for which we employ the officinal æthers, to which it ſeems to have a conſiderable affinity; the cajeput, however, is more potent and pungent; taken into the ſtomach, in the doſe of five or ſix drops, it heats and ſtimulates the whole ſyſtem, proving at the ſame time a very certain diaphoretic, by which probably the good effects it is ſaid to have in dropſies and intermittent fevers are to be explained. For its efficacy in various convulſive and ſpaſmodic complaints, it is highly eſteemed. It has alſo been uſed both internally and externally, with much advantage, in ſeveral other obſtinate diſorders; as palſies, hypochondriacal and hyſterical affections, deafneſs, defective viſion, tooth-ach, gout, rheumatiſm, &c. The doſe is from two to ſix, and even twelve drops.

CALAGUALÆ RADIX. *Calaguclæ radix.* The root ſo called is knotty, and ſomewhat like that of the polypody tribe. It has been exhibited internally at Rome, with ſucceſs, in dropſy; and it is ſaid to be efficacious in pleuriſy, contuſions, abſceſſes, &c. It was firſt uſed in America, where it is obtained; and Italian phyſicians have ſince written concerning it.

CALAMINE STONE, (*Calamia*, Arab. or from *calamus*, a reed, from its reed-like appearance). *Lapis calaminaris. Oxydum zinci impurum.* A calx of zinc. A very hard, gray, yellow, or reddiſh ſemimetal, found in quarries of conſiderable extent in the dutchy of Limbourg, the counties of Namur, and of Nottingham

and Somerſet. It is employed by ſurgeons in powder, and in the *ceratum lapidis calaminaris*, as a mild application to ſores.

CALAMINT, COMMON. See *Calamintha*.

CALAMINT, MOUNTAIN. See *Calamintha magno flore*.

CALAMINTHA, (*Calamintha, æ*, f. καλαμίνθη; from καλὸς, beautiful, or κάλαμος, a reed, and μίνθη, mint). Common calamint. *Meliſſa calamintha*; *pedunculis axillaribus, dichotomis, longitudine foliorum*, of Linnæus. This plant ſmells ſtrongly, like wild mint, though more agreeable; and is often uſed by the common people, in form of tea, againſt weakneſs of the ſtomach, flatulent cholic, uterine obſtructions, hyſteria, &c.

CALAMINTHA MAGNO FLORE. *Calamintha montana*. Mountain calamint. This plant, *Meliſſa grandiflora* of Linnæus, has a moderately pungent taſte, and a more agreeable aromatic ſmell than the common calamint, and appears to be more eligible as a ſtomachic.

CĂLĂMUS AROMATĬCUS, (*Calamus, i*, m. from *kalam*, Arab.). *Acorus verus*. *Calamus vulgaris*. Sweet flag, or acorus. *Acorus calamus ſcapi mucrone longiſſimo foliaceo* of Linnæus. Claſs. *Hexandria*. Order. *Monogynia*. The root of this plant has been long employed medicinally. It has a moderately ſtrong aromatic ſmell, and a warm, pungent, bitteriſh taſte; and is deemed uſeful as a warm ſtomachic. Powdered, and mixed with ſome abſorbent, it forms a uſeful and pleaſant dentifrice.

CĂLĂMUS ROTANG. The ſyſtematic name of the plant from which we obtain the dragon's blood. See *Sanguis draconis*.

CĂLĂMUS SCRIPTORĬUS. A kind of canal at the bottom of the fourth ventricle of the brain, ſo called from its reſemblance to a writing pen.

CĂLĂMUS VULGĀRIS. See *Calamus aromaticus*.

CALCĀNĔUM. *Os calcis*. The largeſt bone of the tarſus, which forms the heel. It is ſituated poſteriorly under the aſtragalus, is very regular, and divided into a body and proceſſes.

CALCAREOUS EARTH. Calx or lime. See *Lime*.

CALCATRIPPA. See *Conſolida regalis*.

CALCES, METALLIC. Metals, which have undergone the proceſs of calcination or combuſtion, or any other equivalent operation.

CALCIŃATION, (*Calcinatio, onis*, f. from *calx*, lime). *Oxydation*. A term given by chemiſts to that proceſs by which minerals, when expoſed to a certain degree of heat, are deprived of their water; ſtones converted into lime; and metals into calces or oxyds. A metal never becomes calcined or oxydated, but when in contact with air; the more extenſive this contact, the larger is the quantity of metal which becomes calcined or oxydated; and it is proved, that a given quantity of air can only ſerve for the oxydation of a given quantity of metal. The metal thus calcined is termed a metallic calx or oxyd.

CALCITRAPA. The plant thus called in the pharmacopœias, is the *Centaurea calcitrapa*; *calycibus ſubduplicato-ſpinoſis, ſeſſilibus*; *foliis pinnatifidis, linearibus dentatis*; *caula piloſo*, of Linnæus, every part of which is bitter. The juice or extract or infuſion are ſaid to cure intermittents, and the bark of the root and the ſeeds have been recommended in nephritic diſorders, and in ſuppreſſion of urine.

CALCŬLUS, (*Calculus, i*, m. dim. of *calx*, a lime ſtone). *Calculus humanus*. *Bezoar microcoſmicum*. A peculiar concrete, found in the human bladder, and formed of *auric* or uric

acid, phosphate of lime, ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate, and oxylate of lime.

Calefacients, (*Calefacientia*; from *calidus*, warm, and *facio*, to make). Medicines, or other substances, which excite a degree of warmth in the parts to which they are applied; as *piper*, *spiritus vini*, &c.

Calendula, (*Calendula*, *æ*, f. *quod singulis calendis*, i. e. *mensibus floreſcat*; so called because it flowers every month). *Caltha vulgaris*. Single marigold. The flowers and leaves of this plant, *Calendula officinalis*: *seminibus cymbiformibus*, *muricatis*, *incurvatis*, *omnibus*, of Linnæus, have been exhibited medicinally: the former, as aperients in uterine obstructions and icteric disorders, and as diaphoretics in exanthematous fevers; the latter, as gentle aperients, and to promote the secretions in general.

Calendŭla officinālis. The systematic name of the single marigold plant. See *Calendula*.

Calenture. A disease peculiar to sailors, wherein they imagine the sea to be green fields, and will throw themselves into it if not restrained.

Calīgo, (*Caligo*, *ĭnis*, f.). *Cataracta*. The cataract. A disease of the eye, known by diminished or destroyed sight; and by the interposition of a dark body between the object and the retina. It is arranged by Cullen in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ*. The species of cataract are distinguished according to the situation of the interposed body: thus *caligo lentis*, *caligo corneæ*, *caligo pupillæ*, *caligo humorum*, and *caligo palpebrarum*.

Calix of the kidneys, (*Calix*, *icis*, m. from καλυπτω, to cover). The term calix is given to the membrane which covers the papillæ in the pelvis of the human kidney.

Callosity, (*Callocitas*, *atis*, f. from *callus*, hardness). Hardness. Induration. A term employed in surgery to express a hardness of the skin after the healing of ulcers.

Callous. A surgical term, signifying hardened or indurated; thus the callous edges of ulcers.

Callousness. Hardness. Induration.

Callus, (*Callus*, *i*, m. and *Callum*, *i*, n.). The bony matter deposited between the divided ends of broken bones about the fourteenth day after the fracture.

Calomba. See *Columba*.

Calomēlas, (*Calomelas*, *ănos*, m. καλομελας; from καλος, good, and μελας, black; from its virtues and colour. That which is now called Æthiop's mineral, or *hydrargyrus cum sulphure*, was formerly and properly so named. But calomel now means a white preparation of sublimed mercury). *Calomel*. This preparation is a muriate of mercury, and distinguished by its being sublimed from the other muriate of mercury, which is precipitated. The murias hydrargyri sublimatus, or calomel, possesses cathartic, alterative, deobstruent, and diuretic qualities. Internally it is exhibited in cases of syphilis, icterus, diseases of the skin, hepatic obstructions, dysentery, arthrodynia, and obstinate agues. Joined with jalap, or some other purgative medicine, it is given in dropsical diseases, worms, and physconia abdominalis. Externally it is sprinkled on venereal ulcers and opacities of the cornea. It is said to be of service, used as snuff, in in some cases of amaurosis.

Caloric, (*Caloricum*, *i*, n. from *calor*, heat). Heat. The matter or principle of heat. Modern chemists have, in order to explain the phenomena of heat, considered it as an impenetrable, highly elastic, peculiar fluid, so very subtle that its gravity has not yet been ascertained. Philosophers formerly differed in opinion respecting the causes of those

phenomena known by the name of heat, combuſtion, and cold, and there were many who conſidered them merely as the effect of the mechanical changes of bodies. At preſent, however, it is almoſt unanimouſly agreed, that theſe effects are produced by a peculiar matter, which is termed *caloric*. It is diffuſed through all natural bodies, with which it is more or leſs combined, according as their affinities for it are great or leſs: we are not acquainted with any body that does not enter into combination with it; nor any, from which the utmoſt endeavours could entirely ſeparate it; caloric, therefore, is not to be had in a pure ſtate of nature; nor can chemiſtry, in the ſtricteſt ſenſe, exhibit any ſubſtance perfectly ſimple: hence, chemiſts, when mentioning the conſtituent parts of bodies, pay no regard to the preſence of caloric, but conſider it as underſtood of courſe. When any body is in equilibrio with the bodies which ſurround it, with reſpect to its caloric, that quantity which it contains is not perceptible by any external ſign or organ of ſenſe, this is termed *combined caloric*, or *latent heat:* but if the latent heat, from any cauſe, be forced, in ſome degree, to quit a body, and to combine with thoſe that ſurround it, then ſuch caloric is ſaid to be *free* or *ſenſible*, until the equilibrium is reſtored. Chemiſts diſtinguiſh four primary degrees of heat: 1. The heat of boiling water. 2. A ſand heat. 3. A naked fire. 4. A ſolar heat.

CALORIMETER. An inſtrument by which the whole quantity of abſolute heat exiſting in a body in chemical union can be aſcertained. That of M. La Place is prefered.

CALTHA PALUSTRIS. The marſh marigold. The young buds of this plant make, when properly pickled, very good ſubſtitutes for capers.

CALTHA VULGĀRIS. See *Calendula.*

CALUMBA. See *Columba.*

CALVARIA, (*Calvaria, æ*, f. from *calvus*, bald; becauſe that part of the head firſt becomes bald). The ſuperior portion of the cranium, uſually ſawed off, to expoſe the brain.

CALX, (*Calx, cis*, f.). An oxyd. A term in chemiſtry for any thing that is rendered reducible to powder, by burning in contact with air. The term calx is alſo applied to lime.

CALX. See *Lime*, and *Calx viva.*

CALX ANTIMONĬI. See *Antimonium calcinatum.*

CALX CUM CALI PURO. *Lapis ſepticus. Lapis cauſticus. Cauterium potentiale. Cauſticum ſalinum. Cauſticum commune fortius.* The preparation thus called in the pharmacopœias, is termed *potaſſa fuſa* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is highly corroſive and cauſtic, deſtroying the vitality of fleſh with great activity. It is employed by ſurgeons as a cauſtic in a vaſt variety of diſeaſes.

CALX HYDRARGŸRI ALBA. *Mercurius præcipitatus albus. Mercurius coſmeticus.* White præcipitate. This mercurial preparation is an ammoniacal muriate of quickſilver, and therefore termed *murias hydrargyri ammoniacalis* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is moſtly employed in the form of ointment, to deſtroy vermin in children's heads, and againſt diſeaſes of the ſkin. See *Unguentum calcis hydrargyri albæ.*

CALX VIVA. *Calx uſta. Lapis ſeu terra calcarea uſta. Calx pura.* Quick-lime. This is called *calx* in the new chemical nomenclature, the crude or aerated or unſlaked being a *carbonate.* Quick-lime poſſeſſes corroding, depilatory, and antacid virtues, and acrid and cauſtic qualities. Externally, joined with potaſh, it is applied as a powerful cauſtic.—See *Calx cum kali puro.* The only preparation of it exhibited internally, is the *aqua calcis*, which is adminiſtered in cardialgia; ſpaſms, diarrhœa, and

infantile convulſions, from acidity in the primæ viæ; rickets, ſome diſeaſes of the ſkin, ſtone in the kidney or urinary bladder: joined with cold drawn linſeed oil, it is a good application to burns, and it is often employed by ſurgeons as an injection or waſh for certain ſpecies of ulcers.

CAMBOGĬA GUTTA. See *Gambogia.*

CAMBRIAN EARTH. *Terra cambria. Terra ſydneia auſtralis.* Auſtral earth. A peculiar earth diſcovered by Mr. Wedgewood.

CAMELS HAY. See *Juncus odoratus.*

CAMOMILE, See *Chamæmelum.*

CAMOMILE, STINKING. See *Cotula fœtida.*

CAMPEACHY WOOD. See *Lignum campechenſe.*

CAMPECHENSE LIGNUM. See *Lignum campechenſe.*

CAMPHIRE. See *Camphora.*

CAMPHOR. See *Camphora.*

CAMPHŌRA, (*Camphora, æ*, f. *Camphura.* Arab. The ancients by camphor meant what now is called aſphaltum, or Jew's pitch; καφορα). *Camphura.* Camphor or camphire. The tree from which this ſubſtance is obtained is the *Laurus camphora*; *foliis triplinerviis lanceolato-ovatis*, of Linnæus, Claſs. *Enneandria.* Order. *Monogynia*, indigenous to Japan, where it grows abundantly. The camphor is found to lodge every where in the interſtices of the fibres of the wood, pith, and knots of the tree. The crude camphor, exported from Japan, appears in ſmall grayiſh pieces, and is intermixed with various extraneous matters; in this ſtate ſtate it is received by the Dutch, and purified by a ſecond ſublimation; it is then formed into loaves, in which ſtate it is ſent to England. Pure camphor is white, pellucid, ſomewhat unctuous to the touch; of a bitteriſh, aromatic, acid taſte, yet accompanied with a ſenſe of coolneſs; of a fragrant ſmell, and approaching to that of roſemary, but much ſtronger. It is totally volatile and inflammable, ſoluble in vinous ſpirits, oils, and the mineral acids; not in water, fixed nor volatile alkaline liquors, nor in acids of the vegetable kingdom. The uſe of this important medicine, in different diſeaſes, is very conſiderable. It has been much employed, with great advantage, in fevers of all kinds, particularly in nervous fevers attended with delirium and much watchfulneſs. The experienced Werlhoff has witneſſed its utility in ſeveral inflammatory diſeaſes, and ſpeaks highly in favour of its refrigerant qualities. The benefit derived from it in putrid fevers, where bark and acids are contra-indicated, is remarkable. In ſpaſmodic and convulſive affections it is alſo of much ſervice, and even in epilepſy. In chronic diſeaſes this medicine is likewiſe employed; and againſt rheumatiſm, arthritis, and mania, we have ſeveral accounts of its efficacy. Nor is it leſs efficacious when applied externally in certain diſeaſes: it diſſipates inflammatory tumours in a ſhort time; and its antiſeptic quality, in reſiſting and during gangrene, is very conſiderable. There are ſeveral other properties peculiar to this medicine, which, it is lamented, muſt be paſſed over: one, however, muſt not be omitted, viz. the power it poſſeſſes of obviating the ſtrangury that is produced by cantharides, when ſprinkled over a bliſter. The preparations of camphor are, *ſpiritus camphoratus*, *oleum camphoratum*, *linimentum camphoræ*, *tinctura opii camphorata*, and the *miſtura camphorata.*

CAMPHORATA. This plant, *Camphoroſma monſpelienſis*; *foliis hirſutis linearibus*, of Linnæus, took its name from its ſmell reſembling ſo ſtrongly that of camphire: it has been exhibited internally, in form of decoction, in dropſical and aſthmatic complaints,

but is totally forgotten in the preſent day.

CAMPHORATES, (*Camphŏras, ātis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the camphoric acid with different baſes: thus *camphorat of allumin*, *camphorat of ammoniac*, &c.

CAMPHORIC ACID. *Acĭdum camphorĭcum.* If nitric acid be diſtilled ſeveral times (ſix or eight) from camphor, a cryſtallized ſalt is obtained, called the acid of camphor, which reddens ſyrup of violets and the tincture of turnſole. Its taſte is bitter, and it differs from oxalic acid, in not precipitating lime from the muriatic acid. The union of this acid with different baſes forms what is called *camphorates*, none of which have yet been uſed medicinally.

CAMPHOROSMA MONSPELĬENSIS. The ſyſtematic name of the plant called camphorata in the pharmacopœias. See *Camphorata*.

CANADA BALSAM. See *Balſamum canadenſe.*

CANĀLIS ARTĒRĬOSUS. *Canalis Botalii.* A blood-veſſel peculiar to the fœtus, diſappearing after birth; through which the blood paſſes from the pulmonary artery into the aorta.

CANĀLES SĒMĬCIRCŬLĀRES.—Three ſemicircular canals placed in the poſterior part of the labyrinth of the ear. They open by five orifices into the veſtibulum. See *Ear*.

CANALIS NASALIS. A canal going from the internal canthus of the eye downwards into the noſe: it is ſituated in the ſuperior maxillary bone, and is lined with the pituitary membrane continued from the noſe.

CANĀLIS PETITĬANUS. A triangular cavity, naturally containing a moiſture, between the two laminæ of the hyaloid membrane of the eye, in the anterior part, formed by the ſeparation of the anterior lamina from the poſterior. It is named after its diſcoverer, M. Petit.

CANĀLIS VENŌSUS. A canal peculiar to the fœtus, diſappearing after birth, that conveys the maternal blood from the *porta* of the liver to the aſcending *vena cava*.

CANARY BALM. See *Meliſſa turcica.*

CANCELLI, (*Cancelli, ōrum*, m. pl.). Lattice-work, generally applied to the reticular ſubſtance in bones.

CANCER, (*Cancer, ĕris*, m.). *Carcinoma.* A painful, hard, indolent tumour of a glandular part, which terminates in the foulеſt ulcer. Thoſe tumours were ſo called by the ancients that exhibited large blue veins, like crab's claws: hence the name.

CANCER, (*Cancer, cri*, m. and *cancĕris*, Lucr.). *Chelæ cancrorum. Oculi cancrorum. Lapides cancrorum.* The crab. The ſhell-fiſh ſo called is the *Cancer oſtacus* of Linnæus; the officinal preparations are nevertheleſs obtained alſo from the *cancer gammarus*, *macurus*, and the *pagarus* of Linnæus. The colleges have retained the *chelæ cancrorum*, and ſeveral compounds of them; as the *pulvis e chelis cancrorum compoſitus*, the *pulvis contrayervæ compoſitus*, the *trochiſci e creta*, and the *confectio aromatica*. Crab's claws, and crab's eyes, as they are called, which are cerebral concretions, are of a calcareous quality, and conſequently poſſeſs antacid virtues. They are exhibited in pyroſis, diarrhœa, and infantile convulſions from acidity.

CANCRORUM CHELÆ. See *Cancer.*

CANCRORUM OCULI. See *Cancer.*

CANDELARIA. See *Verbaſcum.*

CANDY CARROT. See *Daucus creticus.*

CANELLA ALBA, (*Canella, æ*, f. dim. of *canna*, a reed; ſo named becauſe the pieces of bark are rolled up in the form of a reed). Laurel-leaved canella. *Corter Winteranus ſpurius. Canella alba* of Linnæus. Claſs. *Dodecandria.* Order. *Mono-*

gynia. The tree which produces the bark so called, is a native of the West Indies. It is brought into Europe in long quills, somewhat thicker than cinnamon; their taste is moderately warm, aromatic, and bitterish; and of an agreeable smell, somewhat resembling that of cloves. Canella alba has been supposed to possess considerable medicinal powers in the cure of scurvy and some other complaints. It is now merely considered as a useful and cheap aromatic, and is chiefly employed for the purpose of correcting, and rendering less disagreeable the more powerful and nauseous drugs: it is therefore an ingredient in the *pulvis aloeticus* of the London Pharmacopœia, and in the *tinctura amara, vinum amarum, vinum rhæi,* &c. of the Edinburgh.

CANELLÆ MALABARICÆ CORTEX. See *Cassia lignea.*

CANINE TEETH. *Dentes canini. Cuspidati.* The four eye-teeth are so called from their resemblance to those of the dog. They are situated, two in each jaw, on the side of the four middle or incisor teeth.

CANINUS, (*Caninus, sc. musculus*; because it arises near the canine or eye-tooth). See *Levator anguli oris.*

CANNĂBIS, (*Cannabis, is,* f. κάννα, or κάνναβος; from κάννα, a reed. Κάνναβοι are foul springs, wherein hemp, &c. grow naturally. Or from *kanaba,* from *kanah,* to mow. Arab.). Hemp. This plant, *Cannabis sativa* of Linnæus, has a rank smell of a narcotic kind. The effluvia from the fresh herb is said to affect the eyes and head, and that the water in which it has been long steeped is a sudden poison. Hemp seeds, when fresh, afford a considerable quantity of oil. Decoctions and emulsions of them have been recommended against coughs, ardor urinæ, &c.

CANNĂBIS SATĪVA. The systematic name of the hemp plant. See *Cannabis.*

CANŬLA, (*Canula, æ,* f. dim. of *canna,* a reed). A tube adapted to a sharp instrument, with which it is thrust into a cavity or tumour, containing a fluid; the perforation being made, the sharp instrument is withdrawn, and the canula left, in order that the fluid may pass through it.

CANTHĂRĬDES, (*Cantharis, ĭdis,* pl. *canthărĭdes, um*; from κάνθαρος, a beetle, to whose tribe it belongs). Spanish flies. *Meloë vesicatorius* of Linnæus. The importance of these flies, by their stimulant, corrosive, and epispastic qualities, in the practice of physic and surgey, is very considerable; indeed, so much so, as to induce many to consider them as the most powerful medicine in the materia medica. When applied on the skin, in the form of a plaster, it soon raises a blister full of serous matter, and thus relieves inflammatory diseases, as phrenitis, pleuritis, hepatitis, phlegmon, bubo, myositis, arthritis, &c. The tincture of these flies is also of great utility in several cutaneous diseases, rheumatic affections, sciatic pains, &c. but ought to be used with much caution.

CANTHUS, (*Canthus, i,* m. κανθος, the iron binding of a cart wheel). The angle or corner of the eye, where the upper and under eyelids meet. That next the nose is termed the internal or greater canthus, and the other, the external or lesser canthus.

CAOUTCHOUC. A name of the elastic gum. See *Indian rubber.*

CAPAIVA BALSAM. See *Balsamum Copaivæ.*

CAPER-BUSH. See *Capparis.*

CAPILLARY VESSELS. (*Vasa capillaria*; from *capillus,* a little hair; so called from their resemblance to hairs or fine threads). The very small ramifications of the arteries, which terminate upon the external surface of the body, or on the surface of internal cavities.

CAPILLUS, (*Capillus, i,* m. *quasi*

capitis pilus, the hair of the head). The hair. Small, cylindrical, transparent, insensible, and elastic filaments, which arise from the skin, and are fastened in it by means of small roots. The human hair is composed of a spongy, cellular texture, containing a coloured liquid, and a proper covering. Hair is divided into two kinds: *long*, which arises on the scalp, cheek, chin, breasts of men, the anterior parts of the arms and legs, the arm-pits, groins, and pelvis; and *short*, which is softer than the long, is present over the whole body, except only the palm of the hand and sole of the foot. The hair originates in the adipose membrane from an oblong membranous bulb, which has vessels peculiar to it. The hair is distinguished by different names in certain parts: as, *capillus*, on the top of the head; *crinis*, on the back of the head; *circrinnus*, on the temples; *cilium*, on the eyelids; *supercilium*, on the eyebrows; *vibrissæ*, in the nostrils; *barba*, on the chin; *pappus*, on the middle of the chin; *mystax*, on the upper lip; *pilus*, on the body.

Capillus venĕris. See *Adianthum*.

Cappăris, (*Capparis*, f. καππαρις; from *cabar*, Arab. or παρα το καπτανειν αραν; from its curing madness and melancholy). Common caper bush. The buds or unexpanded flowers of this plant, *Capparis spinosa*; *pedunculis solitariis unifloris, stipulis spinosis, foliis annuis, capsulis ovalibus*, of Linnæus; Class. *Polyandria*. Order. *Monogynia*; are in common use as a pickle, which is said to possess antiscorbutic virtues. The bark of the root was formerly in high esteem as a deobstruent.

Cappăris spinōsa. The systematic name of the caper plant. See *Capparis*.

Capsĭcum annuum, (*Capsicum*, *i*, n. καψικον; from καπτω, to bite; on account of the biting heat of the seed and pericarp. Some derive it from *capsa*, a chest; because it was wont to be preserved in chests, or from the likeness of its pods). The systematic name of the plant whose seeds are the basis of Cayenne pepper. See *Peper indicum*.

Capsŭla. (*Capsula*, æ, f. dim. of *capsa*, a chest or case). A term given by anatomists to any membranous production enclosing a part of the body like a bag; as the capsular ligaments, the capsule of the crystalline lens, &c.

Capsŭlæ atrabiliariæ. See *Renal capsules*.

Capsŭlæ renāles. See *Renal capsules*.

Capsule of glysson. *Vagina Glyssonii*. A strong tunic, formed of cellular texture, which accompanies the vena portæ, and its most minute ramifications, throughout the whole liver.

Capsular ligament, (*Capsularis*; from *capsa*, a bag). *Ligamentum capsŭlare*. The ligament which surrounds every moveable articulation, and contains the synovia like a bag.

Caput, (*Caput*, *ĭtis*, n. κεφαλη). The head, cranium, or skull, is situated above the trunk, upon the cervical vertebræ. For its bones, see *Bones*. Upon the hairy part are observed the *vertex* or crown, *sinciput* or fore-part, *occiput* or hinder part, and the *temples*. The parts distinguished on the face are well known; as the forehead, nose, eyes, &c. The arteries of the head are branches of the carotids; and the veins empty themselves into the jugulars.

Caput gallīnagĭnis (*Gallinago*, *ginis*, f.). *Verumontanum*. A cutaneous eminence in the urethra, before the neck of the bladder, somewhat like the head of a cock in miniature, around which the seminal ducts, and the ducts of the prostate gland, open.

CAPUT MORTŬUM. The dry fœces left in a veſſel after the moiſture has been diſtilled from them are ſo called, becauſe they were ſuppoſed to be the dead head, or uſeleſs origin of the production.

CAPUT OBSTĬPUM. The wry neck. Moſtly a ſpaſmodic affection.

CARANNA. *Carannæ gummi.* A concrete reſincus juice, that exudes from a large tree, of which we have no particular account. It is brought from New Spain and America, in little maſſes, rolled up in leaves of flags; externally and internally it is of a browniſh colour, variegated with irregular white ſtreaks. When freſh it is ſoft and tenaceous, but becomes dry and friable by keeping. Pure caranna has an agreeable aromatic ſmell, eſpecially when heated, and a bitteriſh ſlightly pungent taſte. It was formerly employed as an ingredient in vulnerary balſams, ſtrengthening, diſcutient, and ſuppurating plaſters; but its ſcarcity has cauſed it to be forgotten.

CARAWAY. See *Carum.*

CARBON, (*Carbŏnĭcum, i*, n. from *carbo*, coal). Pure charcoal. It is the black reſidue of vegetables, which have ſuffered a complete decompoſition of their volatile principles by fire. Charcoal is black, brittle, ſonorous, and light. It is placed among ſimple bodies, becauſe no experiment has hitherto ſhown the poſſibility of decompoſing it. It exiſts in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdom. When it is required to procure carbon in a ſtate of great purity, it muſt be dried by ſtrong ignition in a cloſed veſſel.

CARBONACEOUS ACID. *Acidum carbonicum.* See *Carbonic acid.*

CARBŌNAS, (*Carbonas, tis*, m.). A carbonat or neutral ſalt, formed by the union of carbonic acid with an alkaline, earthy, or metallic baſe. The carbonats employed in medicine are, the *carbonas ammoniacæ cryſtalliſatus*, ſee *Ammonia preparata*; the *corbonas ammoniacæ liquidus*, ſee *Aqua ammoniæ*; the *carbonas barytæ*, ſee *Terra ponderoſa aerata*; the *carbonas calcis*, ſee *Chelæ cancrorum* and *Teſtæ oſtrearum*; the *carbonas magneſiæ*, ſee *Magneſia alba*; the *carbonas potaſſæ cryſtaliſatus*, ſee *Kali preparatum*; the *carbonas potaſſæ liquidus*, ſee *Aqua kali*; and the *carbonas ſodæ*, ſee *Alkali minerale aeratum.*

CARBONIC ACID. *Acidum carbonicum.* Carbonaceous acid. Cretaceous acid. Fixed air. Mephitic gaz. Aerial acid. The name of cretaceous acid appears to agree beſt with this ſubſtance, becauſe it is contained in very large quantities in chalk; and there is no other body with which it has ſo ſtrong an affinity, as with lime, which compoſes the baſe of this earthy ſalt. The carbonic acid poſſeſſes all the more obvious qualities of air, and exiſts in the atmoſphere, of which it is a ſmall part. (See *Atmoſpheric air*). It is found in a ſtate of gaz at *la grotta del Cane*, near Naples; at the well at Perols, near Montpellier; in that of Negrae, in Vivarais; upon the ſurface of the lake Averno, in Italy; and on thoſe of ſeveral ſprings, in various ſubterraneous places, ſuch as tombs, cellars, neceſſaries, &c. It is alſo diſengaged in this form, by the decompoſition of vegetables heaped together, by the fermentation of wine or beer, by the putrefaction of animal matters, &c. It exiſts in the ſtate of ſimple mixture in moſt mineral waters, which poſſeſs all its acid properties. It exiſts alſo in a ſtate of combination in limeſtone, common magneſia, alkalis, &c. The properties of this acid are various. 1ſt, It is unfit for reſpiration:—Hiſtory informs us, that two ſlaves, whom Tiberius cauſed to deſcend into *la grotta del Cane*, were immediately ſtifled; and two criminals, that Peter de Toledo cauſed to be ſhut in there, ſuffered the ſame

fate. The Abbé Nollet, who had the courage to reſpire the vapour, perceived a ſuffocating ſenſation, and a ſlight degree of acidity, which produced coughing and ſneezing. Pilatre de Rozier cauſed himſelf to be faſtened by cords fixed under his arms, and deſcended into the gazeous atmoſphere of a back of beer in fermentation. He had ſcarcely entered into the mephitis before ſlight prickings obliged him to ſhut his eyes; a violent ſuffocation prevented him from reſpiring; he felt a giddineſs, accompanied with thoſe noiſes which characterize apoplexy; and when he was drawn up, his ſight remained dim for ſeveral minutes; the blood had diſtended the jugulars; his countenance had become purple; and he neither heard nor ſpoke, but with great difficulty: all theſe ſymptoms, however, diſappeared by degrees. It is this gaz which produces the many unhappy incidents at the opening of cellars, in places where wine, cider, or beer, is ſuffered to ferment. Birds, plunged into the carbonic acid gaz, ſuddenly periſh. The famous lake of Averno, where Virgil placed the entrance of Hell, exhales ſo large a quantity of carbonic acid, that birds cannot fly over it with impunity. When the waters of Boulidou of Perols are dry, ſuch birds as attempt to quench their thirſt in the clefts are enveloped in the mephitic vapour, and die. Frogs, plunged in an atmoſphere of carbonic acid, live from 40 to 50 minutes, by ſuſpending their reſpiration. Inſects are rendered torpid after remaining a certain time in this air; but they reſume their livelineſs the moment they are expoſed to the free air. It has been aſſerted, that this acid ſuffocates by extinguiſhing irritability; this, however, is invalidated by the experiments of Morrozo. 2dly, The carbonic acid is improper for vegetation. 3dly, It is heavier than common air; hence it occupies the loweſt ſituations. 4thly, One of the principal combinations of this acid is with caloric, when it forms the carbonic acid gaz, which poſſeſſes all the apparent characteriſtic properties of air. 5thly, Like air it is inviſible and elaſtic, and when encloſed in a glaſs veſſel, or floating in the atmoſphere, it cannot be certainly diſtinguiſhed from it. Mixed with vital air, which it readily does without ſuffering any alteration, it may be uſed as a remedy in phthiſis pulmonalis. This mixture will maintain reſpiration as long as the carbonic acid does not exceed a third part of it. 6thly, It combines with water but very ſlowly. By ſhaking them together, ſo as to bring them as much as poſſible into contact with one another, they are made to unite and form an acidulous liquor, which Bergman called *aerated water*, poſſeſſing a pungent taſte, and ſparkling upon agitation. This acid ſolution abounds throughout nature, and is the leading property in many acidulous and gazeous waters, as thoſe of Pyrmont, Seltz, &c. (See *Mineral waters*). Many phyſicians have greatly extolled this acidulated water in the cure of putrid diſeaſes, and a very excellent machine was invented by Dr. Nooth, for the purpoſe of impregnating water with carbonic acid. The combination of carbonic acid with lime diſſolved in water gives riſe to an invariable phenomenon which always indicates the preſence of the acid. As ſoon as it touches the liquid it produces white clouds, which ſoon thicken and form a plenteous precipitate, which is a carbonate of lime formed by the combination of lime with the carbonic acid. Ammoniacal gaz, and the aeriform carbonic acid brought into contact in a cloſe veſſel, produce inſtantaneouſly a vacuum, heat, and a thick white cloud, which forms into regular cryſtals, or a cruſt at the ſides of the veſſel. This imperfect neutral ſalt, or ammoniacal

arbonate, was formerly called the ancrete volatile alkali. It is a very owerful medicine when taken into he ſtomach, to which it gives energy nd tone. (See *Ammoniacæ, ppt.*). Carbonic acid has been ſaid to cure ancer; how far this is to be depend-d upon, is not yet determined. In his kingdom and in France it has had very extenſive trial. After the firſt pplication, the cancerous ulcer exhibits a more favorable appearance; he ſanies becomes white, conſiſtent, nd laudable; the fleſh aſſumes a live-y colour: but theſe flattering appear-nces do not continue; the ulcer ſoon eturns to its former ſtate, and paſſes hrough the uſual changes with una-ated violence.

CARBUNCLE, (*Carbuncŭlus, i*, m. dim. of *carbo*). An inflammatory umour which ſoon becomes gangre-ous. See *Anthrax*.

CARCINŌMA, (*Carcinoma, ătis*, καρκινωμα; from καρκινος, a cancer, and ω, to feed upon). A cancer. See *Cancer*.

CARCINOS, (καρκινος, a cancer). See *Carcinoma*.

CARDAMĪNE, (*Cardamine, es*, f. καρδαμινη; from καρδια, the heart; because it acts as a cordial and ſtrengthener, or from its having the taſte of cardamum that is naſturtium or creſs). Common lady's ſmock, or cuckoo flower. *Cardamine pratenſis* of Linnæus. *Cardamine, foliis pinnatis, foliis radicalibus ſubrotundis, caulinis lanceolatis*. Claſs. *Tetradynamia*. Order. *Siliquoſa*. It is the flower of this plant, which is a native of England, that has a place in the materia medica, upon the authority of Sir George Baker, who has publiſhed five caſes, two of chorea Sancti Viti, one of ſpaſmodic aſthma, an hemilegia, and a caſe of ſpaſmodic affections of the lower limbs, wherein the *flores cardamines* were ſuppoſed to have been ſucceſsfully uſed.

CARDAMĪNE PRATENSIS. The ſyſtematic name for the plant called *cardamine* in the pharmacopœias. See *Cardamine*.

CARDAMOM. See *Cardamomum*.

CARDĂMŌMUM MĀJUS. A large, brown, ſomewhat triangular huſk, the thickneſs of one thumb, and pyramidal. The ſeeds reſemble the *grana paradiſi*; their virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of the *cardamomum minus*.

CARDĂMŌMUM MEDĬUM. The ſeeds correſpond in every reſpect with the leſſer, except in ſize, they being twice as long, but no thicker than the *cardamomum minus*.

CARDĂMŌMUM MINUS, (*Cardamomum, i*, n. καρδαμωμον; from καρδαμο, and αμωμο; becauſe it partakes of the nature, and is like both the cardamum and amomum). Officinal cardamom. *Amomum repens, ſeu le cardamome de la côte de Malabar*, of Sonnerat. Claſs. *Monandria*. Order. *Monogynia*. The ſeeds of this plant are imported in their capſules or huſks, by which they are preſerved, for they ſoon loſe a part of their flavour when freed from this covering. On being chewed, they impart a glowing aromatic warmth, and grateful pungency; they are ſuppoſed gently to ſtimulate the ſtomach, and prove cordial, carminative, and antiſpaſmodic, but without that irritation and heat which many of the other ſpicy aromatics are apt to produce. Simple and compound ſpirituous tinctures are prepared from them, and they are ordered as a ſpicy ingredient in many of the officinal compoſitions.

CARDĬA, (*Cardia, æ*, f. καρδια). So the Greeks called the heart. It is now applied to the ſuperior opening of the ſtomach.

CARDIACA, (*Cardiaca*; from καρδια, the heart). Cordials. See *Cordials*.

CARDIACA. Motherwort. *Leonurus cardiaca*; *foliis caulinis lanceolatis, trilobis*, of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have a diſagreeable ſmell

and a bitter taſte, and are ſaid to be ſerviceable in diſorders of the ſtomach of children, to promote the uterine diſcharge, and to allay palpitation of the heart.

CARDĬALGIA, (*Cardialgia, æ*, f. καρδιαλγια; from καρδια, the cardia, and ἀλγεω, to be pained). The heart-burn. See *Pyroſis*.

CARDINAL-FLOWER, BLUE. See *Lobelia*.

CARDĪTIS, (*Carditis, ĭdis*, f. from καρδια, the heart). Inflammation of the heart. It is a genus of diſeaſe arranged by Cullen in the claſs *pyrexiæ*, and order *phlegmaſiæ*. It is known by pyrexia, pain in the region of the ſtomach, great anxiety, difficulty of breathing, cough, irregular pulſe, palpitation, and fainting.

CARDOPATĬA. See *Chameleon albus*.

CARDŬUS, (*Carduus, i*, m. *a carere, quia aptus carendæ lanæ*, being fit to teaſe wool). Thiſtle.

CARDŬUS BENĔDICTUS, (*Carduus, i*, m.). Bleſſed or holy thiſtle. *Centaurea benedicta; calycibus duplicato-ſpinoſis lanatis involucratis, foliis ſemidecurrentibus denticulato-ſpinoſis* of Linnæus. Claſs. *Syngeneſia*. Order. *Polygamia fruſtranea*. This exotic plant obtained the name of benedictus, from its being ſuppoſed to poſſeſs extraordinary medicinal virtues. In loſs of appetite, where the ſtomach was injured by irregularities, its good effects have been frequently experienced. It is a powerful bitter tonic and adſtringent.

CARDŬUS MARĬÆ. The ſeeds of this plant, *Carduus marianus; foliis amplexicaulibus, haſtato-pinnatifidis, ſpinoſis; calycibus aphyllis; ſpinis caniliculatis, duplicato-ſpinoſis*, of Linnæus, and the herb have been employed medicinally. The former contains a bitter oil, and are recommended as relaxants. The juice of the latter is ſaid to be ſalutary in dropſies, in the doſe of four ounces.

CARDŬUS MARĬANUS. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal *carduus mariæ*.

CARDŬUS TOMENTŌSUS. The woolly thiſtle. The plant diſtinguiſhed by this name in the pharmacopœias, is the *Onopordium acanthium calycibus ſquarroſis; ſquamis patentibus; foliis ovato-oblongis, ſinuatis*, of Linnæus. Its expreſſed juice has been recommended as a cure for cancer, either applied by moiſtening lint with it, or mixing ſome ſimple farinaceous ſubſtance, ſo as to form a poultice, which ſhould be in contact with the diſeaſe, and renewed twice a-day.

CAREX, (*Carex, ĭcis*, f. from *careo*, not *quia viribus careat*, but becauſe from its roughneſs it is fit *ad carendum*, to card, teaſe, or pull). Sedge.

CAREX ARENARĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal *ſarſaparilla germanica*. See *Sarſaparilla germanica*.

CARĬCA, (*Carica, æ*, f. καρυκη; from *Carica*, the place where they were cultivated). The fig. The plant which affords this fruit is the *Ficus carica* of Linnæus. *Ficus, foliis palmatis*. Claſs. *Polygamia*. Order. *Trioecia*. Freſh figs are, when completely ripe, ſoft, ſucculent, and eaſily digeſted, unleſs eaten in immoderate quantities, when they are apt to occaſion flatulency, pain of the bowels, and diarrhœa. The dried fruit, which is ſold in our ſhops, is pleaſanter to the taſte, and more wholeſome and nutritive. They are directed in the *decoctum hordei compoſitum*, and in the *electuarium lenitivum*. Applied externally, they promote the ſuppuration of tumours, hence they have a place in maturating cataplaſms, and are very convenient to apply to the gums, and, when boiled with milk, to the throat.

CĂRIES, (*Caries, ei*, f.). Rottenneſs or ulceration of the bones.

CARLĪNA, or CAROLĪNA, (*Ca*

ina, æ, f. from *Carolus*, Charles the Great, or Charlemagne; becauſe it was believed that an angel ſhewed it to him, and that by the uſe of it his army was preſerved from the plague). The officinal name of two kinds of plants. See *Chamæmelon album*, and *Carlina gummifera*.

CARLĪNA ACAULIS. The ſyſtematic name of the *chamemelon albus*.

CARLĪNA GUMMIFĔRA. *Carduus pinea. Ixine.* Pine thiſtle. This plant is the *Atractylis gummifera* of Linnæus. The root, when wounded, yields a milky, viſcous juice, which concretes into tenacious maſſes, at firſt whitiſh, reſembling wax, when much handled growing black; it is ſaid to be chewed with the ſame views as maſtich.

CARLINE THISTLE. See *Chameleon albus*.

CARLO SANCTO RADIX. St. Charles's root; ſo called by the Spaniards, on account of its great virtues. It is found in Mechoachan, a province in America. Its bark hath an aromatic flavour, with a bitter acrid taſte. The root itſelf conſiſts of ſlenſſer fibres. The bark is ſudorific, and ſtrengthens the gums and ſtomach.

CARMINATIVE, (*Carminativa*; from *carmen*, a verſe or charm; becauſe practitioners in ancient times aſcribed their operation to a charm or enchantment). A term applied to thoſe ſubſtances, which allay pain, and diſpel flatulencies of the primæ viæ.

CARNEÆ COLUMNÆ. The fleſhy pillars or columns in the cavities of the heart. See *Heart*.

CAROS. *Carus*. Inſenſibility and ſleepineſs, with eaſy reſpiration.

CARŌTA. The *carrot*. See *Daucus*.

CAROTĬDES, (Καρωτιδης; from καρωω, to cauſe to ſleep; ſo called becauſe if tied with a ligature, they cauſe the animals to be comatoſe, and have the appearance of being aſleep). Two conſiderable arteries that proceed, one on each ſide of the cervical vertebræ, to the head, and which ſupply it with blood. The right carotid does not ariſe immediately from the arch of the aorta, but is given off from the arteria innominata. The left ariſes from the arch of the aorta. Each carotid is divided into external and internal, or that portion without, and that within the cranium. The external gives off eight branches to the neck and face, viz. *anteriorly*, the ſuperior thyroideal, the ſublingual, the inferior maxillary, the external maxillary; *poſteriorly*, the internal maxillary, the occipital, the external auditory, and the temporal. The internal carotid or cerebral artery, gives off four branches within the cavity of the cranium; the anterior cerebral, the poſterior, the central artery of the optic nerve, and the internal orbital.

CARPATHĬCUS BALSĂMUS. *Oleum Germanis. Carpathicum.* This balſam is obtained both by wounding the young branches of the *Pinus cembra, foliis quinis, lævibus*, of Linnæus, and by boiling them. It is moſtly diluted with turpentine, and comes to us in a very liquid and pellucid ſtate, rather white.

CARPIA. Lint. See *Lint*.

CARPOBALSĂMUM, (*Carpobalſamum, i*, n. from καρπος, fruit, and βαλσαμον, balſam). The fruit of the balſam tree, *Amyris gileadenſis* of Linnæus. See *Balſamum gileadenſe*.

CARPUS, (*Carpus, i*, m. καρπος, the wriſt). The wriſt, or carpus. It is ſituated between the fore arm and hand. See *Bones*.

CARROT. See *Daucus*.

CARROT, CANDY. See *Daucus creticus*.

CARTHĂMUS, (*Carthamus, i*, m. καρθαμος; from καθαιρω, to purge). *Safflower. Carthamus tinctorius; foliis ovatis, integris, ſerrato-aculeatis,*

of Linnæus. This plant is cultivated in many places on account of its flowers, which are used as a yellow dye. The seeds, freed from their shells, have been celebrated as a gentle cathartic. The dried flowers are frequently mixed with saffron, to adulterate it.

CARTHĀMUS TINCTORĬUS. The systematic name of the safflower plant. See *Carthamus*.

CARTILAGE, (*Cartĭlāgo, gĭnis*, f. *quasi carnilago*; from *caro, carnis*, flesh). A white, elastic, glistening substance, growing to bones, and commonly called *gristle*. Cartilages are divided by anatomists into *obducent*, which cover the moveable articulations of bones; *inter-articular*, which are situated between the articulations, and *uniting* cartilages, which unite one bone with another. Their use is to lubricate the articulations of bones, and to connect some bones by an immoveable connexion.

CARTILĀGO ANNULĀRIS. See *Annular cartilage*, and *Cartilago cricoidea*.

CARTILĀGO ARYTÆNOIDĒA. See *Arytænoid cartilage*.

CARTILĀGO CRICOIDĒA. The cricoid cartilage belongs to the larynx, and is situated between the thyroid and arytenoid cartilages and the trachea; it constitutes, as it were, the basis of the many annular cartilages of the trachea.

CARTILĀGO ENSIFORMIS. *Cartilago Xyphoidea*. Ensiform process. A cartilage shaped somewhat like a sword or dagger, attached to the lowermost part of the sternum, just at the pit of the stomach.

CARTILĀGO SCUTĬFORMIS. See *Thyroid cartilage*.

CARTILĀGO THYROIDĒA. See *Thyroid cartilage*.

CARTILĀGO XYPOIDĒA. See *Cartilago ensiformis*.

CARUM, (*Carum, i*, n.). See *Caruon*.

CARUM CARVI. The systematic name for the plant whose seeds are called caraways. See *Caruon*.

CARUNCLE, (*Caruncŭlus, i*, m. a diminutive of *caro*, flesh). Little fleshy excrescences; as the caruncule myrtiformes, caruncule lachrymales, &c.

CARUNCŬLA LACHRYMĀLIS. A long tubercle, conoidal, and red externally, situated in the internal canthus of each eye, before the union of the eyelids. It appears to be formed of numerous sebaceous glands, from which many small hairs grow. The hardened smegma, observable in this part of the eye in the morning, is separated by this caruncle.

CARUNCŬLÆ MYRTĬFORMES.—When the hymen has been lacerated by attrition, there remains in its place two, three, or four caruncles, which have received the name of myrtiform.

CARUNCŬLÆ PAPILLĀRES. The protuberances within the pelvis of the kidney, formed by the papillous substance of the kidney.

CARŬON, (*Caruon, i*, n. κάρος; so named from *Caria*, a province of Asia). *Carum seu careum*. Common caraway. *Carum carui* of Linnæus. Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Digynia*. Caraway seeds are well known to have a pleasant spicy smell, and a warm aromatic taste, and, on this account, are used for various economical purposes. They are esteemed to be carminative, cordial, and stomachic, and recommended in dyspepsia, flatulencies, and other symptoms attending hysterical and hypochondriacal disorders. An essential oil and distilled water are directed to be prepared from them by the London college.

CARUS, (*Carus, i*, m. κάρος, a lethargy). *Caros*. 1. Insensibility and sleepiness, with quiet respiration. 2. A loss of sense and voluntary motion, respiration uninjured. 3. A profound sleep, without fever.

CARYOPHYLLATA, (*Caryophylla-*

a, æ, f. *καρυοφυλλάλα*: from *καρυοφυλ-λον*, the caryophyllus; ſo named be-cauſe it ſmells like the caryophyllus, or clove July flower). Avens, or herb-bennet. The root of this plant, *Geum urbanum floribus erectis, fructibus globoſis villoſis, ariſtis uncinatis nudis, foliis lyratis*, of Linnæus, has been employed as a gentle ſtyptic, corro-borant, and ſtomachic. It has a mild-ly auſtere, ſomewhat aromatic taſte, and a very pleaſant ſmell, of the clove kind. It is alſo eſteemed on the con-tinent as a febrifuge.

CARYOPHYLLOIDES CORTEX.—*Culilawan.*

CARYOPHYLLUM, (*Caryophyllum*, i, n. *καρυοφύλλον*; from *κάρυον*, a nut, and *φύλλον*, a leaf; ſo named becauſe it ſmells like the leaves of the Indian nut or clove tree.

CARYŎPHŸLLUM AROMATĬCUM. The clove. The tree which affords this ſpice is the *Caryophyllus aromati-cus, foliis ovato-lanceolatis oppoſitis, flo-ribus torminalibus*. Mill. Dict. Claſs. *Polyandria*. Order. *Monogynia*, and grows in the Eaſt Indies, the Mo-luccas, &c. The clove is the unex-panded flower, or rather the calyx; it has a ſtrong agreeable ſmell, and a bitteriſh, hot, not very pungent, taſte. The oil of cloves, commonly met with in the ſhops and received from the Dutch, is highly acrimonious, and ſophiſticated. Clove is account-ed the hotteſt and moſt acrid of the aromatics, and by acting as a power-ful ſtimulant to the muſcular fibres, may in ſome caſes of atonic gout, paralyſis, &c. ſuperſede moſt others of the aromatic claſs; and the foreign oil, by its great acrimony, is alſo well adapted for ſeveral external purpoſes: it is directed by ſeveral pharmaco-pœias, and the clove itſelf enters ma-ny officinal preparations.

CARYŎPHŸLLUM RUBRUM.—Clove pink. Clove gilliflower. Clove July flower. This fragrant plant, *Dianthus caryophyllus, floribus ſolita-riis, ſquamis calycinis ſubovatis breviſ-ſimis, corollis crenatis*, of Linnæus, Claſs. *Decandria*. Order. *Digynia*, grows wild in ſeveral parts of Eng-land; but the flowers, which are phar-maceutically employed, are uſually produced in gardens: they have a pleaſant aromatic ſmell, ſomewhat allied to that of clove ſpice; their taſte is bitteriſh and ſubadſtringent. Theſe flowers were formerly in ex-tenſive uſe, but are now merely em-ployed in form of ſyrup, as a uſeful and pleaſant vehicle for other medi-cines.

CARYOPHYLLUS AROMATĬCUS. The ſyſtematic name of the clove tree. See *Caryophyllum aromaticum*.

CASCARĬLLÆ CORTEX, (*Caſcaril-la, æ*, f. dim of *caſcara*, the bark or ſhell. Span.). *Chocarilla. Eluthe-ria. Eluteria.* The tree that affords this bark is the *Clutia eluteria, foliis cor-dato-lanceolatis*. Claſs. *Dioecia*. Or-der. *Pentandria*. Caſcarilla comes to us in quills, covered upon the out-ſide with a rough, whitiſh matter, and browniſh on the inner ſide, ex-hibiting, when broken, a ſmooth, cloſe, blackiſh brown ſurface. It has a lightly agreeable ſmell, and a mo-derately bitter taſte, accompanied with a conſiderable aromatic warmth. It is a very excellent tonic, adſtrin-gent, and ſtomachic, and is deſerving of a more general uſe than it has hi-therto met with.

CASHEW NUT. See *Anacardium occidentale*.

CASSAVA. *Caſſada*. The leaves of this poiſonous plant, *Jatropha manihot* of Linnæus, a native of Ame-rica, are boiled, and eaten as we do ſpinage. The root abounds with a milky juice, and every part, when raw, is a fatal poiſon. It is remark-able that the poiſonous quality is de-ſtroyed by heat: hence the juice is boiled with meat, pepper, &c. into a wholeſome ſoup, and what remains after expreſſing the juice, is formed

into cakes or meal, the principal food of the inhabitants.

CASSĂDA. See *Caſſava*.

CASSĬA, (*Caſſia, æ*, f. κασσια; from the Arabic *katſia*, which is from *katſa*, to tear off: ſo called from the act of ſtripping the bark from the tree). The pulp of the caſſia fiſtularis is generally termed *caſſia*. See *Caſſia fiſtularis*.

CASSĬA CARYOPHYLLĀTA. Clove bark tree. The bark of this tree, *Myrtus caryophyllata*; *pedunculis trifido-multifloris, foliis obvatis*, of Linnæus, is a warm aromatic, of the ſmell of cloveſpice, but weaker, and with a little admixture of the cinnamon flavour. It may be uſed with the ſame views as cloves or cinnamon.

CASSĬA FISTŬLA. The ſyſtematic name of the purging caſſia. See *Caſſia fiſtularis*.

CASSĬA FISTULĀRIS, (*Caſſia, æ*, f. Heb.). Purging caſſia. This tree, *Caſſia fiſtula* of Linnæus (*Caſſia foliis quinquejugis ovatis acuminatis glabris, petiolis eglandulatis*. Claſs. *Decandria*. Order. *Monogynia*), is a native of both Indies. The pods of the Eaſt India caſſia are of leſs diameter, ſmoother, and afford a blacker, ſweeter, and more grateful pulp, than thoſe which are brought from the Weſt Indies. Thoſe pods which are the heavieſt, and in which the ſeeds do not rattle on being ſhaken, are commonly the beſt, and contain the moſt pulp, which is the part medicinally employed, and to be obtained in the manner deſcribed in the pharmacopœias. The beſt pulp is of a bright ſhining black colour, and of a ſweet taſte, with a ſlight degree of acidity. It has been long uſed as a laxative medicine, and being gentle in its operation, and ſeldom diſturbing the bowels, is well adapted to children and pregnant women. The officinal preparation of this drug is, *electuarium è caſſia*; it is alſo an ingredient in the *electuarium è ſenna*.

CASSĬÆ FLORES. What are called caſſia flowers in the ſhops, are the flowers of the true cinnamon tree, *Laurus cinnamomum* of Linnæus. They poſſeſs aromatic and adſtringent virtues, and may be ſucceſsfully employed in decoctions, &c. in all caſes where cinnamon is recommended. See *Cinnamonium*.

CASSĬA LIGNĔA. *Cortex canellæ malabaricæ*. Caſſia lignea is the bark of the *Laurus caſſia*; *foliis triplinerviis lanceolatis*, of Linnæus, whoſe leaves are called *folia malabathri* in the ſhops. The bark and leaves abound with the flavour of cinnamon, for which they may be ſubſtituted; but in much larger doſes, as they are conſiderably weaker.

CASSIA, PURGING. See *Caſſia fiſtularis*.

CASSĬA SENNA. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which in Alexandria affords what is termed Alexandrian ſenna, and in Italy, the *ſenna italica*. See *Senna*.

CASSUMMUNIAR, (*Caſſummuniar*, n. Ind. of uncertain derivation, perhaps Indian). *Caſumunar. Riſagon. Bengale*. The root, occaſionally exhibited under one of theſe names, is brought from the Eaſt Indies. It comes over in irregular ſlices of various forms, ſome cut tranſverſely, others longitudinally. The cortical part is marked with circles of a duſky brown colour: the internal part is paler, and unequally yellow. It poſſeſſes moderately warm, bitter, and aromatic qualities, and a ſmell like ginger. It is recommended in hyſterical, epileptic, and paralytic affections.

CASTANEA, (*Caſtanea*, καστανον; from Caſtana, a city in Theſſaly, whence they were brought). The common cheſnut. The fruit of this plant, *Fagus caſtanea*; *foliis lanceolatis, acuminato-ſerratis, ſubtus nudis*, of Linnæus, are much eſteemed as an article of luxury, after dinner.

Toasting renders them more easy of digestion; but, notwithstanding, they must be considered as improper for weak stomachs. They are moderately nourishing, as containing sugar and much farinaceous substance.

CASTOR. See *Castoreum rusticum.*

CASTOR OIL. *Oleum ricini.* See *Ricinus.*

CASTOR, RUSSIAN. See *Castoreum rusticum.*

CASTŌRĔUM RUSSĬCUM, (*Castoreum, i,* n. from καστωρ, the beaver, *quasi* γαστωρ; from γαστηρ, the belly, because of the largeness of its belly; or *à castrando,* because he is said to castrate himself in order to escape the hunters). *Castoreum.* Russian castor. *Castor fiber* of Linnæus, an amphibious quadruped inhabiting some parts of Prussia, Russia, Germany, Canada, &c. The name of *castoreum* is given to two bags, situated in the inguinal regions of the male beaver, which contain a very odorous substance, soft, and almost fluid when recently cut from the animal, but which dries, and assumes a resinous consistence in process of time. This substance has an acrid, bitter, and a nauseous taste; its smell is strong, aromatic, and even fœtid. It is used medicinally as a powerful antispasmodic in hysterical and hypochondriacal affections, and in convulsions. It has also been successfully administered in epilepsy and tetanus.

CASTRATION, (*Castratio, ōnis,* f.). A chirurgical operation by which a testicle is removed from the body.

CATALEPSY, (*Catalepsis, is,* f. from καταλαμβανειν, to seize, to hold). A sudden suppression of motion and sensation, the body remaining in the same posture that it was in when seized.

CATAMĒNĬA, (*Catamenia, æ,* f. καταμηνια; from κατα, according to, and μην, the month). *Menses.* The monthly discharge of blood from the uterus of females, between the ages of 16 and 50. Many have questioned whether the catamenial discharge arose from a mere rupture of vessels, or whether it was owing to a secretory action. There can be little doubt of the truth of the latter. The secretory organ is composed of the arterious vessels situated in the fundus of the uterus. The dissection of women who have died during the time of their menstruating, proves this. Sometimes, though very rarely, women, during pregnancy, menstruate; and when this happens, the discharge takes place from the arterial vessels of the vagina. During pregnancy and lactation, when the person is in good health, the catamenia, for the most part, cease to flow. The quantity a female menstruates each time is very varied; depending on climate, and a variety of other circumstances. It is commonly in England from five to six ounces: it rarely exceeds eight. Its duration is from three to four, and sometimes, though rarely, five days. With respect to the nature of the discharge, it differs very much from pure blood; it never coagulates; but is sometimes grumous, and membranes like the decidua are formed in difficult menstruations: in some women it always smells rank and peculiar; in others it is inodorous. The use of this monthly secretion is to render the uterus fit for the conception and nutrition of the fœtus; therefore girls rarely conceive before the catamenia appear, and women rarely after their entire cessation; but very easily after menstruation.

CATAPHŎRA, (*Cataphora,* καταφορα; from καταφερω, to make sleepy). *Coma somnolentum.* A preternatural propensity to sleep.

CATAPLASM, (*Cataplasma, ătis,* n. καταπλασμα; from καταπλασσω, to spread like a plaster). A poultice.

CATAPLASMA ALUMĬNIS. This application was formerly used to inflammation of the eyes, which was kept up from weakness of the vessels;

it is now ſeldom uſed, a ſolution of alum being moſtly ſubſtituted.

Cataplasma cumīni. This is a warm and ſtimulating poultice, and was formerly much uſed as an irritating antiſeptic application to gangrenous ulcers, and the like. It is now ſeldom ordered.

Cataplasma sinapĕos. Muſtard poultices are often applied to the ſoles of the feet in fevers, where there is a great determination of blood to the head. They are alſo applied under other circumſtances, where a ſtimulus is wanted.

Cataputĭa, (*Cataputia, æ*, f. καλαπυθια; from καλαπυθα, to have an ill ſavour; or from the Italian *cacapuzza*, which has the ſame meaning: ſo named from its fœtid ſmell). Spurge.

Cataputĭa major. See *Ricinus*.

Cataputĭa mĭnor. The plant ſo called in the pharmacopœias, is the *Euphorbia lathyris*; *umbella quadrifida, dichotoma, foliis oppoſitis integerrimis*, of Linnæus. The ſeeds poſſeſs purgative properties; but if exhibited in an over doſe, prove draſtic and poiſonous, a quality peculiar to all the *euphorbiæ*.

Cataract, (*Cataracta, æ*, f. καταρακτα; from καταρασσω, to confound or diſturb; becauſe the ſenſe of viſion is confounded, if not deſtroyed). See *Caligo*.

Catarrhus, (*Catarrhus, i*, m. καταῤῥοος, a defluxion; from καταῤῥεω, to flow down). *Coryza*. A catarrh. An increaſed ſecretion of mucus from the membranes of the noſe, fauces, and bronchiæ, with pyrexia, and attended with ſneezing, cough, thirſt, laſſitude, and want of appetite. It is a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ*, and order *profluvia*, of Cullen. There are two ſpecies of catarrh, viz. *catarrhus à frigore*, which is very common, and is called a cold in the head; and *catarrhus à contagione*, the influenza, which ſometimes ſeizes a whole city. Catarrh is alſo ſymptomatic of ſeveral other diſeaſes.

Catĕchu, (*Catechu*, n. Ind. It is ſaid, that, in the Japaneſe language, *kate* ſignifies a tree, and *chu*, juice). *Terra japonica*. Japan earth. An extract prepared in India from the juice of the *Mimoſa catechu ſpinis ſtipularibus, foliis bipinnatis multijugis, glandulis partialium ſingulis, ſpicis axillaribus geminis ſeu ternis pedunculatis*, of Linnæus, Claſs. *Polygamia*. Order. *Monoecia*; by boiling the wood and evaporating the decoction by the heat of the ſun. In its pureſt ſtate, it is a dry, pulverable ſubſtance, outwardly of a reddiſh colour, internally of a ſhining dark brown, tinged with a reddiſh hue; in the mouth it diſcovers conſiderable adſtringency, ſucceeded by a ſweetiſh mucilaginous taſte. It may be advantageouſly employed for moſt purpoſes where an adſtringent is indicated, and is particularly uſeful in alvine fluxes where aſtringents are required. Beſides this, it is employed alſo in uterine profluvia, in laxity and debility of the viſcera in general; and it is an excellent topical adſtringent, when ſuffered to diſſolve leiſurely in the mouth, for laxities and ulcerations of the gums, aphthous ulcers in the mouth, and ſimilar affections. This extract is the baſis of ſeveral formulæ in our pharmacopœias, particularly of a tincture and an extract: but one of the beſt forms under which it can be exhibited, is that of a ſimple infuſion in warm water with a proportion of cinnamon, for by this means it is at once freed of its impurities and improved by the addition of the aromatic. Fourcroy ſays that catechu is prepared from the ſeeds of a kind of palm, called areca.

Cathartics, (*Cathartica, ſc. medicamenta*, καθαρτικα; from καθαιρω, to purge). Thoſe medicines, which taken internally increaſe the number

of alvine evacuations. The different articles referred to this class of medicines are divided into five orders: 1. *Stimulating cathartics*, as *jalap*, *aloes*, and *bitter apple*, which are well calculated to discharge accumulations of serum, and are mostly selected for indolent and phlegmatic habits, and those who are hard to purge. 2. *Refrigerating cathartics*, as *Glauber salts*, *Epsom salts*, *sal polychrest*, and *cremor tartar*. These are better adapted for plethoric habits, and those with an inflammatory diathesis. 3. *Adstringent cathartics*, as *rhubarb* and *damask roses*, which are mostly given to those whose bowels are weak and irritable, and subject to diarrhœa. 4. *Emollient cathartics*, as *manna*, *malva*, *castor oil*, and *olive oil*, which may be given in preference to other cathartics to children and the very aged. 5. *Narcotic cathartics*, as *tobacco*, *hyoscíamus*, and *digitalis*. This order is never given but to the very strong and indolent, and to maniacal patients, as their operation is very powerful.

CATHĔTER, (*Catheter*, καθετηρ; from καθιημι, to thrust into). A long and hollow tube, that is introduced by surgeons into the urinary bladder, to remove the urine when the person is unable to pass it. They are either made of silver or of the elastic gum. That for the male urethra is much longer than that for the female, and so curved, if made of silver, as to adapt itself to the urethra.

CATHETERISMUS, (*Catheterismus*, m. καθετηρισμος; from καθετηρ, a catheter). The term given by P. Ægineta to the operation of introducing the catheter.

CATMINT. See *Nepeta*.

CAUDA, (*Cauda*, æ, f. from *cado*, to fall; because it hangs or falls down behind). A tail.

CAUDA EQUĪNA. The spinal marrow, at its termination about the second lumbar vertebra, gives off a large number of nerves, which, when unravelled, resemble the horse's tail; hence the name.

CAUDA EQUĪNA. See *Equisetum*.

CAUL. The English name for the omentum. See *Omentum*.

CAULIFLOWER. A species of brassica, whose flower is cut before the frutification expands. The observations which have been made concerning cabbages are applicable here. Cauliflower is, however, a far more delicious vegetable.

CAUSTIC ALKALI.

CAUSTIC BARLEY. See *Cevadilla*.

CAUSTICS, (*Caustica*, *sc. medicamenta*, καυστικα; from καιω, to burn; because they always produce a burning sensation). See *Escharotics*.

CAUSTĬCUM ANTIMONIĀLE. See *Antimonium muriatum*.

CAUSTĬCUM COMMŪNE FORTĬUS. See *Calx cum kali puro*.

CAUSTĬCUM LUNĀRE. See *Argentum nitratum*.

CAUTERY, (*Cauterium*, *i*, n. καυτηριον; from καιω, to burn). Cauteries were divided by the ancients into *actual* and *potential*; but the term is now given only to the red hot iron, or *actual cautery*.

CAVA. See *Vena cava ascendens* and *descendens*.

CAYENNE PEPPER. See *Piper indicum*.

CEDAR. See *Cedrinum lignum*.

CEDRĪNUM LIGNUM. Cedar of Lebanus. An odoriferous wood, more fragrant than that of the fir, but possessing similar virtues.

CELANDINE. See *Chelidonium majus*.

CELERY. See *Apium*.

CELLULAR MEMBRANE. *Membrana cellulosa*. *Tela cellulosa*. The cellular structure, composed of laminæ and fibres variously joined together, which is the connecting medium of every part of the body. It is by means of the communication of the cells of this membrane that the butch-

ers blow up their veal. The cellular membrane is by ſome anatomiſts diſtinguiſhed into the reticular and adipoſe membrane. The former is evidently diſperſed throughout the whole body, except the ſubſtance of the brain. It makes a bed for the other ſolids of the body, covers them all, and unites them one to another. The adipoſe membrane conſiſts of the reticular ſubſtance and a particular apparatus for the ſecretion of oil, and is moſtly found immediately under the ſkin of many parts, and about the kidneys.

CENTAURĒA BEHEN. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal *behen album*. See *Behen album*.

CENTAURĒA BENEDICTA. The ſyſtematic name of the bleſſed thiſtle. See *Carduus benedictus*.

CENTAURĒA CALCITRAPA. The ſyſtematic name of the calcitrapa. See *Calcitrapa*.

CENTAURĒA CYANUS. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the *flores cyani*. See *Cyanus*.

CENTAURIUM, (*Centaurium, i.* n. κενταυριον; from κενταυρος, a centaur: ſo called becauſe it was feigned that Chiron cured Hercules's foot, which he had wounded with a poiſonous arrow, with it). The herb centaury.

CENTAURĪUM MINUS, (*Centaurium, i,* n. from κενταυρος, a centaur). Centaury. *Gentiana centaurium* of Linnæus and Hudſon. *Gentiana corollis quinquifidis infundibuliformibus, caule dichotomo, piſtilli ſimplici.* Claſs. *Pentandria.* Order. *Monogynia,* and *Chironia centaurium* of Withering and Curtis. This plant is juſtly eſteemed to be the moſt efficacious bitter of all the medicinal plants indigenous to this country. It has been recommended by Cullen as a ſubſtitute for gentian, and by ſeveral is thought to be a more uſeful medicine. The tops of the centaury plant are directed for uſe by the colleges of London and Edinburgh, and are moſt commonly given in infuſion; but they may alſo be taken in powder, or prepared into an extract.

CENTAURY. See *Centaurium minus*.

CENTRUM OVĀLE. When the two hemiſpheres of the brain are removed on a line with the level of the *corpus calloſum*, the internal medullary part preſents a ſomewhat oval centre; hence it is called *centrum ovale*. Vieuſſenius ſuppoſed all the medullary fibres met at this place.

CENTRUM TENDINŌSUM. The tendinous centre of the diaphragm is ſo called. See *Diaphragm*.

CENTUMNODĬA, (*Centumnodia, æ,* f. from *centum,* a hundred, and *nodus,* a knot; ſo called from its many knots or joints). Common knot-graſs. This plant, *Polygonum aviculare; floribus octandris trigynis axillaribus, foliis lanceolatis, caule procumbente herbaceo,* of Linnæus, is never uſed in this country; it is ſaid to be uſeful in ſtopping hœmorrhages, diarrhœas, &c. but little credit is to be given to what is ſaid of it.

CEPA, (*Cepa, æ,* f. from κηπος, a woolcard; from the likeneſs of its roots). The onion. This bulbous root belongs to the *Allium cepa; ſcapo nudo inferne ventricoſo longiore, foliis teretibus,* of Linnæus. Onions are acrid and ſtimulating, and poſſeſs very little nutriment. With bilious conſtitutions they generally produce flatulency, thirſt, head-ach, and febrile ſymptoms; but where the temperament is phlegmatic they are of infinite ſervice, by ſtimulating the habit and promoting the natural ſecretions, particularly expectoration and urine. They are recommended in ſcorbutic caſes, as poſſeſſing anti-ſcorbutic properties. Externally, onions are employed in ſuppurating poultices, and ſuppreſſion of urine in children is ſaid to be relieved by applying them, roaſted, to the pubes.

CEPHALALGĬA, (*Cephalalgia,*

f. κεφαλαλγια, from κεφαλη, the head, and αλγος, pain). Pain in the head.

CEPHALICS, (*Cephalica, sc. medicamenta*, κεφαλικα; from κεφαλη, the head). Remedies that relieve disorders of the head.

CEPHALĪTIS, (*Cephalitis, ĭdis*, f. from κεφαλη, the head). Inflammation of the head. See *Phrenitis*.

CEPHALIC VEIN. *Vena cephalica*. (So called, because the head was supposed to be relieved by opening it). The anterior vein of the arm that receives the cephalic of the thumb.

CEPHALO-PHARYNGĒUS. See *Constrictor pharyngis superior*.

CERA, (*Cera, æ*, f. wax). Wax. Bees wax. A solid concrete substance, collected from vegetables by bees; and extracted from their combs after the honey is got out, by heating and pressing them. With rectified spirit it forms, by the assistance of heat, a gelatinous liquid. It is perfectly insoluble in watery liquors. When melted, it assumes the appearance of oil, and in this state is easily combined with oils and liquid fats. It is very inflammable, and burns totally away. In the state in which it is obtained from the combs, it is called yellow wax, *cera flava*, and this, when new, is of a lively yellow colour, somewhat tough, yet easy to break: by age it loses its fine colour, and becomes harder and more brittle. Yellow wax, after being reduced into thin cakes, and bleached by a long exposure to the sun and open air, is again melted, and formed into round cakes, called virgin's wax, or white wax, *cera alba*. The chief medicinal use of wax, is in plasters, unguents, and other like external applications, partly for giving the requisite consistence to other ingredients, and partly on account of its own emollient quality.

CERĂSA NĬGRA, (*Cerasa, æ*, f. κερασος, the cherry tree: from κερασουν, a town in Pontus, whence Lucullus first brought them to Rome; or from κηρ, the heart; from its resemblance to it in shape and colour). The black cherry. The ripe fruit of the *Prunus avium; umbellis sessilibus, foliis ovato-lanceolatis, subtus pubescentibus, conduplicatis*, of Linnæus. The flavour of these is esteemed by many, and if not taken in too large quantities they are extremely salutary. A gum exudes from the tree, whose properties are similar to those of gum arabic.

CERĂSA RUBRA. The red cherry. The ripe fruit of the *Prunus cerasus; umbellis subpedunculatis, foliis ovato-lanceolatis glabris conduplicatis*, of Linnæus. This species possesses a pleasant, acidulated, sweet flavour, and is extremely proper in fevers, scurvy, and bilious obstructions. Red cherries are mostly eaten as a luxury, and are very wholesome, except to those whose bowels are remarkably irritable.

CERATE, (*Ceratum, i*, n.). A composition something harder than ointment, and softer than plaster.

CERATO-GLOSSUS. See *Hyoglossus*.

CERATONĬA SILĬQUA. The systematic name of the plant which affords the sweet-pod. See *Siliqua dulcis*.

CERĀTUM ALBUM. See *Ceratum spermatis ceti*.

CERĀTUM CANTHARĬDIS. This is a much milder preparation than the unguentum cantharidis, and is applied to keep up a discharge from blisters, where the skin is very irritable, and a milder stimulus wanted.

CERĀTUM CITRĬNUM. See *Ceratum resinæ flavæ*.

CERĀTUM EPULOTĬCUM. See *Ceratum lapidis calaminaris*.

CERĀTUM LAPĬDIS CALAMINĀRIS. The old name of this was Turner's cerate, and *ceratum epuloticum*. It is calculated to promote the cicatrisation of ulcers.

CERĀTUM LITHARGŸRI ACETĀTI. This is recommended as a proper application to superficial ulcers, which are inflamed.

CERĀTUM RESĪNÆ FLAVÆ. *Ceratum citrinum.* This is merely a milder application than the *unguentum reſinæ flavæ.*

CERĀTUM SAPŌNIS. Soap cerate is often applied round a fractured bone, it poſſeſſing a convenient degree of adheſiveneſs, and at the ſame time the uſual properties of a ſaturnine remedy.

CERĀTUM SPERMĀTIS CĒTI.—This preparation was formerly called *ceratum album.* It is an extremely mild and unctuous application, and may be applied with advantage to all ulcers, where no ſtimulating ſubſtance can be applied.

CERĔBELLUM, (*Cerebellum, i,* n. dim. of *cerebrum*). The little brain or cerebellum. A round viſcus, of the ſame uſe as the brain; compoſed, like the brain, of a cortical and medullary ſubſtance, divided by a ſeptum into a right and left lobe, and ſituated under the tentorium, in the inferior occipital foſſæ. In the cerebellum are to be obſerved the *crura cerebelli,* the fourth ventricle, the *valvula magna cerebri,* and the *protuberant æ vermiformes.*

CĔRĔBRUM, (*Cerebrum, i,* n. *quaſi carabrum*; from καρα, the head). The brain. A large round viſcus, divided ſuperiorly into a *right* and *left hemiſphere,* and inferiorly into *ſix lobes,* two anterior, two middle, and two poſterior; ſituated within the cranium, and ſurrounded by the dura and pia mater, and tunica arachnoides. It is compoſed of a *cortical ſubſtance,* which is external; and a *medullary,* which is internal. It has three *cavities* called *ventricles*; two anterior or lateral, which are divided from each other by the *ſeptum lucidum,* and in which is the *choroid plexus,* formed of blood-veſſels; the third ventricle is a ſpace between the thalami nervorum opticorum. The principal prominences of the brain are, the *corpus calloſum,* a medullary eminence, conſpicuous upon laying aſide the hemiſpheres of the brain; the *corpora ſtriata,* two ſtriated protuberances, one in the anterior part of each lateral ventricle; the *thalami nervorum opticorum,* two whitiſh eminencies behind the former, which terminate in the optic nerves; the *corpora quadrigemina,* four medullary projections called by the ancients *nates* and *teſtes*; a little cerebrine tubercle lying upon the nates, called the *pineal gland*; and laſtly, the *crura cerebri,* two medullary columns which proceed from the baſis of the brain to the *medulla oblongata.* The cerebrine arteries are branches of the carotid and vertebral arteries. The veins of the head are called *ſinuſſes,* which return their blood into the internal jugulars. The uſe of the brain is to give off nine pairs of nerves, through whoſe means the various ſenſes are performed, and muſcular motion excited.

CERCŌSIS, (*Cercoſis, is,* f. κερκωσις; from κερκος, a tail). A polypus of the uterus. It is ſometimes applied to an enlargement of the clitoris.

CEREALĬA, (*Cerealia, ium,* n. pl. Solemn feaſts to the goddeſs Ceres). All ſorts of corn, of which bread or any nutritious ſubſtance is made, come under the head of *cerealia,* which term is applied by bromatologiſts as a genus.

CEREFOLĬUM, (*Cerefolium, i,* n. a corruption of chœrophyllum). *Chærophyllum. Chærefolium.* Chervil. This plant, *Scandix cerefolium*; *ſeminibus nitidis, ovato-ſubulatis*; *umbellis ſeſſilibus, lateralibus,* of Linnæus, is a ſalubrious culinary herb, ſufficiently grateful both to the palate and ſtomach, ſlightly aromatic, gently aperient, and diuretic.

CERĔI MEDICĀTI. Bougies. See *Bougies.*

CERŬMEN AURĬUM, (*Cerumen, ĭnis,* n. dim. of *cera,* wax). The waxy ſecretion of the ears, ſituated in the meatus auditorius externus.

CERUSSA, (*Ceruſſa, æ,* f. κηρωσσα

σα; from κηρος, wax, or from *razaz*, Arab.). Ceruſſe. White lead. This preparation is the acetous oxyd of lead in the new chemical nomenclature, *oxydum plumbi album acetatum*: it is ſometimes employed medicinally, in form of powder and ointment, to children whoſe ſkin is fretted. It ſhould, however, be uſed cautiouſly, as there is great reaſon to believe that complaints of the bowels of children originate from its abſorption.

CERUSSA ACETĀTA. *Saccharum ſaturni.* Sugar of lead. This is an acetite of lead, and therefore called *acetis plumbi* in the new chemical nomenclature. It poſſeſſes adſtringent and ſedative powers, and is given internally, in very ſmall doſes, in hæmorrhagic complaints. Great attention ſhould be paid to keeping the bowels open during its exhibition, for it otherwiſe produces the *colica pictonum*. Externally, it is employed as a powerful reſolvent in inflammatory affections.

CERVICAL, (*Cervicalis*; from *cervix*, the neck). Belonging to the neck; as cervical nerves, cervical muſcles, &c.

CERVICAL ARTERIES. *Arteriæ cervicāles.* Branches of the ſubclavians.

CERVIX, (*Cervix, īcis*, f.). The hinder part of the neck.

CETERACH, (*Ceterach*. Blanchard ſays this word is corrupted from *Pteryga*, πτερυξ, q. v. as peterygа, ceterygа, and ceterach). *Scolopendria vera. Dorodilla?* Spleenwort. Miltwaſte. This ſmall buſhy plant, *Aſplenium ceterach; frondibus pinnatifidis, lobis alternis confluentibus obtuſis*, of Linnæus, grows upon old walls and rocks. It has an herbaceous, mucilaginous, roughiſh taſte, and is recommended as a pectoral. In Spain it is given, with great ſucceſs, in nephritic and calculous diſeaſes.

CEVADILLA, (*Cevadilla, æ*, f. dim. of *ceveda*, barley. Spaniſh). *Cevadilla hiſpanorum. Sevadilla. Sabadilla. Hordeum cauſticum.* Indian cauſtic barley. The plant whoſe ſeeds are thus denominated is a ſpecies of *veratrum*: they are powerfully cauſtic, and are adminiſtered with very great ſucceſs as a vermifuge.

CEYENNE PEPPER. See *Piper indicum.*

CHÆREFOLĬUM. See *Cerefolium.*

CHÆROPHYLLUM, (*Chærophyllum, i*, n. χαιροφυλλον; from χαιρω, to rejoice, and φυλλον, a leaf; ſo called from the abundance of its leaves).

CHÆROPHYLLUM SYLVESTRE. See *Cicutaria.*

CHACARILLÆ CORTEX. See *Caſcarilla.*

CHALAZĬON, (*Chalazion, i*, n. χαλαζιον; from χαλαζα, a hail-ſtone). *Chalaza. Grando.* An indolent, moveable tubercle on the margin of the eyelid, like a hail-ſtone.

CHALK. *Creta. Carbōnas calcis.* Pure chalk is a neutral ſalt, formed by the union of the cretaceous acid with lime. It is much uſed as an abſorbent and antacid, to ſtop diarrhœas accompanied with acidity of the primæ viæ.

CHALK. See *Creta.*

CHALYBEATE, (*Chalybeata, ſc. medicamenta*; from *chalybs*, ſteel). Of or belonging to iron. A term given to any medicine into which iron enters; as chalybeate mixture, pills, waters, &c.

CHALYBEATE WATER. *Aqua chalybeata.* Any mineral water which abounds with iron; theſe are the waters of Tunbridge, Spa, Pyrmont, Cheltenham, Scarborough, and Hartfel.

CHALŸBIS RUBĪGO PRÆPARATA. See *Rubigo ferri.*

CHĂLYBS, (*Chalybs, ўbis*, m. from *Chalybes*, a people in Pontus, who dug iron out of the earth). Steel. The beſt, hardeſt, fineſt, and the cloſeſt grained forged iron.

CHAMÆDRYS, (*Chamædrys, dryŏs*, f. χαμαιδρυς; from χαμαι, the ground, and δρυς, the oak: ſo called from its leaves reſembling thoſe of the oak). Germander. This plant, *Teucrium chamædrys; foliis cuneiformi-ovatis, inciſis, crenatis, petiolatis; floribus ternis; caulibus procumbentibus, ſubpiloſis*, of Linnæus, has a moderately bitter and ſomewhat aromatic taſte. It was in high repute amongſt the ancients in intermittent fevers, rheumatiſm, and gout; and where an aromatic bitter is wanting, germander may be adminiſtered with ſucceſs.

CHAMÆLEON ALBUM. *Carlina. Cardopatium.* Carline thiſtle. *Carlina acaulis; caule unifloro, flore breviore*, of Linnæus. The root of this plant is bitter, and ſaid to poſſeſs diaphoretic and anthelmintic virtues. It is alſo extolled by foreign phyſicians in the cure of acute, malignant, and chronic diſorders.

CHĂMÆMĒLUM, (*Chamæmelum, i*, n. χαμαιμηλον; from χαμαι, the ground, and μηλον, an apple; becauſe it grows upon the ground, and has the ſmell of an apple). *Chamæmelum nobile. Chamomilla romana.* Common camomile. *Anthemis nobilis; foliis pinnato-compoſitis linearibus acutis ſubvilloſis*, of Linnæus. Claſs. *Syngeneſia.* Order. *Polygamia ſuperflua.* Both the leaves and flowers of this indigenous plant have a ſtrong, though not ungrateful ſmell, and a very bitter, nauſeous taſte: but the latter are the bitterer, and conſiderably more aromatic. They poſſeſs tonic and ſtomachic qualities, and are much employed to reſtore tone to the ſtomach and inteſtines, and as a pleaſant and cheap bitter. A ſimple infuſion is frequently taken to excite vomiting, or for promoting the operation of emetics. Externally they are uſed in the *decoctum pro fomento*, and are an ingredient in the *decoctum pro enemate.*

CHAMÆMĒLUM FLORE PLENO. Double chamomile. A variety of the officinal *chamæmelum*, produced by culture.

CHAMÆMĒLUM NOBĬLE. See *Chamæmelum.*

CHAMÆMĒLUM VULGĀRE. *Chamomilla noſtras.* The plant directed under this name in the pharmacopœias, is the *Matricaria chamomilla; receptaculis conicis; radiis patentibus; ſquamis calycinis, margine æqualibus*, of Linnæus. Its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of the chamæmelum, but in a much inferior degree.

CHAMÆMORUS, (*Chamæmorus, i*, from χαμαι, on the ground, and μορεα, the mulberry tree). Cloud-berries. The ripe fruit of this plant, *Rubus chamæmorus; foliis ſimplicibus lobatis, caule interni unifloro*, of Linnæus, is prepared in Sweden, &c. into a jam; and is recommended to allay thirſt, &c. in fevers, phthiſical diſeaſes, hœmoptyſis, &c.

CHAMÆPITYS, (*Chamæpitys, pityos*, f. χαμαιπιτυς; from χαμαι, the ground, and πιτυς, the pine tree). This low hairy plant, *Teucrium chamæpitys; foliis trifidis, linearibus, integerrimis; floribus ſeſſilibus, lateralibus, ſolitariis; caule diffuſo*, of Linnæus, has a moderately bitter taſte, and a reſinous, not diſagreeable ſmell, ſomewhat like that of the pine. The tops or leaves are recommended as aperients and corroborants of the nervous ſyſtem, and ſaid to be particularly ſerviceable in female obſtructions and paralytic diſorders.

CHAMBERS OF THE EYE. The ſpace between the capſule of the cryſtalline lens and the cornea is divided by the iris into two; the ſpace before the iris is termed the anterior chamber; and that behind it, the poſterior. They are filled with an aqueous fluid.

CHAMOMILLA NOSTRAS. See *Chamæmelum vulgare.*

CHAMOMILLA ROMĀNA. See *Chamæmelum.*

CHANCRE, (*Canker*. French). A primary venereal ulcer on the parts of generation.

CHARCOAL. *Carbonicum*. See *Carbon*.

CHASTE TREE. See *Agnus caſtus*.

CHEESE RENNET. See *Galium luteum*.

CHEIRANTHUS, (*Cheiranthus, i*, m. χειρανθος; from χειρ, a hand, and ανθος, a flower: ſo named from the likeneſs of its bloſſoms to the fingers of the hand). The wall-flower.

CHEIRANTHUS CHEIRI. The ſyſtematic name of the wallflower. See *Cheiri*.

CHEIRI, (*Cheiri*, n. Ind. Arab). The flowers of this plant, *Cheiranthus cheiri*; *foliis lanceolatis, acutis, glabris*; *ramis angulatis*; *caule fruticoſo*, of Linnæus, are recommended as poſſeſſing nervine and deobſtruent virtues. They have a moderately ſtrong, pleaſant ſmell, and a nauſeous, bitter, ſomewhat pungent taſte.

CHELÆ CANCRŌRUM. See *Cancer*.

CHELIDONĬUM MAJUS, (*Chelidonium, i*, n. χελειδωνιον; from χειδων, the ſwallow. It is ſo named from an opinion, that it was pointed out as uſeful for the eyes by ſwallows, who are ſaid to open the eyes of their young by it; or becauſe it bloſſoms about the time when ſwallows appear). Χελιδονιον μεγα. Celandine. The herb and root of this plant, *Chelidonium majus*; *pedunculis umbellatis*, of Linnæus, have a faint, unpleaſant ſmell, and a bitter, acrid, durable taſte, which is ſtronger in the roots than the leaves. They are recommended in icterus, cachexiæ, chloroſis, dropſies, &c. It ſhould be adminiſtered with caution, as it is liable to irritate the ſtomach and bowels.

CHELIDONĬUM MINUS. Pilewort. The leaves and root of this plant, *Ranunculus ficaria*; *foliis cordatis angulatis petiolatis, caule unifloro*, of Linnæus, are uſed medicinally. The former as antiſcorbutics, and the latter as ſpecifics, againſt the piles, applied in form of poultices.

CHELTENHAM WATER. A mineral ſaline water; the greater part of whoſe ſalts are of a purgative kind. It is alſo one of the ſtrongeſt chalybeates. The iron is ſuſpended entirely by the carbonic acid, of which gaz the water contains about an eighth of its bulk; but from the abundance of earthy carbonats and oxyd of iron, not much of it is uncombined. Cheltenham water is uſed with conſiderable benefit in a number of diſeaſes, eſpecially of the chronic kind, and many of them highly difficult of cure; in glandular obſtructions, and eſpecially thoſe that affect the liver and the other organs connected with the functions of the alimentary canal, and in ſcorbutic eruptions of the ſkin.

CHEMISTRY, (*Chemia, æ*, f. χημια, and ſometimes χημεια; *chamiah*, from *chamah*, to burn, Arab. this ſcience being the examination of all ſubſtances by fire). The learned are not yet agreed as to the moſt proper definition of chemiſtry. Boerhaave ſeems to have ranked it among the arts. According to Macquer, it is *a ſcience, whoſe object is to diſcover the nature and properties of all bodies by their analyſis and combinations*. Dr. Black ſays, it is *a ſcience which teaches, by experiments, the effects of heat and mixture on bodies*; and Fourcroy defines it *a ſcience which teaches the mutual actions of all natural bodies on each other*. *Chemiſtry*, ſays Jacquin, *is that branch of natural philoſophy which unfolds the nature of all material bodies, determines the number and properties of their component parts, and teaches us how thoſe parts are united, and by what means they may be ſeparated and recombined*. Mr. Heron defines it, *that ſcience which inveſtigates and explains the laws of that attraction which takes place between the minute component particles of natural bodies*. The objects

to which the attention of chemists is directed comprehend the whole of the substances that compose the globe.

Chemōsis (*Chemosis, is*, f. χημασις; from χαινω, to gape; because it gives the appearance of a gap or aperture). Inflammation of the conjunctive membrane of the eye, in which the cellular structure of the eye is distended with a florid fluid, and elevated above the margin of the transparent cornea.

Chenopodĭum, (*Chenopodium, i*, n. χηνοποδιον; from χην, a goose, and πους, a foot: so called from its supposed resemblance to a goose's foot). The herb chenopody, goose's foot, or *pes anserinus*.

Chenopodĭum ambrosioidēs. The systematic name of the Mexican tea plant. See *Botrys mexicana*.

Chenopodĭum anthelmintĭcum. The seeds of this plant, *Chenopodium anthelminticum*; *foliis ovato-oblongis dentatis, racemis aphyllis*, of Linnæus, although in high esteem in America for the cure of worms, are never exhibited in this country. The seeds are powdered, and made into an electuary with any proper substance.

Chenopodĭum bonus henrīcus. The systematic name of the English mercury. See *Bonus henricus*.

Chenopodĭum botrys. The systematic name of the Jerusalem oak. See *Botrys vulgaris*.

Chenopodĭum vulvārĭa. The systematic name of the stinking orache. See *Atriplex olida*.

Cherry. See *Cerasa nigra* and *rubra*.

Cherry-bay. See *Lauro-cerasus*.

Cherry-laurel. See *Lauro-cerasus*.

Cherry, winter. See *Alkekengi*.

Chervil. See *Cerefolium*.

Chesnut, horse. See *Hippocastanum*.

Chian pepper. See *Piper indicum*.

Chian turpentine. See *Chio-turpentine*.

Chibou gum. A spurious kind of *elemi*.

Chicken-pox. See *Varicella*.

Chickweed. See *Alsine media*.

Chilblain. *Pernio. Erythema* of Cullen. An inflammation of the extreme parts of the body, from the application of cold, attended with a violent itching, and soon forming a gangrenous ulcer.

China, (*China, æ*, f. so named from the country of China, from whence it was brought). China root is obtained from the *Similax china*; *caule aculeato, teretiusculo*; *foliis inermis, ovato-cordatis, quinque nerviis*, of Linnæus. It was formerly in esteem, as sarsaparilla now is, in the cure of the venereal disease.

China chinæ. A name given to the Peruvian bark, a native of some parts in China.

Chinchĭna angustĭfolĭa.—This bark is obtained from the *Cinchona angustifolia; foliis lanceolatis, pubescentibus, floribus paniculatis*, of Swartz. Its virtues are similar to those of the common Peruvian bark, described under the head *Cinchona*. If any thing, is is said to be more adstringent, and to have an aromatic mixture.

Chinchĭna caribæa. *Chinchina jamaicensis*. The bark ordered by this title in foreign pharmacopœias, is stripped from the *Cinchona caribæa*; *pedunculis unifloris*, of Linnæus. It is administered with great success in Jamaica, by Dr. Wright, in remittent fevers.

Chinchina de Santa fe.—There are several species of bark sent from Santa fè: but neither their particular natures, nor the trees which afford them, are yet accurately determined.

Chinchĭna jaimaicensis. See *Chinchina carabæa*

Chinchĭna rubra. See *Cinchona cortex peruvianus ruber*.

Chichĭna St. Luciæ. St. Lucia bark is collected from the *Anchona floribunda*; *floribus paniculatis glabris, capsulis turbinatis lævibus, foliis ellipticis acuminatis glabris*, of Swartz; it has an adstringent, bitter taste, somewhat like gentian. It is recommended in intermittents, putrid dysentery, and dyspepsia; it should always be joined to some aromatic.

Chinese smilax. See *China*.

Chio turpentine. *Terebinthina de Chio*. Cyprus turpentine. Chian turpentine. This substance is classed among the resins. It is procured by wounding the bark of the trunk of the *Pistachia terebinthus* of Linnæus. The best Chio turpentine is about the consistence of honey, very tenacious, clear, and almost transparent; of a white colour, inclining to yellow, and a fragrant smell, moderately warm to the taste, but free from acrimony and bitterness. Its medicinal qualities are similar to those of the turpentines. See *Turpentines*.

Chirăgra, (*Chiragra*, æ, f. χειραγρα; from χ , the hand, and αγρα, a seizure). The gout in the joints of the hand See *Arthritis*.

Chirurgĭa, (*Chirurgia*, æ, f. χειρουργια; from χειρ, the hand, and εργον, a work; because surgical operations are performed by the hand). Surgery.

Chlorōsis, (*Chlorosis*, is, f. χλορωσις; from χλωρος, green, pale; from the yellow greenish look those have who are affected with it). The green sickness. A genus of disease in the class *cachexiæ*, and order *impetigines* of Cullen. It is a disease which affects young females who labour under a suppression of the menses. It is characterized by depraved appetite, bad digestion, livid paleness, great debility, palpitation, and a suppression of the menses.

Choke damp. The name given by miners to a noxious air, occasionally found in the bottom of mines and pits. It is probably carbonic acid. See *Carbonic acid*.

Choledŏchus ductus, (*Choledochus*, χοληδοχος; from χολη, bile, and δεχομαι, to receive, receiving or retaining the gall). *Ductus communis choledochus*. The common biliary duct, which conveys both cystic and hepatic bile into the intestinum duodenum.

Cholĕra, (*Cholera*, æ, f. χολερα; from χολη, bile, and ῥεω, to flow). A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi*. It is a purging and vomiting of bile, with anxiety, painful gripings, spasms of the abdominal muscles, and those of the thighs. There are two species of this genus; 1. *Cholera spontanea*, which happens, in hot seasons, without any manifest cause. 2. *Cholera accidentalis*, which occurs after the use of food that digests slowly, and irritates.

Chondrology, (*Chondrologia*, æ, f. χονδρολογια; from χονδρος, a cartilage, and λογος, a discourse). A discourse or treatise on cartilages.

Chorda tympāni, (*Chorda*, æ, f.). A branch of the seventh pair of nerves that passes through the tympanum.

Chordæ tendinĕæ. The tendinous and cord-like substances which connect the *corneæ columnæ* of the ventricles of the heart to the auricular valves.

Chordæ Willisĭi. The small fibres which cross the sinuses of the dura mater. They are so termed, because Willis first described them.

Chordee, (*Chordé*. French). A spasmodic contraction of the penis that sometimes attends gonorrhœa, and is often followed by a hæmorrhage.

CHORĒA SANCTI VITI, (*Chorea*, χορεια; from χορος, a chorus, which of old accompanied dancing. It is called St. Vitus's dance, becauſe ſome devotees of St. Vitus exerciſed themſelves ſo long in dancing, that their intellects were diſordered, and could only be reſtored by dancing again at the anniverſary of St. Vitus). St. Vitus's dance. Convulſive motions of the limbs, as if the perſon were dancing. It is a genus of diſeaſe arranged by Cullen in the claſs *neuroſes*, and order *ſpaſmi*.

CHORION, (*Chorion*, *i*, n. χοριον; from χωρεω, to eſcape; becauſe it always eſcapes from the uterus with the fœtus). Shaggy chorion. The external membrane of the fœtus in utero.

CHOROID MEMBRANE, (*Membrana choroidea*; from χοριον, the chorion, and ειδος, reſemblance). The ſecond tunic of the eye, lying immediately under the ſclerotica, to which it is connected by veſſels. The true knowledge of this membrane is neceſſary to a perfect idea of the iris and uvea. The tunica choroidea commences at the optic nerve, and paſſes forwards, with the ſclerotic coat, to the beginning of the cornea tranſparens, where it adheres very firmly to the ſclerotic membrane, by means of a cellular membrane, in the form of a white fringe, called the *ciliary circle*. It then recedes from the ſclerotica and cornea and ciliary circle directly downwards and inwards, forming a round diſk, which is variouſly coloured; hence blue, black eyes, &c. This coloured portion, reflected inwards, is termed the *iris*, and its poſterior ſurface is termed *uvea*. The choroid membrane is highly vaſcular, and its external veſſels are diſpoſed like ſtars, and termed *veſa vorticoſa*. The internal ſurface of this membrane is covered with a black pigment, called the pigment of the choroid membrane.

CHOROID PLEXUS. *Plexus choroidea*. A plexus of blood-veſſels, ſituated in the lateral ventricles of the brain.

CHRISTMAS ROSE. See *Helleborus niger*.

CHROME, (*Chromium*, *i*, n. from χρωμα, colour; becauſe its primary combinations impart its colour to all ſecondary ones). A white metal, inclining to a grey, very brittle, and cryſtallizable at an elevated temperature, in feathered filaments on the ſurface. Its internal fracture preſents in ſome parts cloſe grains, in other parts needles croſſing each other. It is an ingredient in the foſſil, known by that name in Siberia.

CHRONIC, (*Chronĭcus*, *ſc. morbus*; from χρονος, time). A term applied to diſeaſes which are of long continuance, and moſtly without fever. It is uſed in oppoſition to the term acute. See *Acute*.

CHRUPSĬA, (*Crupſia*, *æ*, f. χρεψια; from χρωω, colour, and οψια, ſight). *Viſus coloratus*. A diſeaſe of the eyes, in which the perſon perceives objects of a different colour from their natural.

CHRYSANTHĔMUM, (*Chryſanthemum*, *i*, n. χρυσανθεμον; from χρυσος, gold, and ανθεμος, a flower). Sunflower, or marygold. Many herbs are ſo called whoſe flowers are of a bright yellow colour.

CHRYSANTHĔMUM LEUCANTHĔMUM. The ſyſtematic name of the great ox-eye-daiſy. See *Bellis major*.

CHYLE, (*Chylus*, *i*, m.). The milk-like liquor, obſerved ſome hours after eating, in the lacteal veſſels of the meſentery and in the thoracic duct. It is ſeparated by digeſtion from the chyme, and is that fluid ſubſtance from which the blood is formed.

The chyle is abſorbed by the mouths of the lacteal veſſels, which are in the greateſt number in the jejunum and ilium, whilſt the fœx of the chyme, with the bile, are propelled into the

large inteſtines. The chyle of the human body ſmells like milk; has a ſweetiſh taſte, a white colour, and a conſiſtence thinner than blood and milk. Its ſpecific gravity is lighter than that of the blood, and hence it is that chyle is occaſionally ſeen ſwimming on the blood, if a vein be opened ſome hours after eating. The quality of the chyle is ſimilar to that of milk; for like it, it coagulates and aſceſces; but ſometimes its nature is altered from bad digeſted food or medicines: thus the chyle becomes blue from eating indigo; yellow, from the yolk of eggs, &c. The quantity of chyle depends upon that of the ingeſta and their greater or leſs nouriſhing power: from five or ſix pounds of food, very little more than two pounds of chyle are elaborated.

The conſtituent principles of chyle, are, 1. *Water*, which forms its greateſt part. 2. *Oily cream*, which chemiſtry teaches to be hydrogen and carbon. 3. *Cheeſe*, which, by the vis vitalis, is formed of the carbon and azot of the ingeſted food. 4. *Earth*, which is obtained from lacteal calculi, that are occaſionally found in the receptaculum chyli and lacteals. 5. *Animal lymph*, which is mixed with the gaſtric and enteric juices.

The nutritive principles of vegetables, are ſtarch, an albuminous principle, oil, vegetable gluten, and ſugar. The nutritive principles of animal ſubſtances, are oil, jelly, and animal gluten; and hence the reaſon why the chyle, ſeparated from vegetables, is of the ſame matter with that prepared from animal ingeſta is, that the principles of both are diſſolved into their elements, which are the ſame in animal and vegetable foods: thus the *cream* of the chyle is formed of carbon and hydrogen; and the *cheeſe* of the chyle, from the carbon and azot of both animal and vegetable ſubſtances.

The chyle is mixed with the albuminous and gelatinous lymph in the thoracic duct, which receives them from the lymphatics.

The uſes of the chyle are, 1. To ſupply the matter from which the blood and other fluids of our body are prepared; from which fluids the ſolid parts are formed. 2. By its aſceſcent nature, it ſomewhat reſtrains the putreſcent tendency of the blood: hence the dreadful putridity of the humours from ſtarving; and thus milk is an excellent remedy againſt ſcurvy. 2. By its very copious aqueous latex, it prevents the thickening of the fluids, and thus renders them fit for the various ſecretions. 4. The chyle ſecreted in the breaſts of puerperal women, under the name of milk, forms the moſt excellent nutriment of all aliments for new born infants.

CHYLIFICATION, (*Chylifactio, ōnis*, f. from *chylus*, and *fio*, to make). The proceſs, carried on in the ſmall inteſtines, and principally in the duodenum, by which the chyle is ſeparated from the chyme.

CHYLOPOETIC, (*Chylopoeticus*; χυλοποιητικος; from χυλος, chyle, and ποιεω, to make). Any thing connected with the formation of chyle; thus chylopoetic viſcera, chylopoetic veſſels, &c.

CHYME, (*Chymus, i*, m. from χυμος, which ſignifies humour or juice). The ingeſted maſs of food, that paſſes from the ſtomach into the duodenum, and from which the chyle is prepared in the ſmall inteſtines by the admixture of the bile, &c.

CHYNLEN RADIX. A cylindrical root, of the thickneſs of a gooſe-quil, brought from China. It has a biteriſh taſte, and imparts a yellow tinge to the ſaliva. The Chineſe hold it in great eſtimation as a ſtomachic, infuſed in wine.

CICĀTRIX, (*Cicatrix, ĭcis*, f. from *cicatrico*, to ſkin). A ſcar.

CICER, (*Cicer, eris*, n. Of uncertain origin, unleſs it be from the

Greek, κιχυς, ſtrength. The Ciceros had their name from this pulſe, as the Piſones had from the piſum or pea, and the Lentuli from the lens or lentil). Ερεβινθος. The ſeeds of this plant, *Cicer arietinum*; *foliis ſerratis*, of Linnæus, have been employed medicinally, but are now fallen into diſuſe. In ſome places they are toaſted, and uſed as coffee; and in others, ground into a flower for bread. The colour of the aryllus of the ſeed is ſometimes white, red, or black: hence the diſtinction into *cicer album*, *rubrum*, and *nigrum*.

Cicer arietīnum. The ſyſtematic name of the *cicer* plant.

Cichorīum, (*Cichorium*, *i*, n. Originally, according to Pliny, an Egyptian name, and adopted by the Greeks. It is written ſometimes Κιχορειον; whence Horace has—*cichoréæ*, *leveſque malvæ*: ſometime Κιχοριον, or Κιχωριον. It is ſuppoſed to have this name, παρα το δια των χωριων κιεναι, from its creeping through the fields.—Others derive it from κιχεω, *invenio*; on account of its being ſo readily found, or ſo common). Succory. *Cichorium*. Wild cichory. This plant, *Cichorium intybus*; *floribus geminis*, *ſeſſilibus*; *foliis runcinatis*, of Linnæus, abounds with a milky juice, of a penetrating, bitter taſte. The herb, root, ſeeds, and flowers have been uſed medicinally, in the cure of intermittents, and as aperients in hectic and inflammatory affections.

Cichorīum endivĭa. The ſyſtematic name of the endive. See *Endivia*.

Cichorīum intўbus. The ſyſtematic name of the wild cichory. See *Cichoreum*.

Cichory. See *Cichorium*.

Cichory, wild. See *Cichorium*.

Cicĭnum oleum, (Κικινος; from κικι, the ricinus). An oil, obtained by boiling the bruiſed ſeeds of the *Jatropha curcas* of Linnæus. It is ſomewhat ſimilar in its properties to caſtor oil. See *Ricinus*.

Cicūta, (*Cicuta*, *æ*, f. *quaſi cæcuta*, blind; becauſe it deſtroys the ſight of thoſe who uſe it. Cicuta ſignifies the internode, or ſpace between two joints of a reed; the hollow ſtem of any plant which the ſhepherds uſed for making their rural pipes. *Eſt mihi diſparibus ſeptem conjuncta cicutis fiſtula.*—Virgil). Hemlock. This plant, *Conium maculatum* of Linnæus, *Conium ſeminibus ſtriatis*. Claſs. *Pentandria*. Order. *Digynia*, is found in almoſt every part of England, and is diſtinguiſhed from thoſe plants which bear ſome reſemblance to it, by the ſpotted ſtem. It is generally believed to be a very active poiſon. When exhibited in immoderate doſes, it produces anxiety, cardialgia, vomiting, convulſions, vertigo, coma, and death. Baron Stoerk was the firſt who brought hemlock into repute as a medicine of extraordinary efficacy; and although it does not effect the wonderful cures of cancer it was ſaid to perform, it certainly poſſeſſes narcotic and antiſpaſmodic virtues. There is ſcarcely any diſeaſe, to which human nature is ſubject, in which this remedy, like mercury, is not exhibited internally by ſome phyſicians, and in thoſe of the glandular ſyſtem it appears, ſometimes, to be productive of benefit. Nor is it leſs efficacious when applied externally: a poultice made of oatmeal and the expreſſed juice, or a decoction of the extract, when the former cannot be obtained, allays the moſt excruciating torturous pains of a cancer, and thus gives reſt to the diſtracted patient.

Cicūta aquatĭca. Water hemlock. This plant, *Cicuta viroſa umbellis oppoſitifoliis*; *petiolis marginatis*, *obtuſis*, of Linnæus, is never employed medicinally in the preſent day. It is an active poiſon, and often eaten by miſtake for the wild ſmallage, the

Apium graveolens of Linnæus, when it produces tremors, vertigo, a violent burning at the ſtomach, epilepſy, convulſions, ſpaſms of the jaw, a flowing of blood from the ears, tumefaction of the abdomen, and death.

CICŪTA VIRŌSA. The ſyſtematic name of the water hemlock. See *Cicuta aquatica*.

CICUTARĬA, (*Cicutaria, æ*, f. from *cicuta*, hemlock). Baſtard hemlock. This plant, *Chærophyllum ſylveſtre; caule lævi, ſtriato; geniculis tumidiuſculis*, of Linnæus, is often miſtaken for the true hemlock. It may with great propriety be baniſhed from the liſt of officinals, as it poſſeſſes no remarkable property.

CILĬA, (*Cilium, i*, n.). The eyelaſhes.

CILIAR LIGAMENT. *Ligamentum ciliare.* The circular portion that divides the choroid membrane from the iriś, and which adheres to the ſclerotic membrane. It appears like a white circular ring.

CILIARY PROCESSES. The white plicated ſtriæ, covered with a black matter, which proceed from the uvea to the cryſtalline lens, upon which they lie.

CILĬUM. The hair on the eyelid and the eyelid.

CIMŌLĬA ALBA, (*Cimolia, æ*, f. κιμωλια; from Κιμωλος, Cimolus, an iſland in the Cretan ſea, where it is procured). Tobacco-pipe clay. Its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of the bolar earths; but it is never adminiſtered medicinally.

CIMŌLĬA PURPURESCENS. Fullers earth. A bolar earth, of a greyiſh brown colour.

CINÆ SEMEN. See *Santonicum*.

CINĀRA, (*Cinara, æ*, f. κιναρα; from κινεω, to move; *quaſi movet ad venerem*). Common artichoke. *Cynara. Cynara ſcolymus; foliis ſubſpinoſis pinnatis indiviſiſque, calycinis ſquamis ovatis*, of Linnæus. Claſs. *Syngenſia*. Order. *Polygamia æquales*. A native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, but cultivated here for culinary purpoſes. The leaves are bitter, and afford, by expreſſion, a conſiderable quantity of juice, which, when ſtrained, and mixed with an equal quantity of white wine, has been given ſucceſsfully in dropies; but it is very uncertain in its operation.

CINCHŌNA, (*Cinchona, æ*, f. ſo named, from the *Counteſs del Cinchon*, the lady of a Spaniſh viceroy, whoſe cure in the year 1646 is ſaid firſt to have brought the Peruvian bark into reputation; or perhaps it may be derived from *kinkina*, its Indian name). In 1649 a Jeſuit brought a conſiderable quantity of it into Italy, which was diſtributed by the fathers of that order; from which circumſtance it was called *Jeſuits bark*). *Quinquina. Cortex peruvianus.* Jeſuits bark. Officinal cinchona, or Peruvian bark. The tree, which affords this valuable medicine, is the *Cinchona officinalis* (*Cinchona foliis ellipticis ſubtus pubeſcentibus corollæ, limbo lanato.* Claſs. *Pentandria.* Order. *Monogynia*), a native of Peru. The bark is brought to us in pieces of different ſizes, ſome rolled up into ſhort thick quills, and others flat; the outſide is browniſh, and generally covered in part with a whitiſh moſs; the inſide is of a yellowiſh, reddiſh, or ruſty iron colour. The beſt ſort breaks cloſe and ſmooth, and proves friable betwixt the teeth: the inferior kinds appear, when broken, of a woody texture, and in chewing ſeparate into fibres. The former pulverizes more eaſily than the latter, and looks, when powdered, of a light browniſh colour, reſembling that of cinnamon, or ſomewhat paler. It has a ſlight ſmell, approaching to muſtineſs, yet ſo much of the aromatic kind as not to be diſagreeable. Its taſte is conſiderably bitter, adſtringent, very durable in the mouth, and accompanied with ſome degree of aromatic warmth, but not ſufficient

to prevent its being ungrateful. The medicinal properties of this drug are very conſiderable. It cures intermittent, remittent, nervous, and putrid fevers; putrid ſore throat, ſcarlatina, and dyſentery; ſtops exceſſive diſcharges, and is in general uſe as a tonic and ſtomachic; it is alſo of infinite ſervice in local affections, as gangrene, ſcrophula, ill-conditioned ulcers, rickets, ſcurvy, &c. and in moſt diſeaſes where there is no inflammatory diatheſis. The officinal preparations of this bark are the powder, the extract, the tincture, and the decoction.

CINCHŌNA ANGUSTĬFOLĬA.—The ſyſtematic name of the narrow leaved Peruvian bark tree. See *Chinchona anguſtifolia.*

CINCHŌNA CARIBÆA. The ſyſtematic name of the Caribæan bark-tree. See *Chinchona caribæa.*

CINCHŌNA CORTEX PERUVIĀNUS RUBER. *Chinchina rubra.* The medicinal qualities of this red bark are ſimilar to thoſe of the former.

CINCHŌNA CORTEX PERUVIĀNUS FLAVUS. *Cortex chinæ flavus. Coricx chinæ regius.* The medicinal properties of this new ſpecies are alſo nearly the ſame as thoſe of the cinchona officinalis. See *Cinchona.*

CINCHŌNA FLORIBUNDA. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the Saint Lucia bark. See *Chinchona Sanctæ Luciæ.*

CINCHŌNA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the Peruvian bark-tree. See *Cinchona.*

CINCINNUS. The hair on the temples. See *Capillus.*

CINĔRES CLAVELLĀTI, (*Clavellātus*; from *clavus*, a wedge. The name of *cineres clavellati* originated from the little wedges or billets into which the wood was cut to make potaſh). *Kali impurum.* Impure potaſh. Potaſh, in this ſtate, is called in the new chemical nomenclature, *carbonas potaſſæ alkaleſcens.* It is from this ſalt the various preparations of the kali are made; as the *ſal alkalinus fixus vegetabilis purificatus*, the *kali præparatum*, the *aqua kali*, the *lixivium cauſticum*, the *kali purum*, &c.

CINĔRES RUSSĬCI. Impure Ruſſian potaſh.

CINERITOUS, (*Cineritius*; from *cinis*, aſhes). Of the colour of aſhes. A name applied to the cortical ſubſtance of the brain, from its reſemblance to an aſh colour.

CINNĂBAR, (*Cinnabar, is*, f. *cinnabari*, n. indecl. *cinnabaris, is*, f. κινναβαρις. *Minium* and ſeveral ſubſtances were ſo called by the antients). A red mineral ſubſtance compoſed of mercury combined with ſulphur. It is found in the Dutchy of Deuxponts, in the Palatinate, in Spain, South America, &c. It is called native vermilion, and cinnabar in flowers. Artificial cinnabar is employed as a mild mercurial, and as an alterative. See *Hydrargyrus ſulphuratus ruber.*

CINNABAR FACTITĬA. See *Hydrargyrus ſulphuratus ruber.*

CINNABAR NATĪVA. See *Cinnabar.*

CINNAMŌMUM, (*Cinnamomum, i*, n. κινναμωμον; from *kinamon.* Arab.). Cinnamon. The tree which affords the true cinnamon, which is its inner bark, is the *Laurus cinnamomum* of Jacquin, a native of Ceylon. *Laurus foliis trinerviis ovato-oblongis: nervis verſus apicem evaneſcentibus.* Claſs. *Enneandria.* Order. *Monogynia.* Cinnamon bark is one of the moſt grateful of the aromatics; of a very fragrant ſmell, and a moderately pungent, glowing, but not fiery taſte, accompanied with conſiderable ſweetneſs, and ſome degree of adſtringency. It is one of the beſt cordial, carminative, and reſtorative ſpices we are in poſſeſſion of, and is generally mixed with the diet of the ſick. The eſſential oil, on account of its high price, is ſeldom uſed: a tincture, ſimple and ſpirituous water, are di-

rected to be kept in the shops. The flowers of this plant are called *flores cassiæ* in the shops.

CINQUEFOIL. See *Pentaphyllum*.

CIRCOCĒLE, (*Circocele, es*, f. κιρσοκηλη; from κιρσος, *varix*, or a dilatation of a vein, and κηλη, a tumour). *Variocele.* An enlargement of the veins of the spermatic cord.

CIRCON EARTH. *Terra circonia.* A peculiar species of earth, discovered in the jargon of Ceylon; which is also called *circon.*

CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD, (*Circulatio, ōnis*, f. from *circulo*, to compass about). A vital action performed in the following manner: the blood is returned into the right auricle of the heart by the descending and ascending venæ cavæ, which, when distended, contracts and sends its blood into the right ventricle; from the right ventricle it is propelled through the pulmonary artery to circulate through, and undergo a change in, the lungs, being prevented from returning into the right auricle by the closing of the valves, which are situated there for that purpose. Having undergone this change in the lungs, it is brought to the left auricle of the heart by the four pulmonary veins, and from thence it is evacuated into the left ventricle. The left ventricle, when distended, contracts, and throws the blood through the aorta to every part of the body, to be returned by the veins into the two venæ cavæ. It is prevented from passing back from the left ventricle into the auricle by a valvular apparatus; and the beginning of the pulmonary artery and aorta is also furnished with similar organs, to prevent its returning into the ventricles.—(See *Heart*). It is by means of this important action, that every part of the body lives, becomes warm, and is nourished, the various secretions separated, and the chyle converted into blood. In the fœtus the blood passes from the umbilical veins, partly into the vena portæ, and partly through the canalis venosus, into the ascending cava. The lungs being contracted, a very small quantity circulates through them, and the greater part flows through the canalis arteriosus and foramen ovale to the left side of the heart, and into the aorta, and is carried back by the umbilical arteries to the placenta.

CIRCŬLUS ARTĔRĬOSUS IRĬDIS. The artery which runs round the iris and forms a circle, is so termed.

CIRCUMCISION, (*Circumcisio, ōnis*, f. from *circumscido*, to cut about). The cutting off the prepuce from the glans penis; an antient custom still practised amongst the Jews.

CIRCUMFLEXUS, (*Circumflexus, sc. musculus*). *Circumflexus palati* of Albinus. *Sphæno-salpingo-staphilinus, seu staphilinus externus* of Winslow. *Musculus tubæ novæ* of Valsalva. *Pelato-salpingeus* of Douglas. This muscle arises from the spinous process of the sphenoid bone, behind the foramen ovale, which transmits the third branch of the fifth pair of nerves; from the Eustachian tube, not far from its osseous part; it then runs down along the the pterygoideus internus, passes over the hook of the internal plate of the pterygoid process by a round tendon, which soon spreads into a broad membrane. It is inserted into the velum pendulum palati, and the semilunar edge of the os palati, and extends as far as the suture which joins the two bones. Generally some of its posterior fibres join with the constrictor pharyngis superior, and palato-pharyngæus. Its use is to stretch the velum, to draw it downwards, and to a side towards the hook. It hath little effect upon the tube, being chiefly connected to its osseous part.

CISSAMPELOS, (*Cissampelos, i*, f. κισσαμπελος: from κισσος, ivy, and αμπελος, the vine). The wild vine, with leaves like the ivy.

Cissampĕlos pariera. The ſyſtematic name of the *pariera brava*. See *Pariera brava*.

Cistus cretĭcus. The ſyſtematic name of the plant from which the ladanum of the ſhops is obtained. See *Ladanum*.

Citrāgo. See *Meliſſa*.

Citrarĭa. See *Meliſſa*.

Citrats, (*Citras, tis*, m. from *citrus*, the citron). Salts formed by the union of the citric acid, or acid of lemons, with different baſes; as the *citrat of alumin*, *citrat of ammoniac*, &c.

Citrēa. See *Limon*.

Citric acid. *Acĭdum citrĭcum*. The juice of lemons. The citric acid may be obtained pure in concrete cryſtals, by the following method: Saturate boiling lemon-juice with pulverized chalk. The acid forms with the lime a ſalt that is ſcarce ſoluble, and the mucilaginous and extractive ſubſtances remain diſſolved in the ſupernatant liquor; the precipitate is to be waſhed with lukewarm water, till it ceaſes to deepen in colour; it diſſolves nearly as well as ſulphate of lime; it is then to be treated with as much ſulphuric acid as is requiſite to ſaturate the chalk, diluted in ten parts of water; and this mixture is to be boiled for a few minutes. Afterwards, it muſt be cooled and filtered; the ſulphate of lime remains on the filter, and the liquor affords a cryſtallized acid by evaporation.

Citron. See *Limon*.

Citrul, sicilian. See *Citrullus*.

Citrullus. Sicilian citrul, or water-melon. The ſeeds of this plant, *Cucurbita citrullus*; *foliis multipartitis*, of Linnæus, were formerly uſed medicinally, but now only to reproduce the plant. Water-melon is cooling, and ſomewhat nutritious; but ſo ſoon begins to ferment, as to prove highly noxious to ſome ſtomachs, and bring on ſpaſms, diarrhœas, cholera morbus, colics, &c.

Citrus. See *Limon*.

Citrus aurantĭum. The ſyſtematic name of the orange tree. See *Aurantium*.

Citrus medĭca. The ſyſtematic name of the lemon tree. See *Limon*.

Civet-cat. See *Zibethum*.

Civetta. See *Zibethum*.

Claret, (*Clarĕtum, i*, n. from *clareo*, to be clear). A French wine, that may be given with great advantage as a tonic and antiſeptic, where red port wine diſagrees with the patient; and in typhoid fevers of children and delicate females, it is far preferable, as a common drink.

Clary. See *Horminum*.

Clavicle, (*Clavĭcŭla, æ*, f. dim. of *clavis*: ſo called from its reſemblance to a key). Collar-bone. A bone ſhaped like the letter *ſ*, ſituated obliquely upon the upper part of the cheſt, and connecting the ſcapula and humerus to the thorax.

Clavus, (*Clavus, i*, m. a nail). A fixed pain in the forehead, which may be covered by one's thumb, giving a ſenſation like as if a nail were driven into the part. When connected with hyſterics, it is called *clavus hyſtericus*. This term is alſo applied to *corns*, from their reſemblance to the head of a nail.

Clay. Argillaceous earth. Alumin. See *Alumin*.

Cleavers. See *Aperine*.

Cleido-mastoidēus. See *Sterno-cleido-maſtoideus*.

Clemătis, (*Clematis*, f. κληματις; from κλημα, a tendril). A plant, ſo named from its climbing up trees, or any thing it can faſten upon with its tendrils.

Clemătis recta. The ſyſtematic name of the upright virgin's bower. See *Flammula Jovis*.

Clemătis vitalba. The ſyſ-

tematic name of the traveller's joy. See *Vitalba*.

CLIMBING BIRTHWORT. See *Ariſtolochia tenuis*.

CLINICAL, (*Clinĭcus*, κλινικος; from κλινη, a bed). Any thing concerning a bed: thus clinical lectures, notes, a clinical phyſician, &c.; which mean lectures given at the bed-ſide, obſervations taken from patients when in bed, a phyſician who viſits his patients in their bed, &c.

CLINOID, (*Clinoidĕus*; from κλινη, a bed, and ειδος, reſemblance). Reſembling a bed. The four proceſſes ſurrounding the ſella turcica of the ſphænoid bone, are ſo called, of which two are anterior, and two poſterior.

CLĬTŎRIS, (*Clitoris, ĭdis*, f. κλειτορις; from κλειω, to encloſe or hide; becauſe it is hid by the labia pudendorum). *Columella*. A ſmall glandiform body, like a penis in miniature, and like it covered with a præpuce, or foreſkin. It is ſituated above the nymphæ, and before the opening of the urinary paſſage of women. Anatomy has diſcovered that the clitoris is compoſed, like the penis, of a cavernous ſubſtance, and of a glans, which has no perforation, but is like that of the penis, exquiſitely ſenſible. The clitoris is the principal ſeat of pleaſure: during coition it is diſtended with blood, and after the venereal orgaſm it becomes flaccid and falls. Inſtances have occurred where the clitoris was ſo enlarged, as to enable the female to have venereal commerce with others; and in Paris this fact was made a public exhibition of to the faculty. Women thus formed appear to partake, in their general form, leſs of the female character, and are termed hermaphrodites. The clitoris of children is larger in proportion, than in full grown women: it often projects beyond the external labia at birth.

CLITORISMUS, (*Clitoriſmus, i*, m.). A morbid enlargement of the clitoris.

CLONIC SPASMS, (*Spaſmi clonĭci*; from κλονεω, to move to and from). See *Convulſion*.

CLOVE-BARK. See *Caſſia caryophyllata*.

CLOVE-GILLIFLOWER. See *Caryophyllum rubrum*.

CLOVE-JULY-FLOWER. See *Caryophyllum rubrum*.

CLOVE-PINK. See *Caryophyllum rubrum*.

CLOVES. See *Caryophyllum aromaticum*.

CLUTĬA ELUTERĬA. *Caſcarilla clutia*. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the caſcarilla bark. See *Caſcarilla*.

CLYSMUS. A glyſter. See *Enema*.

CLYSMA, (*Clyſma, ătis*, n. κλυσμα; from κλυζω, to waſh out). *Clyſter*.

CLYSTER. See *Enema*.

CNIDĬI COCCI. See *Coccognidia*.

CNIDĬI GRANA. See *Coccognidia*.

COAGULABLE LYMPH. *Albumen*. *Albumina*. Albuminous principle of the ſerum of blood. This ſubſtance, which has a great affinity to the white of eggs, is a component part of the ſerum of the human blood. It may be obtained in conſiderable quantities, by ſtirring the ſerum about with a ſtick, when it adheres to its ſides. In certain diſeaſed actions it is ſeparated from the blood, and is often found in very conſiderable quantities in the circumſcribed cavities of the body. It has neither taſte nor ſmell; it always poſſeſſes a white and opake colour; is of a glutinous conſiſtence, and, if dried by a gentle heat, becomes horny. Its preſence is detected by an admixture of the diluted mineral acids. See alſo *Albumen*.

COAGULATION, (*Coagulatio, ōnis*, f. from *con*, and *ago*, to drive together). The ſeparation of the glutinous or viſcid particles, contained in any fluid, from the more thin and not coagulable particles: thus, when milk curdles, the coagulable parti-

cles form the curd; and when acids are thrown into any fluid containing coagulable particles, they form what is called a *coagulum*.

Coagŭlum alumĭnis. This is recommended as an efficacious application to relaxations of the conjunctive membrane of the eye.

Cobalt, (*Cobaltum, i*, n. Germ.). A heavy semimetal, of a reddish white colour, and close grain; so brittle as to be readily reduced into powder by the pestle. Dissolved in muriatic acid, it forms a sympathetic ink. None of its preparations are used in medicine.

Cobwebs. See *Aranearum telæ*.

Coccinella, (*Coccinella, æ*, f. dim. from *coccus*, a berry; from its resemblance to a berry). Cochineal. The female of a species of insect called *Coccus cacti*, that is found on, and collected in South America, from the *Opuntia* or Indian fig-tree. It possesses stimulating qualities, and is ordered by the College in the *tinctura cantharidis—cardamomi compositа*, and *cinchonæ compositа*; but, most probably, on account of the beautiful red colour which it imparts to them.

Coccognidia. *Grana cnidia. Cocci cnidii.* The seeds of the *Daphne mezereum* are so termed. They are violently purgative.

Cocculus indus, (*Cocculus, i*, m. κοκκυλος, dim of κοκκος, a berry). The berry so called is rougous and kidney-shaped, and contains a white nucleus; it is the produce of the *Menispermum cocculus*; *foliis cordatis, retusis, mucronatis*; *caule lacero*, of Linnæus. The berries possess an inebriating quality; and are supposed to impart that power to most of the London porter.

Coccus baphĭca. See *Hermes*.

Coccus cacti. The systematic name of the cochineal animal. See *Coccinella*.

Coccygēus, (*Coccygeus, sc. musc.* from κοκκυξ; because it is inserted into the coccyx). A muscle of the os coccygis situated within the pelvis. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the spinous process of the ischium, and covers the inside of the sacro-ischiatic ligament: from this narrow beginning it gradually increases to form a thin fleshy belly, interspersed with tendinous fibres. It is inserted into the extremity of the os sacrum, and near the whole length of the os coccygis, laterally. Its use is to support and move the os coccygis forwards, and to tie it more firmly to the sacrum.

Coccўgis os, (*Coccyx, ўcis*, or *ўgis*, m. from κοκκυξ, the cuckoo, whose bill it is said to represent). *Os coccyx*. A small irregular-shaped bone of the pelvis, attached to the apex of the sacrum, that sustains the rectum, and prevents the rupture of the perineum in parturition.

Cochineal. See *Coccinella*.

Cochlĕa, (*Cochlea, æ*, f. κοχλεα; from κοχλιζω, to turn round). A cavity of the internal ear, resembling the shell of a snail, in which are observed, the *modiolus*, or *nucleus*, extending from its basis to the *apex*, the *scala tympani*, *scala vestibuli*, and *spiral lamina*.

Cochlea terrestris. See *Limax*.

Cochleāre, (*Cochleare, is*, n. from *cochlea*, a cockle, whose shell its bowl represents). A spoonful. In prescriptions it is sometimes abbreviated thus, *coch*. *Cochleare magnum*, is a table spoonful; *cochleare medium*, a desert or pap spoonful; and *cochleare minimum*, a tea spoonful.

Cochleārĭa armoracĭa. The systematic name of the horse-radish. See *Raphanus rusticanus*.

Cochleārĭa hortensis, (*Cochlearia, æ*, f. from *cochleare*: from the resemblance of its leaves to a spoon). Lemon scurvy-grass. This indigenous plant, *Cochlearia officinalis* of Linnæus (*Cochlearia foliis radicalibus*

cordato-ſubrotundis; caulinis oblongis ſubſinuatis. Claſs. *Tetradynamia.* Order. *Siliculoſa*), is cultivated in gardens for its medicinal qualities. Its expreſſed juice has been long conſidered as the moſt effectual of the ſcorbutic plants.

COCHLEĀRĬA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the lemon ſcurvygraſs. See *Cochlearia hortenſis.*

COCOS BUTYRACEA. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the palm oil. See *Palm oil.*

CODAGA-PALA. See *Coneſſi cortex.*

CŒLIAC ARTERY, (*Cœliacus*, belonging to the belly; from κοιλια, the belly). *Arteria cœliaca.* The firſt branch given off from the aorta in the cavity of the abdomen. It ſends branches to the diaphragm, ſtomach, liver, pylorus, duodenum, omentum, and ſpleen.

CŒLIAC PASSION. A ſpecies of diarrhœa. See *Diarrhœa.*

COFFEA, (*Coffea*, æ, f. from *kofuah*, a mixing together, Hebr.; ſo called from the pleaſant potation which is made from its berry). Coffee. The ſeeds of the *Coffea arabica*; *floribus quinquifidis, diſpermis,* of Linnæus. Good turkey coffee is by far the moſt ſalutary of all liquors drank at meal time. It poſſeſſes nervine and adſtringent qualities, and may be drank with advantage at all times, except when there is bile in the ſtomach. It is ſaid to be a good antidote againſt an over doſe of opium.

COFFEA ARABĬCA. The plant whoſe ſeeds are called coffee. See *Coffea.*

COFFEE. See *Coffea.*

COHESION, (*Cohæſio, ōnis*, f. from *con*, and *hæreo*, to ſtick together). *Vis coheſionis. Vis adheſionis. Vis attractionis.* That force of matter, whereby its parts are connected in ſuch a way that they reſiſt upon their removal or ſeparation.

COHOBATION (*Cohobatio, ōnis*, f. A termed invented by Paracelſus) Chemiſts uſe this term to ſignify the diſtillation of a fluid poured afreſh upon a ſubſtance of the ſame kind as that upon which it was before diſtilled, and repeating this operation ſeveral times to make it more efficacious.

COĬTŬS, (*Coitus, us*, m. from *coeo*, to go together). The conjunction of the male and female in the act of procreation.

COLCHĬCUM, (*Colchicum, i*, n. from *Colchis*, a city of Armenia; where this plant is ſuppoſed to have been very common). Common meadow ſaffron. *Colchicum autumnale* of Linnæus. *Colchicum foliis planis lanceolatis erectis.* Claſs. *Hexandria.* Order. *Trigynia.* A native of England. The root is thought to poſſeſs diuretic and expectorant qualities; and with this view an oxymel and a ſyrup are directed by the colleges of London and Edinburgh. An over-doſe proves narcotic and cathartic.

COLCHĬCUM AUTUMNĀLE. The ſyſtematic name of the common meadow ſaffron. See *Colchicum.*

COLCHĬCUM ILLYRĪCUM. The plant ſuppoſed to afford the *hermodactyls.* See *Hermodactyli.*

COLD. Cold is a privation of heat. It is nothing poſitive, but ſomewhat of the negative kind. The human body contains within itſelf, as long as it is living, a principle of warmth: if any other body, being in contact with it, does at the ſame time impart to it more caloric or heat than it obtains from the human body, it is ſaid to be warm; but if it receives from the human body more heat than it remits, it is ſaid to be cold.

COLĬCA, (*Colica*, æ, f. κωλικη; from κωλον, the colon, one of the large inteſtines). The colic. It is known by a pain in the belly, and a ſenſation like a twiſting round the navel, attended with vomiting and

coſtiveneſs. This genus of diſeaſe is arranged by Cullen in the claſs *neuroſes*, and order *ſpaſmi*. The ſpecies of colic are: 1. *Colica ſpaſmodica*, ariſing from ſpaſm: 2. *Colica pictonum*, the painter's, or Devonſhire, or white lead colic, which ariſes from the poiſon of white lead, and is ſucceeded by palſy of the hands: 3. *Colica ſtercorea*, which is common to perſons of a coſtive habit of body.

Colliquative diarrhœa, (*Diarrhœa colliquativa*; from *colliqueo*, to melt or waſte away). A purging which moſtly takes place in phthiſis, conſuming the ſtrength of the patient very rapidly and generally, alternating with profuſe perſpirations, which are alſo termed *colliquative*.

Collutorium, (*Collutorium*, *i*, n. from *colluo*, to waſh). A fluid medicine which is uſed as a waſh for the mouth.

Collyrium, (*Collyrium*, *i*, n. from κωλυω, to check, and ῥυς, a defluxion). Any medicine was formerly ſo called, which was applied with that intention. The term is now only given to fluid applications for the eyes, or eye-waters.

Colŏcynthis, (*Colocynthis*, *ĭdis*, f. κολοκυνθις; from κωλον, the colon, and κινεω, to move; becauſe of its great purging powers). Coloquintida. Bitter apple, Bitter gourd. Bitter cucumber. The fruit which is the medicinal part of this plant, *Cucumis colocynthis*; *foliis multifidis*, *pomis globoſis glabris*, is imported from Turkey. Its ſpongy membranous medulla or pith is directed for uſe; it has a nauſeous, acrid, and intenſely bitter taſte; and is a powerful irritating cathartic. In doſes of ten and twelve grains it operates with great vehemence, frequently producing violent gripes, bloody ſtools, and diſordering the whole ſyſtem. It is recommended in various complaints, as worms, mania, dropſy, epilepſy, &c.; but is ſeldom reſorted to, except where other more mild remedies have been uſed without ſucceſs, and then only in the form of the *extractum colocynthidis compoſitum* and the *pilulæ ex colocynthide cum aloe* of the pharmacopœias.

Colomba (*Colomba*, *æ*, f.). *Columbo*. *Calomba*. *Colombo*. *Calumba*. The root ſo called is imported from Colomba in Ceylon, in circular, brown knobs, wrinkled on their outer ſurface, yellowiſh within, and conſiſting of cortical, woody, and medullary lamina. Its ſmell is aromatic; its taſte pungent and nauſeouſly bitter. It is much eſteemed as a tonic in dyſpeptic and bilious caſes. A tincture is directed by the Colleges.

Colon, (*Colon*, *i*, n. κωλον from; κοιλος, hollow; becauſe it is generally found hollow in the dead body). The ſecond portion of the large inteſtines. See *Inteſtines*.

Colophonĭa, (*Colophonia*, *æ*, f. Κολοφωνια, the city from whence it was firſt brought). *Reſina nigra*. The black reſin which remains in the retort after diſtilling the common reſin with a ſtrong fire.

Coloquintĭda. See *Colocynthis*.

Coltsfoot. See *Tuſſilago*.

Colŭber berus, (*Coluber*, *ri*, m. *quod colit umbram*, becauſe it delights in ſhade). The ſyſtematic name of the viper. See *Vipera*.

Colubrīna virginĕana. See *Serpentaria*.

Colubrīnum lignum, (*Colubrinus*; from *coluber*; ſo called from the ſnake-like contortions of its roots). This ſpecies of ſnake-wood is brought from America. It is ſolid, ponderous, acrid, extremely bitter, and inodorous; its bark is of a ferruginous colour, covered with cineritious ſpots.

Columbine. See *Aquilegia*.

Columbo. See *Colomba*.

Columella, (*Columella*, *æ*, f. a dim. of *columna*, a column). See *Uvula*, and *Clitoris*.

COLUMNÆ CARNĔÆ. See *Carneæ columnæ.*

CŌMA, (*Coma, ătis*, n. κομα; from κω or κειω, to lie down). A propenſity to ſleep.

COMĂTA, (*Comata*, κωματα; from from *coma*). A diminution of the powers of voluntary motion, with ſleep, or the ſenſes impaired. It is an order of the claſs *neuroſes* of Cullen's noſology.

COMATOSE. Having a ſtrong propenſity to ſleep.

COMBUSTIO, (*Combuſtio, ōnis*, f. from *comburo*, to burn). A burn or ſcald.

COMBUSTION, (*Combuſtio, ōnis*, f. from *comburo*, to burn). It is difficult to give a good definition of combuſtion. It is a collection of phenomena, which certain bodies exhibit, when heated with acceſs of air; the principal of which are the continuance or augmentation of heat, agitation, or inteſtine motion, the emiſſion of light, flame, and a total change of the matter burned.

COMEDŌNES, (*Comedo, ōnis*, m.). See *Crinones.*

COMFRY. See *Symphitum.*

COMMISSŪRA ANTERĬOR CERĔBRI. The white nerve-like ſubſtance which croſſes the anterior part of the third ventricle of the brain, immediately above the infundibulum, and between the anterior crura of the fornix; uniting one hemiſphere of the brain with the other.

COMMISSŪRA MAGNA CERĔBRI. The *corpus calloſum* of the brain is ſo termed by ſome writers.

COMMISSŪRA POSTERĬOR CERĔBRI. A white, nerve-like ſubſtance, which paſſes from one hemiſphere of the brain acroſs to the other, immediately over the opening of the aquæduct of Sylvius, in the poſterior part of the third ventricle of the brain, and above the *corpora quadrigemina.*

COMMISSURE, (*Commiſsūra, æ*, f. from *committo*, to join together). A term applied in anatomy to the corners of the lips, where they meet together; and alſo to certain parts of the brain which go acroſs from one hemiſphere to the other.

COMPARATIVE ANATOMY. *Anatomīa comparatĭva.* Zootomy. The diſſection of animal bodies to compare them with the human.

COMPLEXUS, (*Complexus, ſc. muſc.* from *complector*, to compriſe). A muſcle ſituated on the back part of the neck, that draws the head backwards, and to one ſide; and when both act, they draw the head directly backward. It ariſes from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the ſeven ſuperior vertebræ of the back and four inferior of the neck, by as many diſtinct tendinous origins; in its aſcent it receives a fleſhy ſlip from the ſpinous proceſs of the firſt vertebræ of the back: from theſe different origins it runs upwards, and is every where intermixed with tendinous fibres. It is inſerted, tendinous and fleſhy, into the inferior edge of the protuberance in the middle of the os occipitis, and into a part of the curved line that runs forwards from that protuberance.

COMPRESSION, (*Compreſſio, ōnis*, f. from *comprimo*, to preſs together). By this term ſurgeons expreſs a diſeaſed ſtate of the body, which is the effect of ſomething preſſing upon the brain. It ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from concuſſion and inflammation. When the brain is compreſſed either by bone, extravaſated blood, or any other fluid, there is giddineſs, nauſea, vomiting, loſs of ſenſe and voluntary motion; coma and ſtupor, with a paralyſis of ſome part or other; a ſtertorous breathing, and convulſive twitches. The pulſe is in general oppreſſed and irregular.

COMPRESSOR NARIS, (*Compreſſor, oris*, m. from *comprimo*, to preſs together). *Rinæus vel naſalis* of Douglas. A muſcle of the noſe, that compreſſes the alæ towards the ſep-

tum naſi, particularly when we want to ſmell acutely. It alſo corrugates the noſe, and aſſiſts in expreſſing certain paſſions. It ariſes, by a narrow beginning, from the root of the ala naſi externally, and ſpreads into a number of thin, ſeparate fibres, which run up along the cartilage in an oblique manner towards the back of the noſe, where it joins with its fellow, and is inſerted into the narrow extremity of the os naſi and naſal proceſs of the ſuperior maxillary bone.

CONARĬUM, (*Conarium, i,* n. κωναριον; from κωνος, a cone). The pineal gland is ſo named, from its conical ſhape. See *Pineal gland.*

CONCENTRATION, (*Concentratio, onis,* f. from *con,* and *centrum,* having the ſame centre). The volatilizing of part of the water of fluids in order to improve their ſtrength. The matter to be concentrated, therefore, muſt be of ſuperior gravity to water. This operation is performed on ſome acids, particularly the ſulphuric and phoſphoric. It is alſo employed in ſolutions of alkalis and neutral ſalts.

CONCEPTION, (*Conceptio, ōnis,* f. from *concipio,* to conceive). The impregnation of the ovulum in the female ovarium by the ſubtile prolific aura of the ſemen virile. In order to have a fruitful coition it is neceſſary that the ſemen be propelled into the uterus or vagina, ſo that its fecundating vapour ſhall be conveyed through the Fallopian tubes to the ovarium: hence it is neceſſary that there be a certain ſtate of the ovarium of the female in order to impregnate it; which is, that the ovum ſhall be mature, and embraced by the fimbriæ of the Fallopian tube to convey that vivifying principle to the ovum. See *Generation.*

CONCHA, (*Concha, æ,* f. κογχη, a liquid meaſure amongſt the Athenians). A term applied by anatomiſts to ſeveral parts of the body, as the hollow of the ear, the ſpongy bones of the noſe, &c.

CONCHA AURIS. The hollow part of the cartilage of the outer ear.

CONCHÆ NARĬUM, (*Concha, æ,* f. a ſhell). The turbinated portion of the ethmoid bone and the inferior ſpongy bones of the noſe, which are covered by the Schneiderian membrane, are ſo termed.

CONCUSSION, (*Conciſſio, ōnis,* f. from *concutio,* to ſhake together). Concuſſion of the brain. This term is employed by ſurgeons to expreſs a diſeaſe, which is the effect of the concuſſion the brain ſuffers from a fall or agitation. The ſymptoms ariſing from a mere concuſſion, are vertigo, confuſion with pain of the head, tinnitus aurium, and dimneſs of ſight. In general the perſon is able to walk about, and the ſymptoms gradually diſappear; at other times they fall into a quiet ſleep, and awake perfectly recovered. If, however, ſtupor and coma ſucceed, other miſchief may be ſuſpected, as compreſſion, fracture, &c.

CONDIMENT, (*Condimentum, i,* n. from *condio,* to preſerve or ſeaſon). A pickle or preſerve.

CONDYLE, (*Condylus, i,* m. κονδυλος; from κονδη, an ancient cup ſhaped like a joint). A rounded eminence of a bone in any of the joints.

CONDYLŌMA, (*Condyloma, ătis,* n. κονδυλαμα; from κονδυλος, a tubercle or knot). *Sarcoma.* A ſoft, wart-like excreſcence, that appears about the anus and pudendum of both ſexes. There are ſeveral ſpecies of condylomata, which have received names from their appearances, as *ficus, criſtæ, tymus,* from their reſemblance to a fig, &c.

CONESSI BARK. See *Coneſſi cortex.*

CONESSI CORTEX, (*Coneſſi,* n. ind. Malabrens). *Codago-pala. Cortex profluvii.* The bark of the *Ne-*

rium antidyſentericum; *foliis ovatis, acuminatis, petiolatis*, of Linnæus. It grows on the coaſt of Malabar. It is of a dark black colour externally, and generally covered with a white moſs or ſcurf. It is very little known in the ſhops; has an auſtere, bitter taſte; and is recommended in diarrhœas, dyſenteries, &c. as an adſtringent.

CONFECTĬO AROMATĬCA. *Confectio cardiaca.* This is an excellent medicine, poſſeſſing ſtimulant, antiſpaſmodic, and adſtringent virtues; and is exhibited, with theſe views, to children and adults in a vaſt variety of diſeaſes, mixed with other medicines.

CONFĔCTĬO CARDIĂCA. See *Confectio aromatica.*

CONFECTĬO OPIĀTA. *Philonium londinenſe.* This very warm and ſtimulating confection is admirably calculated to relieve diarrhœas, ſpaſms of the ſtomach and bowels, and is frequently ordered as a nervine, ſtimulant and adſtringent.

CONFERVA, (*Conferva, æ*, f. from *conferveo*, to knit together). A kind of moſs: named from its uſe formerly in healing broken bones.

CONFERVA HELMINTHOCORTOS. See *Corallina corſicana.*

CONFERVA RIVĀLIS. This plant, *Conferva rivalis*; *filimentis ſimpliciſſimis æqualibus longiſſimis*, of Linnæus, has been recommended in caſes of ſpaſmodic aſthma, phthiſis, &c. on account of the great quantity of vital air it contains.

CONFLUENT SMALL POX. See *Variola confluens.*

CONGELATION, (*Congelatio, ōnis*, f. from *congelo*, to freeze). That change of liquid bodies which takes place when they paſs to a ſolid ſtate, by loſing the caloric which kept them in a ſtate of fluidity.

CONGLOBATE GLAND, (*Glandula conglobata—conglobata*; from *conglobo*, to gather into a ball). Lymphatic gland. Globate gland. A round gland formed of a contortion of lymphatic veſſels, connected together by cellular ſtructure, having neither a cavity nor an excretory duct: ſuch are the meſenteric, inguinal, axillary glands, &c. See *Glands.*

CONGLOMERATE GLAND, (*Glandula conglomerata—conglomerata*; from *conglomero*, to heap upon one). A gland compoſed of a number of glomerate glands, whoſe excretory ducts all unite into one common duct: ſuch are the ſalival, parotid glands, &c.

CONĪUM MACŬLĀTUM, (*Conium, i*, n. κωνειον; from κωνω, duſt, according to Linnæus; or from κωνωπιον, *circumago*, on account of its inebriating, poiſonous quality). The ſyſtematic name for the *cicuta* of the pharmacopœias. See *Cicuta.*

CONJUNCTIVE MEMBRANE.—*Membrana conjunctiva.* The thin, tranſparent, delicate membrane, that lines the internal ſuperficies of one eyelid, and is reflected from thence, over the anterior part of the bulb, to the tarſus of the other eyelid. That portion which covers the tranſparent cornea cannot, without great difficulty, be ſeparated from it. Inflammation of this membrane is called *ophthalmia.*

CONNEXION OF BONES. See *Articulation.*

CONSENT OF PARTS. The ſame as ſympathy. See *Sympathy.*

CONSERVA, (*Conſerva, æ*, f. from *conſervo*, to keep). A conſerve. A compoſition of ſome recent vegetable and ſugar, beat together into an uniform maſs of the conſiſtence of honey; as conſerve of hips, orange peel, &c.

CONSERVA ABSINTHĬI MARITĬMI. For its virtues, ſee *Abſinthum maritimum.*

CONSERVA ARI. This is occaſionally exhibited as a ſtimulant and diuretic.

CONSERVA AURANTĬI HISPALENSIS. This is well calculated to form the baſis of a tonic and ſtomachic

conſerve, and may be given alone, as poſſeſſing ſuch qualities.

Conserva cynosbăti. Conſerve of hips: is cooling and adſtringent; it is ſeldom given alone, but moſtly joined to ſome other medicine in the form of linctus or electuary.

Conserva lujŭlæ. This preparation of wood ſorrel poſſeſſes ſubacid, cooling, and antiſeptic qualities.

Conserva menthæ. This preparation of mint is given, occaſionally, as a ſtomachic in ſickneſs and weakneſs of the ſtomach.

Conserva prūni sylvestris. Aſtringent virtues are aſcribed to this medicine, which is now ſeldom uſed but amongſt private formulæ.

Conserva rosæ. This compoſition affords a very excellent way of exhibiting roſes: rubbed down with water it forms an excellent drink, with ſome lemon juice, in hœmorrhagic complaints: it may alſo be given with vitriolated zinc in form of an electuary.

Conserva scillæ. This preparation of ſquills affords an excellent baſis for an electuary, poſſeſſing expectorant and diuretic qualities.

Consolĭda, (*Conſolida, æ*, f. ſo called, *quia conſolidandi et conglutinandi vi pollet*; named from its power and uſe in agglutinating and joining together things broken). Comfrey.

Consolĭda major. See *Symphitum.*

Consolĭda medĭa. *Bugula.* Upright bugloſs. Middle conſound. This plant, *Ajuga pyramidalis, tetragono-pyramidalis, villoſa, foliis radicalibus maximis*, of Linnæus, poſſeſſes ſubadſtringent and bitter qualities: and is recommended in *phthiſis, aphthæ*, and *cynanche.*

Consolĭda minor. See *Prunella.*

Consolĭda regālis. *Calcatripta.* Many virtues are attributed to this plant, *Delphinium conſolida; nectariis monophyllis, caule ſubdiviſo*, of Linnæus. The flowers are bitter, and a water diſtilled from them is recommended in ophthalmisa. The herb is adminiſtered in calculous caſes, obſtructed menſes, and viceral diſeaſes.

Consolĭda saracenĭca. See *Virga aurea.*

Consound. See *Symphitum.*

Consound, middle. See *Conſolida media.*

Constipation, (*Conſtipatio, ōnis*, f. from *conſtipo*, to crowd together). A perſon is ſaid to be coſtive when the alvine excretions are not expelled daily, and when the fœces are ſo hardened as not to receive their form from the impreſs of the rectum upon them.

Constipation, (*Conſtipatio, ōnis*, f. from *conſtipo*, to crowd together). Coſtiveneſs. See *Obſtipatio.*

Constrictor, (*Conſtrictor, oris*, m. from *conſtringo*, to bind together). A name given to thoſe muſcles which contract any opening of the body.

Constrictor isthmi faucĭum. *Gloſſo-ſtaphilinus* of Winſlow and Douglas. A muſcle ſituated at the ſide of the entry of the fauces, that draws the *velum pendulum palati* towards the root of the tongue, which it raiſes at the ſame time, and with its fellow contracts the paſſage between the two arches, by which it ſhuts the opening of the fauces.

Constrictor oris. See *Orbicularis oris.*

Constrictor pharyngis inferĭor. *Crico-pharyngeus. Thyro-pharyngus.* A muſcle ſituated on the poſterior part of the pharynx. It ariſes from the ſide of the thyroid cartilage, near the attachment of the ſterno hyoidæus and thyro-hyoidæus muſcles; and from the cricoid cartilage, near the crico-thyroidæus; it is inſerted into the white line, where it joins with its fellow, the ſuperior fibres running obliquely upwards, covering nearly one half of the middle conſtrictor, and terminating in a point: the inferior fibres run more tranſverſe-

ly, and cover the beginning of the œsophagus. Its use is to compress that part of the pharynx which it covers, and to raise it with the larynx a little upwards.

Constrictor pharyngis medius. *Hyo-pharyngeus. Syndesmo-pharyngeus* of Douglas. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the pharynx. It arises from the appendix of the os hyoides, from the corner of that bone, and from the ligament which connects it to the thyroid cartilage; the fibres of the superior part, running obliquely upwards, and covering a considerable part of the superior constrictor, terminate in a point; and is inserted into the middle of the cuneiform process of the os occipitis, before the foramen magnum, and joined to its fellow at a white line in the middle part of the pharynx. This muscle compresses that part of the pharynx which it covers, and draws it and the os hyoides upwards.

Constrictor pharyngis superior. *Cephalo-pharyngeus. Pterygo-pharyngeus. Mylo-pharyngeus. Glosso-pharyngeus.* A muscle situated on the posterior part of the pharynx. It arises above from the cuneiform process of the os occipitis, before the foramen magnum, from the pterygoid process of the sphenoid bone, from the upper and under jaw, near the roots of the last dentes molares, and between the jaws. It is inserted in the middle of the pharynx. Its use is to compress the upper part of the pharynx, and to draw it forwards and upwards.

Consumption. Decline. See *Phthisis pulmonalis.*

Contagion, (*Contagio, ōnis*, f. from *contingo*, to meet or touch each other). *Effluvia. Miasma. Virus. Lues.* Infection. The very subtile particles arising from putrid or other substances, or from persons labouring under contagious diseases, which communicate the disease to others; thus the contagion of putrid fever, the effluvia of dead animal or vegetable substances, the miasm of bogs and fens, the virus of small-pox, lues venerea, &c. &c. There does not appear to be any distinction between contagious and infectious diseases. Would it not be proper to apply the term *contagious* (considering the derivation of the word) to those which are communicated by contact only, as the venereal disease, itch, &c; and *infectious*, to those which are caught through the medium of the atmosphere, &c. without contact, as putrid fever, &c.?

Contractility. Expansive elasticity. A property in bodies, the effect of the cohesive power, by which their particles resume their former propinquity when the force ceases which was applied to separate them.

Contraction, (*Contractio, ōnis*, f. from *contraho*, to draw together). *Contractura.* A rigid contraction of the joints. It is a genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dyscinesiæ* of Cullen. The species are, 1. *Contractura ab inflammatione*, when it arises from inflammation: 2. *Contractura à spasmo*, called also tonic spasm and cramp, when it depends upon spasm: 3. *Contractura ob antagonistas paraliticos*, from the antagonist muscles losing their action: 4. *Contractura ab acrimoniâ irritante*, which is induced by some irritating cause: 5. *Contractura articularis*, originating from a disease of the joint.

Contre cou. A species of fracture of the skull, called in Latin *contra-fissura*, in which the fracture happens in that part of the bone opposite to where the blow was received.

Contra-indication, (*Contra-indicatio, ōnis*, f. from *contra*, against, and *indico*, to show). A symptom attending a disease, which forbids the exhibition of a remedy that would otherwise be employed: for instance,

bark and acids are usually given in putrid fevers; but if there be difficulty of breathing or inflammation of the side, or of any viscus, they are contra-indications to their use.

CONTRA SEMEN. See *Santonicum*.

CONTRAYĒRVA, (*Contrayerva, æ*, f. from *contra*, against, and *yerva*, a herb. Span. *i. e.* a herb good against poisons). Contrayerva. This word is of Spanish origin, and signifies an antidote to poison. The officinal part of this plant, which is obtained from two plants, viz. *Dorstenia drakena*; *scapis radicatis, foliis pinnatifido-palmatis integerrimis, receptaculis ovalibus*, of Linnæus, and *Dorstenia Houstorii*; *scapis radicatis, foliis cordatis angulatis acutis, receptaculis quadrangulis*, of Linnæus, is the root. It has a peculiar kind of aromatic smell, and a light adstringent, warm, bitterish taste; and on being long chewed it discovers somewhat of a sweetish sharpness. Putrid and nervous fevers are the diseases in which this medicine was formerly used.

CONTUSION, (*Contusio, onis*, f. from *contundo*, to knock together). A bruise.

CONVALESCENCE. That space from the departure of a disease, to the recovery of the strength lost by it.

CONVALLARIA, (*Convallaria, æ*, f. from *convallis*, a valley: named from its abounding in valleys and marshes.

CONVALLARĬA MAJĀLIS. The systematic name of the lilly of the valley. See *Lilium convallium*.

CONVALLARĬA POLYGONĀTUM. The systematic name of Solomon's seal. See *Sigillum Salomonis*.

CONVOLVULUS, (*Convolvulus, i*, m. from *convolvo*, to roll together: so named from its spiral shape, and its twisting round other trees and shrubs). The herb bind-weed.

CONVOLVŬLUS JALAPPA. The systematic name of the jalap plant. See *Jalapium*.

CONVOLVŬLUS MAJOR ALBUS. The juice of this plant, *Convolvulus sæpium; foliis sagittatis, postice truncatis; pedunculis tetragonis, unifloris*, of Linnæus, is violently purgative, and given in dropsical affections. A poultice of the herb, made with oil, is recommended in white swellings of the knee-joint.

CONVOLVŬLUS MECHOACAN.—See *Mechoacannæ radix*.

CONVOLVŬLUS SCAMMONĬA.—The systematic name of the scammony plant. See *Scammonium*.

CONVOLVŬLUS SEPĬUM. See *Convolvulus major albus*.

CONVOLVULUS SOLDANELLA.—The systematic name of the sea convolvulus. See *Brassica marina*.

CONVOLVŬLUS TURPĒTHUM.—The systematic name of the turbith plant. See *Turpethum*.

CONVULSION, (*Convulsio, ōnis*, f.). Clonic spasm. A diseased action of muscular fibres, known by alternative relaxations, with violent and involuntary contractions of the muscular parts, without sleep. Cullen arranges convulsion in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi*. Convulsions are universal or partial, and have obtained different names according to the parts affected or symptoms; as the *risus sardonicus* when the muscles of the face are affected; St. Vitus's dance, when the muscles of the arm are thrown into involuntary motions, with lameness and rotations. The hysterical epilepsy, or other epilepsies, arising from different causes, are convulsive diseases of the universal kind: the muscles of the globe of the eye, throwing the eye into involuntary distortions in defiance to the direction of the will, are instances of partial convulsion. The muscles principally affected in all species of convulsions, are those immediately under the direction of the will

as thoſe of the eyelids, eye, face, jaws, neck, ſuperior and inferior extremities. The muſcles of reſpiration, acting both voluntarily and involuntarily, are not unfrequently convulſed; as the diaphragm, intercoſtals, &c. The more immediate cauſes of convulſions are, 1. Either mental affection, or any irritating cauſe exciting a greater action in the arterial ſyſtem of the brain and nerves. 2. An increaſe of nervous energy, which ſeems to hold pace or be equi-potent with the increaſed arterial energy excited in the brain. 3. This increaſed energy, conveying its augmented effects, without the direction of the will, to any muſcles deſtined to voluntary motion, over-irritates them. 4. The muſcles, irritated by the increaſed nervous energy and airterial influx, contract more forcibly and involuntarily by their excited vis inſita, conjointly with other cauſes, as long as the increaſed nervous energy continues. 5. This increaſed energy in the nervous ſyſtem may be excited either by the mind, or by any acrimony in the blood, or other ſtimuli ſufficiently irritating to increaſe the arterial carbon, nervous influence, and the vires inſitæ of muſcles. 6. After muſcles have been once accuſtomed to act involuntarily, and with increaſed action, the ſame cauſes can readily produce the ſame effects on thoſe organs. 7. All parts that have muſcular fibres may be convulſed. 8. The ſenſations in the mind moſt capable of producing convulſions, are timidity, horror, anger, great ſenſibility of the ſoul, &c.

Conyza cœrulea, (*Conyza, æ*, f. κονυζα; from κονις, duſt; becauſe its powder is ſprinkled to kill fleas in places where they are troubleſome). The herb flea-bane. This acrid plant is exhibited on the continent in ſome diſeaſes of the cheſt.

Conyza media. *Arnica Suedenſis. Inula dyſenterica*; *foliis amplexicaulibus, cordato-oblongis*; *caule villoſo, paniculato*; *ſquamis calycinis, ſetaceis*, of Linnæus. An acrid, ſubaromatic plant, poſſeſſing antidyſenteric virtues. It is ſometimes called *arnica ſpuria*.

Copaiva balsam. See *Balſamum Copaivæ*.

Copaifĕra officinālis. The ſyſtematic name of the plant from which the Copaiva bâlſam is obtained. See *Balſamum Copaivæ*.

Copal, (*Copal*, n. ind. The American name of all clear odoriferous gums). Gum copal. This reſinous ſubſtance is imported from Guinea, where it is found in the ſand on the ſhore. It is of a yellow colour, faintly gliſtening, imperfectly tranſparent, and apt to break with a conchoidal fracture. It is taſteleſs, and, while cold, inodorous. It is uſed diſſolved in rectified ſpirit of wine in laxities of the gums, with the ſame views as maſtich.

Cophos, (κωφος, dumb). Deaf or dumb: alſo a dullneſs in any of the ſenſes.

Cophōsis, (*Cophoſis, is*, f. κωφωσις; from κωφος, deaf). A difficulty of hearing. It is often ſymptomatic of ſome diſeaſe. See *Dyſecoëa*.

Copper, (*Cuprum, i*, n. *quaſi æs Cyprium*; ſo named from the iſland of Cyprus, whence it was formerly brought). An imperfect metal, of a red colour, and very ductile. It exiſts in nature in a perfect metallic ſtate, in mineralization by oxygen and carbonic acid; in combination with muriatic acid; in union with arſeniac acid; and in a compound with metallic arſenic. Its colours in theſe ores are, uſually, ſhades of blue, red, green, and orange. Pure copper obtained from its ores, is of a bright red colour; has an unpleaſant ſmell, which is rendered ſtronger by heat or friction; a nauſeous, ſtyptic taſte, leſs ſenſible, however, than that of iron; and is hard, elaſtic, and ſonorous; if expoſed to the air or moiſ-

ture, its surface becomes changed into a hard green coating. Nitric acid oxydates copper with an energy and rapidity which occasion the disengagement of azot with effervescence. The diluted acid totally dissolves the metal, and produces a nitrate of copper. Sulphuric acid, when concentrated and aided by caloric, has the power of dissolving copper, which by immediate evaporation affords copperas. The acetous acid, whether hot or cold, acts upon copper only with an energy sufficient to corrode it. The salt thus formed is termed *verdigrise*. The uses of this metal in the arts, are numerous. All its preparations are very violent poisons, and ought never to be given internally, but with the greatest caution. The sulphat of copper is a powerful tonic and diuretic, and is given internally in dropsies and weaknesses. Externally, it is employed by surgeons as an escharotic. See *Cuprum vitriolatum*.

Copperas. A name given to blue, green, and white vitriol.

Cor, (*Cor, dis*, n.). See *Heart*.

Cŏrăco-brachĭālis, (Κορακο-βραχιαιος; from κοραξ, a crow, and βραχιων, the arm). *Coràco-brachiæus*. A muscle, so called from its origin and insertion. It is situated on the humerus, before the scapula. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the forepart of the caracoid process of the scapula, adhering, in its descent, to the short head of the biceps; inserted, tendinous and fleshy, about the middle of the internal part of the os humeri, near the origin of the third head of the triceps, called *brachialis externus*, where it sends down a thin, tendinous expansion to the internal condyle of the os humeri. Its use is to raise the arm upwards and forwards.

Corăco-hyoidēus, (*Coraco-hyoideus, sc. musculus*, κορακο-υοιδαιος; from κορακ, a crow, and υοειδης, the bone called *hyoides*). See *Omo-hyoideus*.

Coracoid, (*Coracoideus*, κορακοειδης; from κορακ, a crow, and ειδος, resemblance; because it is shaped like the beak of a crow). A name given to a process on the upper and anterior part of the scapula.

Coral. See *Corallium*.

Corallina, (*Corallina*, dim. of *corallium*; from κορη, a daughter, and αλς, the sea: because it is generated in the sea). *Muscus maritimus*. *Corallina officinalis*. Coralline. A marine production, resembling a small plant without leaves, consisting of numerous brittle cretaceous substances, friable betwixt the fingers, and crackling between the teeth. Powdered, it is administered to children as an anthelmintic.

Corallīna corsicāna. *Helmintho-corton*. *Conferva helmintho-cortos*. *Corallina rubra*. *Corallina melito-chorton*. *Lemitho-corton*. Corsican worm-weed. *Fucus helmintho-corton* of De la Tourrette. This plant has gained great repute in destroying all species of intestinal worms. Its virtues are extolled by many; but impartial experimentalists have frequently been disappointed of its efficacy. The Geneva Pharmacopœia directs a syrup to be made of it.

Corallīna melito-corton. See *Corallina corsicana*.

Corallīna rubra. See *Corallina corsicana*.

Coralline. See *Corallina*.

Coralline, corsican. See *Corallina corsicana*.

Corallĭum album. A hard, white, calcareous, brittle substance, the nidus of the *Madrepora oculata*. Class. *Vermes*. Order. *Lithophyta*. It is sometimes exhibited as an absorbent earth.

Corallĭum rubrum, (*Corallium, i*, n. κοραλλιον; from κορη, a daughter, and αλς, the sea: so named, because it is generated in the sea). The red coral is mostly employed medicinally. It is a hard, brittle, cal-

careous ſubſtance, reſembling the ſtalk of a plant, and the habitation of the *Iſis nobilis*. Claſs. *Vermes*. Order. *Zoophitæ*. When powdered, it is exhibited as an abſorbent earth to children; but does not appear to claim any preference to common chalk.

CORDĬA MYXA. The ſyſtematic name of the Sebeſten plant. See *Sebeſten*.

CORDIALS. Medicines are generally ſo termed, which poſſeſs warm and ſtimulating properties, and that are given to raiſe the ſpirits.

CORIANDER. See *Coriandrum.*

CORIANDRUM, (*Coriandrum, i,* n. κοριανδρον; from κορη, a pupil, and ανηρ, a man; becauſe of its roundneſs like the pupil of a man's eye). Coriander. *Coriandrum ſativum* of Linnæus. *Coriandrum fructibus globoſis.* Claſs. *Pentandria.* Order. *Digynia.* Every part of the plant has a very offenſive odour; but upon being dried the ſeeds have a tolerably grateful ſmell, and their taſte is moderately warm, and ſlightly pungent. They poſſeſs a ſtomachic and carminative power, and are directed in the *infuſum amarum*, *infuſum ſennæ tartariſarum*, and ſome other compoſitions of the pharmacopœias.

CORIANDRUM SATĪVUM. The ſyſtematic name of the plant called *coriandrum* in the pharmacopœias. See *Coriandrum.*

CORN, (*Clavus, i,* m.). A hardened portion of cuticle, produced by preſſure: ſo called, becauſe a piece can be picked out like a corn of barley. Corns are ſometimes connected with the perioſteum.

CORNĒA OPĀCA. The ſclerotic membrane of the eye, is ſo called, becauſe it is of a horny conſiſtence and opake. See *Sclerotic membrane.*

CORNĔA TRANSPARENS. The tranſparent portion of the ſclerotic membrane, through which the rays of light paſs, is ſo called, to diſtinguiſh it from that which is opake. See *Sclerotic membrane.*

CORNFLOWER. See *Cyanus.*

CORN-SALLAD. This is the *Valeriana locuſta* of Linnæus. It is cultivated in our gardens, and eaten amongſt the early ſallads. It is a very wholeſome ſucculent plant, poſſeſſing antiſcorbutic and gently aperient virtues.

CORNU AMMONIS. *Cornu arietis.* When the pes hippocampi of the human brain is cut tranſverſely through, the cortical ſubſtance is ſo diſpoſed as to reſemble a ram's horn. This is the true cornu ammonis, though the name is often applied to the *pes hippocampi.*

CORNU ARIETIS. See *Cornu ammonis.*

CORNU CERVI. Hartſhorn. The horns of ſeveral ſpecies of ſtag, as the *cervus alces*, *cervus dama*, *cervus elaphus*, and *cervus tarunda*, are uſed medicinally. Boiled, they impart to the water a nutritious jelly, which is frequently ſerved to the table, and given in diſeaſes: but the chief uſe of the horns is for calcination; to afford the *liquor volatilis cornu cervi*, ammoniac, the carbonate of ammoniac, &c. which are in frequent uſe as important articles in the materia medica.

CORNU CERVI CALCINĀTUM. See *Cornu cervi uſtum.*

CORNU CERVI USTUM. *Cornu cervi uſtum.* Burnt hartſhorn ſhavings poſſeſs abſorbent, antacid, and adſtringent properties, and are given in form of decoction, as a common drink in diarrhœas, pyroſis, &c.

CORNŬA, (*Cornu.* n. ind. pl. *cornua*). Warts. Horny excreſcences, which moſtly form on the joints of the toes. Similar diſeaſed productions have been known to ariſe on the head and other parts.

CORŌNA GLANDIS. The round, prominent margin terminating the

glans penis, and on which the odoriferous glands are situated.

Corōna venĕris. Venereal blotches on the forehead are so termed.

Coronal suture, (*Coronālis*; from *corona*, a crown or garland: so named, because the ancients wore their garlands in its direction). *Sutura coronalis*. The suture of the head, that extends from one temple across to the other, uniting the two parietal bones with the frontal.

Coronary vessels. *Vasa coronaria*. The arteries and veins of the heart and stomach. The term coronary is here given from *corona*, a crown, surrounding any part in the manner of a crown.

Coronoid, (*Coronoideus*, κορωνοειδης; from κορωνη, a crow, and ειδος, likeness). Processes of bones are so called, that have any resemblance to a crow's beak.

Corpŏra cavernōsa penis. Two spongy bodies that arise, one from each ascending portion of the ischium, and form the whole bulk of the penis above the urethra, and terminate obtusely behind its glans.

Corŏpra fimbriāta. The flattened terminations of the posterior crura of the fornix of the brain, which turn round into the inferior cavity of the lateral ventricle, and end in the *pedes hippocampi*.

Corpŏra olivārĭa. The two external prominences of the medulla oblongata, that are shaped somewhat like an olive.

Corpōra pyrāmĭdālĭa. Two internal prominences of the medulla oblongata, which are more of a pyramidal shape than the former.

Corpŏra quadrigemĭna. See *Tubercula quadrigemina*.

Corpŏra strĭāta. So named from their appearance. See *Cerebrum*.

Corpus annulāre. A synonym of pons Varolii. See *Pons Varolii*.

Corpus callōsum. *Commissura magna cerebri*. The white medullary part joining the two hemispheres of the brain, and coming into view under the falx of the dura mater when the hemispheres are drawn from each other. On the surface of the *corpus callosum* two lines are conspicuous, called the *raphe*.

Corpus lŭtĕum. The granulous papilla which is found in that part of the ovarium of females, from whence an ovum had proceeded: hence their presence determines that the female has been impregnated; and the number of the *corpora lutea* corresponds with the number of impregnations. It is, however, asserted by a modern writer, that *corpora lutea* have been detected in young virgins, where no impregnations could possibly have taken place.

Corpus mucōsum. See *Rete mucosum*.

Corpus pampiniforme, (*Pampiniformis*; from *pampinus*, a tendril, and *forma*, likeness, resembling a tendril). Applied to the spermatic chord, and thoracic duct also. The plexus of veins surrounding the spermatic artery in the cavity of the abdomen.

Corpus reticŭlāre. See *Rete mucosum*.

Corpus spongĭōsum urĕthræ. *Substantia spongiosa urethræ. Corpus spongiosum penis.* This substance originates before the prostate gland, surrounds the urethra, and forms the *bulb*; then proceeds to the end of the corpora cavernosa, and terminates in the *glans penis*, which it forms.

Corroborants, (*Corroborantia, sc. medicamenta*). Medicines, or whatever gives strength to the body, as bark, wine, beef, cold bath, &c.

Corrosive sublimate. See *Hydrargyrus muriatus*.

Corrosives, (*Corrosiva*; from *corrodo*, to eat away). See *Escharotics*.

Corrugation. The contraction

of any part into folds or wrinkles.

CORRUGĀTOR SUPERCĬLĬI, (*Corrugator, oris*, m. from *corrugo*, to wrinkle). *Muſculus ſupercilii* of Winſlow. *Muſculus frontalis verus, ſeu corrugator*, of Douglas. A ſmall muſcle ſituated on the forehead. When one muſcle acts, it is drawn towards the other, and projects over the inner canthus of the eye. When both muſcles act, they pull down the ſkin of the forehead, and make it wrinkle, particularly between the eyebrows.

CORTEX, (*Cortex, ĭcis*, d. g.). This term is very generally, though improperly, given to the Peruvian bark. It applies to any rind or bark.

CORTEX ANGELĪNÆ. The bark of a tree growing in Grenada. A decoction of it is recommended as a vermifuge. It excites tormina, ſimilar to jalap, and operates by purging.

CORTEX ANGUSTŪRÆ. See *Anguſturæ cortex*.

CORTEX BELA-AYE. See *Bela-aye cortex*.

CORTEX CANELLÆ MALABRICÆ. See *Caſſia lignea*.

CORTEX CARDINALIS DE LUGO. The Peruvian bark was ſo called, becauſe the Cardinal Lugo had teſtimonials of above a thouſand cures performed by it in the year 1653.

CORTEX CHINÆ REGĬUS. See *Cinchona cortex peruvianus fluvus*.

CORTEX CHINÆ SURINAMENSIS. This bark is remarkably bitter, and preferable to the other ſpecies in intermittent fevers.

CORTEX CHINCHINÆ. See *Cinchona*.

CORTEX ELUTHERĬÆ. See *Caſcarillæ cortex*.

CORTEX GEOFFROYÆ JAMAICENSIS. Bulge-water-tree bark. The bark of the *Geoffroya jamaicenſis*; *inermis foliolis lanceolatis*, of Swartz. It is principally uſed in Jamaica, and, with great ſucceſs, as a vermifuge.

CORTEX LAVOLA. The bark bearing this name is ſuppoſed to be the produce of the tree which affords the *aniſum ſtellatum*. Its virtues are ſimilar.

CORTEX MAGELLANICUS. See *Winteranus cortex*.

CORTEX MASSOY. The produce of New Guinea, where it is beaten into a pultaceous maſs with water, and rubbed upon the abdomen to allay tormina of the bowels. It partakes of the ſmell and flavour of cinnamon.

CORTEX PERUVIĀNUS. See *Cinchona*.

CORTEX PERUVIĀNUS RUBER. See *Cinchona cortex peruvianus ruber*.

CORTEX POCGEREBÆ. This bark is ſent from America; and is ſaid to be ſerviceable in diarrhœas, dyſenteries, and hepatic fluxes.

CORTEX WINTERANUS. See *Winteranus cortex*.

CORTICAL SUBSTANCE. *Subſtantia corticalis*. Cineritious ſubſtance. The external ſubſtance of the brain is of a darker colour than the internal, and ſurrounds the medullary ſubſtance, as the bark does the tree; hence it is termed *cortical*. See alſo *Kidney*.

CORŸLUS, (*Corylus, i*, f. Derivation uncertain; according to ſome, from καρυα, a walnut). The hazel tree. The nuts of this tree are much eaten in this country: they are hard of digeſtion, and often paſs the bowels very little altered; if, however, they are well chewed, they give out a nutritious oil. An oil is alſo obtained from the wood of this tree, *Corylus avellana*; *ſtipulis ovatis, obtuſis*, of Linnæus, which is efficacious againſt the tooth-ache, and is ſaid to kill worms.

CORŸLUS AVELLĀNA. The hazel-nut tree. See *Corylus*.

CORŸZA, (*Coryza, æ*, f. κορυζα; from καρα, the head, and ζεω, to boil). An increaſed diſcharge of mucus from the noſe. See *Catarrh*.

COSMETIC, (*Coſmetica*, κοσμητικα;

from κοσμεω, to beautify). Waſhes, or any application that preſerves the beauty and ſmoothneſs of the ſkin, is ſo called.

Costa, (*Coſta, æ*, f. *a cuſtodiendo*; becauſe the ribs ſurround and defend the vital parts). A rib. The ribs are four and twenty in number, twelve on each ſide of the thorax.

Costus amārus. See *Coſtus arabicus*.

Costus arabĭcus, (*Coſtus, i*, m. κοστος; from *kaſta*, Arab). The root of this tree poſſeſſes bitter and aromatic virtues, and is conſidered as a good ſtomachic. Formerly there were two other ſpecies, the *bitter* and *ſweet*, diſtinguiſhed for uſe. At preſent the Arabic only is known, and that is ſeldom employed.

Costus dulcis. See *Coſtus arabicus*.

Cotŭla fœtĭda, (*Cotula, æ*, f. dim. of *cos*, a whetſtone, from the reſemblance of its leaves to a whetſtone: or from κοιλη, a hollow). *Chamæmelum fœtidum*. Mayweed. Stinking camomile. This plant, *Anthemis cotula*; *receptaculis conicis, paleis ſetaceis, ſeminibus nudis*, of Linnæus, has a very diſagreeable ſmell; the leaves, a ſtrong, acrid, bitteriſh taſte; the flowers, however, are almoſt inſipid. It is ſaid to have been uſeful in hyſterical affections, but is very ſeldom employed.

Cotyloid cavity, (*Cotyloideus*; from κοτυλη, the name of an old meaſure, and ειδος, reſemblance). The acetabulum is ſo termed by ſome.

Couch-grass. See *Gramen caninum*.

Cough, (*Tuſſis, is*, f.). A ſonorous concuſſion of the thorax, produced by the ſudden expulſion of the inſpired air.

Counter-opening. *Contra-apertura*. An opening made in any part of an abſceſs oppoſite to one already in it. This is often done in order to afford a readier egreſs to the collected pus.

Cowhage. See *Dolichos*.

Cowper's glands, (*Cowperi glandŭlæ*; named from Cowper, who firſt deſcribed them). Three large muciparous glands of the male, two of which are ſituated before the proſtate gland under the accelerator muſcles of the urine, and the third more forward, before the bulb of the urethra. They excrete a fluid, ſimilar to that of the proſtate gland, during the venereal orgaſm.

Coxa, (*Coxa, æ*, f.). The iſchium is ſometimes ſo called, and ſometimes the os cocygis.

Crambe măritĭma. The ſyſtematic name for the ſea coal. See *Sea coal*.

Cramp, (*Crampus, i*, m. *krampe*; from *krimpen*, to contract. Germ. This word was firſt uſed by Van Helmont). A ſpaſm of a muſcle or muſcles. See *Contraction*.

Cranesbill, bloody. See *Geranium ſanguinarium*.

Cranĭum, (*Cranium, i*, n. κρανιον, *quaſi* καρανιον; from καρα, the head). The ſkull, or ſuperior part of the head. See *Caput*.

Crasis, (*Craſis, is*, f. κρασις; from κερανυμι, to mix). A term applied to the humours of the body, when there is ſuch an admixture of their principles as to conſtitute a healthy ſtate: hence, in dropſies, ſcurvy, &c. the craſis, or healthy mixture of the principles of the blood, is deſtroyed.

Crassamentum, (*Craſſamentum, i*, n. from *craſſus*, thick). See *Blood*.

Crassula, (*Craſſula, æ*, f. from *craſſus*, thick: ſo named from the thickneſs of its leaves). See *Faba craſſa*.

Cream of tartar. See *Tartris potaſſæ acidulus*.

Cremaster, (*Cremaſter, eris*, m.

κρεμαστηρ; from κρεμαω, to suspend). A muscle of the testicle, by which it is suspended and drawn up, and compressed in the act of coition. It arises from Poupart's ligament, passes over the spermatic cord, and is lost in the cellular membrane of the scrotum, covering the testicles.

CREPĪTUS LUPI. See *Bovista*.

CRESS, WATER. See *Nasturtium aquaticum*.

CRĒTA PRÆPĂRĀTA. Prepared chalk is a carbonate of lime, and possesses antacid qualities: it is exhibited, in form of electuary, mixture, or bolus, in pyrosis, cardialgia, acidities of the primæ viæ, rhachitis, crusta lactea, &c. and is an antidote against white arsenic.

CRETACEOUS ACID. Fixed air. See *Carbonic acid*.

CRETE, DITTANY OF. See *Dictamnus creticus*.

CRIBRIFORM BONE, (*Cribriformis*; from *cribrum*, a sieve, and *forma*, likeness; because it is perforated like a sieve). The ethmoid bone is so called. See *Ethmoid bone*.

CRICO. Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached to the cricoid cartilage.

CRICO-ARYTÆNOIDĒUS LATERĀLIS. A muscle of the glottis, that opens the *rima* by pulling the ligaments from each other.

CRICO-ARYTÆNOIDĒUS POSTĪCUS. A muscle of the glottis, that opens the *rima glottidis* a little; and by pulling back the arytænoid cartilage, stretches the ligament so as to make it tense.

CRICO-PHARYNGEUS. See *Constrictor pharyngis inferior*.

CRICO-THYROIDĒUS. The last of the second layer of muscles between the os hyoides and trunk, that pulls forwards and depresses the thyroid cartilage, or elevates and draws backwards the cricoid cartilage.

CRICOID CARTILAGES, (*Cricoideus*, κρικοειδης; from κρικος, a ring, and ειδος, resemblance). The round ring-like cartilages of the larynx.

CRĪNIS, (*Crinis, is*, m.). The hair on the back of the head. See *Capillus*.

CRINŌNES, (*Crinones, um*; from *crinis*, the hair). *Comedones*. Collections of a sebaceous fluid in the cutaneous follicles upon the face and breast, which appear like black spots, and when pressed out, look like small worms, or, as they are commonly called, maggots.

CRISIS, (*Crisis, is*, f. κρισις; from κρινω, to judge). The sudden change of symptoms in acute febrile diseases, indicating recovery or death.

CRISTA GALLI. An eminence of the ethmoid bone, so called from its resemblance to a cock's comb.

CRITICAL DAYS. Many physicians have been of opinion, that there is something in the nature of fevers which generally determines them to be of a certain duration; and, therefore, that their terminations, whether salutary or fatal, happen at certain periods of the disease, rather than at others. These periods, which were carefully marked by Hippocrates, are called *critical days*. The critical days, or those on which we suppose the termination of continued fevers especially to happen, are the third, fifth, seventh, ninth, eleventh, fourteenth, seventeenth, and twentieth.

CROCUS, (*Crocus, i*, m. Κροκος of Theophrastus. The story of the young Crocus, turned into this flower, may be seen in the fourth book of Ovid's Metamorphoses. Some derive this name from κροκις, or κροκη, a thread; whence the stamens of flowers are called κροκοειδες. Others, again, derive it from *Corycus*, a city and mountain of Cilicia). Saffron. The prepared stigmata of the *Crocus sativus* of Linnæus. *Crocus spatha univalvi radicali, corolli tubo longissimo*. Class. *Triandria*. Order. *Monogy-*

nia. Saffron has a powerful, penetrating, diffuſive ſmell, and a warm, pungent, bitteriſh taſte. Many virtues were formerly attributed to this medicine, but little confidence is now placed in it. The Edinburgh College directs a tincture, and that of London a ſyrup of this drug.

Crocus. A term given by the older chemiſts to ſeveral preparations of metallic ſubſtances, from their reſemblance: thus, *crocus martis*, *crocus veneris*.

Crocus antimonĭi. *Crocus metallorum.* This preparation is a ſulphurated oxyd of antimony, and therefore called *oxydum ſtibii ſulphuratum* in the new chemical nomenclature. It poſſeſſes emetic and draſtic cathartic powers, producing a violent diaphoreſis afterwards.

Crocus antimonĭi. See *Oxydum ſtibii ſulphuratum.*

Crōcus satīvus. The ſyſtematic name for the officinal ſaffron. See *Crocus.*

Croton cascarillæ. The plant which affords the Caſcarilla bark. See *Caſcarilla.*

Croton laccifĕrum. The ſyſtematic name of the plant upon which gum-lac is depoſited.

Croton tiglĭum. The tree which affords the pavaua wood and tiglii ſeeds. See *Lignum pavauæ*, and *Tiglia grana.*

Croton tinctorĭum. The ſyſtematic name of the lacmus plant. See *Bezetta cærulea.*

Crotaphite muscle, (*Crotaphites*, κροταφίτης; from κρόταφος, the temple). See *Temporalis.*

Croup. Inflammation of the trachea. See *Cynanche.*

Crow-foot. See *Ranunculus.*

Crow-foot cranesbill. See *Geranium batrachioides.*

Crucible, (*Crucibulum*, *i*, n. from *crucio*, to torment: ſo named, becauſe, in the language of old chemiſts, metals are tormented in it, and tortured to yield up their powers and virtues). A chemical inſtrument, moſtly made of clay, ſand, and ſometimes of black-lead, forged iron, or platina. It is uſed for roaſting, calcination, and fuſion.

Cruor, (*Cruor*, *oris*, m.). The red part of the blood. See *Blood.*

Crŭra. The plural of *crus*, a leg or root; applied to ſome parts of the body, from their reſemblance to a leg or root: thus, *crura cerebri*, *crura cerebelli*, the *crura* of the diaphragm, &c. &c.

Crurālis, (*Cruralis*, *ſc. muſculus*; from *crus*, the leg). *Cruræus.* A muſcle of the leg, ſituated on the fore-part of the thigh. It ariſes, fleſhy, from between the two trochanters of the os femoris, but nearer the leſſer, firmly adhering to moſt of the fore part of the os femoris; and is inſerted, tendinous, into the upper part of the patella, behind the rectus. Its uſe is to aſſiſt the vaſti and rectus muſcles in the extenſion of the leg.

Crŭral hernia. Femoral hernia. A tumour under the groin, and in the upper part of the thigh, ariſing from a protruſion of part of an abdominal viſcus under Poupart's ligament. See *Hernia cruralis.*

Crusta lactĕa. A diſeaſe that moſtly attacks ſome part of the face of infants at the breaſt. It is known by an eruption of broad puſtules, full of a glutinous liquor, which form white ſcabs when they are ruptured. It is cured by mineral alteratives.

Crўptæ, (*Crypta*, *æ*, f. κρυπταί; from κρύπτω, to hide). A term given by anatomiſts to the little rounded appearances, at the end of the ſmall arteries of the cortical ſubſtance of the kidneys, that appear as if the artery were convoluted upon itſelf.

Crystalline lens, (*Lens cryſtallĭna—cryſtallina*, from its cryſtal-like appearance). A lentiform pellucid body, encloſed in a membranous capſule, called the capſule of the

cryſtalline lens, and ſituated in a peculiar depreſſion in the anterior part of the vitreous humour. Its uſe is to tranſmit and refract the focus of the rays of light to the vitreous humour.

Crystallization, (*Cryſtallizatio, ōnis*, f. from *cryſtallus*, a cryſtal). A property by which cryſtallizable bodies tend to aſſume a regular form, when placed in circumſtances favorable to that particular diſpoſition of their particles. Almoſt all minerals poſſeſs this property, but it is moſt eminent in ſaline ſubſtances. The circumſtances which are favorable to the cryſtallization of ſalts, and without which it cannot take place, are two: 1. Their particles muſt be divided and ſeparated by a fluid, in order that the correſponding faces of thoſe particles may meet and unite. 2. In order that this union may take place, the fluid which ſeparates the integrant parts of the ſalt muſt be gradually carried off, ſo that it may no longer divide them.

Cubebæ, (from *cubabah*, Arab.). *Piper caudatum.* Cubebs. The dried berries of the *Piper cubeba*; *foliis oblique ovatis, ſeu oblongis venoſis acutis, ſpica ſolitaria pedunculata oppoſitifolio, fructibus pedicellatis*, of Linnæus. They are of an aſh-brown colour, generally wrinkled, and reſembling pepper, but furniſhed each with a ſlender ſtalk. They are a warm ſpice, of a pleaſant ſmell, and moderately pungent taſte; and may be exhibited in all caſes where warm ſpicy medicines are indicated.

Cubebs. See *Cubebæ.*

Cubit, (*Cubĭtus, i*, m. from *cubo*, to lie down; becauſe the ancients uſed to lie down on that part at their meals). The fore-arm, or that part between the bend of the arm, including the elbow and wriſt.

Cubital artery, (*Arteria cubitālis, vel ulnāris*). A branch of the brachial that proceeds in the fore-arm, and gives off the recurrent and interoſſeals, and forms the palmary arch, from which ariſe branches going to the fingers, called digitals.

Cubital nerve, (*Nervus cubĭtālis, vel ulnāris*). Ulnar nerve. It ariſes from the brachial plexus, and proceeds along the ulna.

Cuboidēs os, (*Cuboides*, κυβοειδης; from κυβος, a cube or die, and ειδος, likeneſs). A tarſal bone of the foot, ſo called from its reſemblance.

Cuckow flower. See *Cardamine.*

Cucullaris muscle, (*Cucullaris, ſc. muſculus*; from *cucullus*, a hood: ſo named, becauſe it is ſhaped like a hood). See *Trapezius.*

Cucumber. See *Cucumis.*

Cucumber, bitter. See *Colocynthis.*

Cucumber, squirting. See *Cucumis agreſtis.*

Cucumber, wild. See *Cucumis agreſtis.*

Cucŭmis, (*Cucumis, is*, m. *quaſi curvimeres*, from their curvature). The cucumber. This fruit is the produce of the *Cucumis ſativus*; *foliorum angulis rectis*; *pomis oblongis ſcabris*, of Linnæus. It is cooling and aperient, but very apt to diſagree with bilious ſtomachs. It ſhould always be eaten with pepper and oil. The ſeeds were formerly uſed medicinally.

Cucŭmis agrēstis. Wild or ſquirting cucumber. *Cucumis aſininus.* The dried juice of this plant, *Momordica elaterium*; *pomis hiſpidus cirrhis nullis*, of Linnæus. Claſs. *Monoecia.* Order. *Syngeneſia*; is the elaterium of the ſhops. It has neither ſmell nor taſte, and is the moſt powerful cathartic in the whole materia medica. Its efficacy in dropſies is ſaid to be conſiderable; it, however, requires great caution in the exhibition. Small doſes are to be given at firſt, and repeated at proper intervals.

Cucŭmis asininus. See *Cucumis agreſtis.*

Cucŭmis colocynthis. The ſyſtematic name for the officinal bitter apple. See *Colocynthis*.

Cucŭmis melo. The ſyſtematic name of the melon plant. See *Melo*.

Cucŭmis satīvus. The ſyſtematic name of the cucumber plant. See *Cucumis*.

Cucurbīta, (*Cucurbita, æ*, f. *a curvitate*, according to Scaliger; the firſt ſyllable being doubled, as in *cacula, populus*, &c.) The common pumpion. The ſeeds of this plant, *Cucurbita pepo*; *foliis lobatis, pomis lævibus*, are uſed indifferently with thoſe of the *Cucurbita lagenaria*; *foliis ſubangulatis, tomentoſis, baſi ſubtus biglandulosis*; *pomis lignoſis*, of Linnæus, or gourd. They contain a large proportion of oil, which may be made into emulſions; but is ſuperceded by that of ſweet almonds.

Cucurbīta citrullus. The ſyſtematic name of the water-melon plant. See *Citrullus*.

Cucurbita lagenaria. The ſyſtematic name of the bottle gourd plant. See *Cucurbita*.

Cucurbīta pepo. The ſyſtematic name of the common pumpion. See *Cucurbita*.

Culilawan cortex. *Culitlawan. Cortex caryophylloides*. The bark of the *Laurus culilawan*; *foliis triplinerviis oppoſitis*, of Linnæus. It very much reſembles cinnamon in appearance and properties.

Culinary, (*Culinarius, ſc. herba*; from *culina*, a kitchen). Any thing belonging to the kitchen, as culinary ſalt, culinary herbs.

Cumin seeds. See *Cuminum*.

Cumĭnum, (*Cuminum, i*, n. κυμινον; from κυω, to bring forth; becauſe it was ſaid to cure ſterility). *Cyminum*. Cumin. *Cuminum cyminum* of Linnæus. Claſs. *Pentandria*. Order. *Digynia*. The ſeeds of cumin, which are the only part of the plant in uſe, have a bitteriſh taſte, accompanied with an aromatic flavour, but not agreeable. They are, generally, preferred to other ſeeds for external uſe in diſcuſſing indolent tumours, as the encyſted, ſcrophulous, &c. and give name both to a plaſter and cataplaſm in the pharmacopœias.

Cumĭnum cyminum. The ſyſtematic name of the cumin plant. See *Cuminum*.

Cuneiform, (*Cuneiformis*; from *cuneus*, a wedge, and *forma*, likeneſs). Several bones are ſo called, being ſhaped, or fixed in, like a wedge: ſuch are the ſphænoid bone, and ſome bones of the wriſt and tarſus.

Cupel. *Catillus cinereus*. A chemical inſtrument, which ſuffers the baſer metals to paſs through it, when expoſed to heat, and retains the pure metal. This proceſs is termed cupellation.

Cupellation, (*Cupellatio, ōnis*. f. from *kuppel*, Germ.). The purifying of perfect metals by means of an addition of lead, which at a due heat becomes vitrified, and promotes the vitrification and calcination of ſuch imperfect metals as may be in the mixture, ſo that theſe laſt are carried off in the fuſible glaſs that is formed, and the perfect metals are left nearly pure. The name of this operation is taken from the veſſels made uſe of, which are called cupels.

Cupressus, (*Cupreſſus*, κυπρισσος, or κυπαρισσος: ſo called, απο τυ κυειν παρισυς τυς ακρεμονας, becauſe it produces equal branches). Every part of this plant, *Cupreſſus ſempervirens*; *foliis imbricatis ſquamis quadrangulis*, of Linnæus, was formerly uſed medicinally. It abounds with a bitter, aromatic, terebinthinate fluid; and is ſaid to be the remedy againſt intermittents. Its wood is extremely durable, and conſtitutes the caſes of the Egyptian mummies.

Cupressus sempervirens.—The ſyſtematic name of the cupreſſus of the ſhops. See *Cupreſſus*.

Cuprum, (*Cuprum, i*, n. *quaſi*

æs Cyprium: so called from the island of Cyprus, whence it was brought). See *Copper*.

CUPRUM AMMŌNIĂCĀLE. See *Sulphas cupri ammoniacalis*.

CUPRUM VITRĬOLĀTUM. *Vitriolum Romanum*. See *Sulphas cupri*.

CURCŪMA, (*Curcuma, æ*, f. from the Arabic *curcum*, or *hercum*). Turmeric. *Curcuma longa. Curcuma rotunda. Curcuma longa*; *foliis lanceolatis*; *nervis lateralibus numerosissimis*, of Linnæus. The root of this plant is imported here in its dried state from the East Indies, in various forms. Externally it is of a pale yellow colour, wrinkled, solid, ponderous, and the inner substance of a deep saffron or gold colour: its odour is somew at fragrant; to the taste it is bitterish, slightly acrid, exciting a moderate degree of warmth in the mouth, and on being chewed it tinges the saliva yellow. It is now very seldom used medicinally, but retains a place in our pharmacopœias.

CURCŪMA LONGA. The turmeric plant. See *Curcuma*.

CURCŪMA ROTUNDA. See *Curcuma*.

CURRANTS. See *Ribes*.

CURSUTA. A root so called in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia. It possesses a bitter taste, and resembles gentian in many of its properties.

CUSCŪTA, (*Cuscuta, æ*, f. According to Linnæus, a corruption from the Greek Κασυτα, or Καδυτας, which is from the Arabic *Chessuth*, or *Chasuth*). See *Epithymum*.

CUSCŪTA EPITHYMUM. The systematic name of dodder of thyme. See *Epithymum*.

CUSCŪTA EUROPĔA. The systematic name of a species of dodder of thyme, See *Epithymum*.

CUSPIDĀTI, (*Cuspidatus, sc. dens*; from *cuspis*, a point; because they are pointed). See *Teeth*.

CUTANEOUS, (*Cutaneus, sc. morbus*; from *cutis*, the skin). Belonging to the skin, as cutaneous eruptions, &c.

CUTICLE, (*Cutĭcŭla, æ*, f. dim. of *cutis*, the skin). *Epidermis*. Scarf-skin. A thin, pellucid, insensible membrane, of a white colour, that covers and defends the true skin, with which it is connected by the hairs, exhaling and inhaling vessels, and the rete mucosum.

CUTIS, (*Cutis, is*, f.). *Derma*. The true skin. A thick, fibrous, vascular, and nervous membrane, that covers the whole external surface of the body, and is the situation of the organ of touch, exhalation, and inhalation.

CUTIS ANSERĪNA, (*Anserina*; from *anser, eris*, a goose). The rough state the skin is sometimes thrown into from the action of cold or other cause, in which it looks like the skin of the goose.

CYĂNUS, (*Cyanus, i*, f. κυανος, cærulean or sky-blue: so called from its colour). Blue-bottle. Corn-flower. The flowers of this plant, *Centaurea cyanus*; *calycibus serratis*; *foliis linearibus, integerrimis, infimis dentatis*, of Linnæus, were formerly in frequent use; but their antiphlogistic, antispasmodic, cordial, aperient, diuretic, and other properties are now, with great propriety, forgotten.

CYCLĂMEN, (*Cyclamen, ĭnis*, n. κυκλαμεν; from κυκλος, circular; either on account of the round form of the leaves, or of the roots). Cyclamen, or sow-bread. See *Arthanita*.

CYCLĂMEN EUROPĒUM. The systematic name of the sow-bread. See *Arthanita*.

CYDŌNĬUM MĀLUM, (*Cydonium*; from *Cydon*, a town in Crete, where they grew). The quince. The tree which affords this fruit is the *Pyrus cydonia* of Linnæus. *Pyrus foliis integerrimis, floribus solitariis*. Class. *Icosandria*. Order. *Pentagynia*. Quince seeds are directed by the London Col-

lege to be made into a mucilage, which is recommended in aphthous affections and excoriations of the mouth and fauces.

CYMINUM. See *Cuminum.*

CYNANCHE, (*Cynanche, es*, f. κυναγχη; from κυων, a dog, and αγχω, to ſuffocate or ſtrangle. It is ſo called from dogs being ſaid to be ſubject to it). Sore throat. It is a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ*, and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen. It is known by pain and redneſs of the throat, attended with a difficulty of ſwallowing and breathing. The ſpecies of this diſeaſe are: 1. *Cynanche trachialis*, the croup, a diſeaſe that moſtly attacks infants, who are ſuddenly ſeized with difficulty of breathing and a croupy noiſe: it is an inflammation of the mucous membrane of the trachea, that induces the ſecretion of a very tenacious coagulable lymph, which lines the trachea and bronchia, and impedes reſpiration. 2. *Cynanche tonſillaris*, when the pain and redneſs attack the mucous membrane of the fauces, but more eſpecially the tonſils. 3. *Cynanche pharyngea*, when the the pharynx is chiefly affected. 4. *Cynanche parotidea*. The mumps; an inflammation of the parotid gland, rendering deglutition difficult. 5. *Cynanche maligna*. The ulcerated, malignant, putrid ſore throat. This is characterized by the deglutition being leſs difficult than in the other ſpecies, by ſpots of a whitiſh or aſh colour attacking the tonſils and mucous membrane of the fauces, ſometimes ſpreading all over the throat, at other times forming diſtinct ulcers. It is always attended with great proſtration of ſtrength and typhus fever, and is very contagious.

CYNARA. See *Cinara.*

CYNARA SCOLYMUS. The ſyſtematic name of the artichoke. See *Cinara.*

CYNOCRAMBE, (*Cynocrambe*, κυνοκραμβη; from κυων, a dog, and κραμβη, cabbage; a herb of the cabbage tribe, with which dogs are ſaid to phyſic themſelves). Dog's mercury. *Mercurialis perennis* of Linnæus. A poiſonous plant very common in our hedges. It produces vomiting and purging, and the perſon then goes to ſleep, from which he does not often awake.

CYNOGLOSSUM, (*Cynogloſſum, i*, n. κυνογλωσσον; from κυων, a dog, and γλωσσα, a tongue: ſo named from its ſuppoſed reſemblance). *Lingua canina*. Hound's tongue. This plant, *Cynogloſſum officinale; ſtaminibus coralla brevioribus; foliis lato lanceolatis, tomentoſis, ſeſſilibus*, of Linnæus, poſſeſſes narcotic powers, but is ſeldom employed medicinally. Acids are ſaid to counteract the ill effects from an over doſe more ſpeedily than any thing elſe, after clearing the ſtomach.

CYNOGLOSSUM OFFICINALE.—The ſyſtematic name for hound's tongue. See *Cynogloſſum.*

CYNOMORIUM COCCINEUM. The ſyſtematic name of the *fungus melitenſis*. See *Fungus melitenſis.*

CYNOREXIA, (*Cynorexia, æ*, f. κυνορεξια; from κυων, a dog, and ορεξις, appetite). A voracious or canine appetite. See *Bulimia.*

CYNOSBATOS. See *Cynoſbatus.*

CYNOSBATUS, (*Cynoſbatus, i*, f. from κυων, a dog, and βαλος, a thorn; ſo called, becauſe dogs are ſaid to be attracted by its ſmell). Cynoſbatos. The dog-roſe, or wild brier, or hip tree. *Roſa canina germinibus ovatis pedunculiſque glabris, caule petioliſque aculeatis*, of Linnæus. Claſs. *Icoſandria*. Order. *Polygynia*. The fruit of this tree, called heps or hips, has a ſouriſh taſte, and obtains a place in the London pharmacopœias in the form of conſerve. It is ſeldom employed but to give form to more active remedies, in pills, boluſes, linctuſes, &c.

CYPERUS LONGUS, (*Cyperus, i.* m. κυπειρος; from κυπαρος, a little

round veſſel, which its roots are ſaid to reſemble). Cyperus, or Engliſh galangale. *Cyperus longus*; *culmo-triquetro folioſo, umbella folioſa ſupra-decompoſita*; *pedunculis nudis, ſpicis alternis*, of Linnæus. The ſmell of the root of this plant is aromatic, and its taſte warm, and ſomewhat bitter. It is now totally fallen into diſuſe.

Cyperus rotundus. This ſpecies, the round cyperus, *Cyperus rotundus*; *culmo triquetro ſubnudo, umbella decompoſita*; *ſpicis alternis linearibus*, of Linnæus, is generally preferred to the former, being a more gratefully aromatic bitter. It is chiefly uſed as a ſtomachic.

Cypress spurge. See *Eſula minor*.

Cystic duct. *Ductus cyſticus*. The membranous canal that conveys the bile from the hepatic duct into the gall-bladder.

Cystic artery. *Arteria cyſtica*. A branch of the hepatic.

Cystītis, (*Cyſtitis, idis*, f. κυστιτις; from κυστις, the bladder). Inflammation of the bladder. A genus of diſeaſe arranged by Cullen in the claſs *pyrexiæ*, and order *phlegmaſiæ*. It is known by great pain in the region of the bladder, attended with fever, a hard pulſe, a painful diſcharge of urine, and a frequent deſire to make water.

Cystocēle, (*Cyſtocele, es*, f. κυστοκηλη; from κυστις, the bladder, and κηλη, a tumour). An hernia formed by the protruſion of the urinary bladder.

Cytĭnus, (*Cytinus, i*, f. κυτινος; from κυω, to produce: ſo called from its fecundity). The bud or flower of the pomgrenate.

Cytinus hypocistis. The plant from whoſe fruit the *ſuccus hypociſtidis* is obtained. See *Hypociſtis*.

D.

Dactylus, (*Dactylus, i*, m. δακτυλος, a finger: ſo called from the likeneſs of its fruit to a finger). The date. The oblong fruit of the *Phœnix dactylifera*; *frondibus pinnatis*; *foliolis enſiformibus complicatis*, of Linnæus: before they are ripe, dates are rather rough and adſtringent; but when perfectly matured, they are much of the nature of the fig.—See *Carica*. Senegal dates are moſt eſteemed, they having a more ſugary, agreeable flavour than thoſe of Ægypt and other places.

Dæmonomania, (*Dæmonomania, æ*, f. δαιμωνομανια; from δαιμων, a dæmon, and μανια, madneſs). That ſpecies of melancholy, where the patient ſuppoſes himſelf to be poſſeſſed of devils.

Daisy, common. See *Bellis minor*.

Daisy, ox-eye. See *Bellis major*.

Damson. The fruit of the *Prunus damaſcena*, which, when perfectly ripe, affords a wholeſome article for pies, tarts, &c. gently opening the body; but when damſons are not perfectly mature, they produce cholicky pains, diarrhœa, and convulſions in children.

Dandelion. See *Taraxacum*.

Dandrif. See *Pityriaſis*.

Dane-wort. See *Ebulus*.

Daphne, (*Daphne, es*, f. δαφνη; from δαω, to burn, and φωνη, a noiſe; becauſe of the noiſe it makes when burnt). The laurel or bay tree.

Daphne, flax leaves. See *Thymelæa*.

Daphne gnidĭum. The ſyſte-

matic name of the tree which affords the *garou*. See *Thymelæa*.

DAPHNE LAUREOLA. The syſtematic name of the ſpurge laurel. See *Laureola*.

DAPHNE MEZEREUM. The syſtematic name of the mezereon. See *Mezereum*.

DARTOS, (*Dartos, i*, m. and *darton, i*, n. δαρτος; from δερω, to excoriate: ſo called from its raw and excoriated appearance). The part ſo called, under the ſkin of the ſcrotum, is by ſome anatomiſts conſidered as a muſcle, although it appears to be no more than a condenſation of the cellular membrane lining the ſcrotum. It is by means of the dartos that the ſkin of the ſcrotum is corrugated and relaxed.

DATE PLUM, INDIAN. See *Indian date plum*.

DATES. See *Dactylus*.

DATURA STRAMONIUM, (*Datura, æ*, f. Blancard ſays it is derived from the Indian word *datiro*, of which he knows not the meaning). The syſtematic name of the common thorn apple. See *Stramonium*.

DAUCUS, (*Daucus, i*, m. δαυκος, απο τω δαυω, from its relieving the colic and diſcuſſing flatulencies). The carrot. The cultivated root of the *Daucus carota, ſeminibus hiſpidis, petiolis ſubtus nervoſis*, of Linnæus. Claſs. *Pentandria*. Order. *Digynia*. Scraped, and applied in the form of a poultice, it is an uſeful application to phagedenic ulcers, and to cancers and putrid ſores. The ſeeds, which obtain a place in the materia medica, have a light aromatic ſmell, and a warm acrid taſte, and are eſteemed for their diuretic qualities, and for their utility in calculous and nephritic complaints. The boiled root is ſaid by many to be difficult of digeſtion; but this is the caſe only when the ſtomach is weak. It contains a conſiderable quantity of the ſaccharine principle, and is very nutritious.

DAUCUS CAROTA. The ſyſtematic name of the carrot plant. See *Daucus*.

DAUCUS CRETICUS. Candy carrot. The ſeeds of this plant, *Athamanta cretenſis; foliolis linearibus planis, hirſutis; petalis bipartitis; ſeminibus oblongis, hirſutis*, of Linnæus, are brought from the iſle of Candy: they have an aromatic ſmell, and a ſlightly biting taſte; and are occaſionally employed as carminatives and diuretics in diſeaſes of the primæ viæ and urinary paſſages.

DAUCUS SATIVUS. A variety of the *daucus carota*, whoſe ſeeds are preferred by ſome practitioners.

DAUCUS SYLVESTRIS. Wild carrot or bird's neſt. The ſeeds of the wild plant are ſaid to be more efficacious than thoſe of the garden carrot: they poſſeſs demulcent and aromatic qualities, and are given, in infuſion or decoction, in calculous complaints.

DEAD NETTLE. See *Lamium album*.

DEADLY NIGHTSHADE. See *Belladonna*.

DECIDUA, (*Decidua, ſc. membrana*; from *decido*, to fall down). *Membrana decidua*. A very thin and delicate membrane or tunic, which adheres to the gravid uterus, and is ſaid to be a reflexion of the chorion, and on that account, is called *decidua reflexa*. The tunica decidua comes away after delivery in ſmall pieces mixed with the *lochia*.

DECOCTION, (*Decoctum, i*, n. from *decoquo*, to boil). Any medicine boiled in a watery fluid. In a chemical point of view it is a continued ebullition with water, to ſeparate ſuch parts of bodies as are only ſoluble at that degree of heat.

DECOCTUM ALTHÆÆ. This preparation, directed in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, may be exhibited as a common drink in nephralgia, and many diſeaſes of the urinary paſſages with advantage.

DECOCTUM CHĂMÆMĒLI. A very common and excellent vehicle for tonic powders, pills, &c. It is alſo in frequent uſe for fermentation and glyſters.

DECOCTUM CINCHŌNÆ. This way of adminiſtering the bark is very general, as all the other preparations may be mixed with it as neceſſity requires. It is a very proper fomentation for prolapſus of the uterus and rectum.

DECOCTUM CORNU CERVI. *Decoctum album.* This preparation of hartſhorn poſſeſſes abſorbent and antacid qualities, and is a very excellent drink in fevers attended with diarrhœa and acidities of the primæ viæ.

DECOCTUM GEOFFRÆÆ. This is by far the moſt proper form for adminiſtering this medicine, which poſſeſſes laxative, narcotic, and anthelmintic virtues.

DECOCTUM GUAIĀCI COMPOSĬTUM. This poſſeſſes ſtimulant and diaphoretic qualities, and is generally exhibited in cutaneous diſeaſes which are dependant on a vitiated ſtate of the humours.

DECOCTUM HELLĔBŎRI ALBI. The itch and ſome eruptions of the ſcalp are occaſionally removed by this application, which ſhould be uſed as a lotion.

DECOCTUM HORDEI. Barley decoction is a very nutritive and ſoftning drink, and the moſt proper of all liquors in inflammatory diſeaſes. It is an excellent gargle in inflammatory ſore throats, mixed with a little nitre.

DECOCTUM HORDĔI COMPOSĬTUM. From the pectoral and demulcent qualities of this decoction, it may be adminiſtered as a common drink in catarrh, and ſeveral affections of the cheſt.

DECOCTUM MEZEREI. An acrid and very ſtimulating decoction, ſometimes exhibited in indolent glandular ſwellings.

DECOCTUM PRO ENĔMĀTE. A very excellent form for an emollient glyſter. A variety of medicines may be added to anſwer particular indications.

DECOCTUM PRO FOMENTO. This preparation poſſeſſes antiſeptic properties, and may be directed with advantage in ſphacelus.

DECOCTUM SARSAPARILLÆ.—This is much extolled by ſome practitioners in phthiſis, and to reſtore the ſtrength after a long courſe of mercury.

DECOCTUM SARSAPARILLÆ COMPOSĬTUM. The alterative property of this compound is very great: it is generally given after a courſe of mercury, where there has been nodes and indolent ulcerations, and with great benefit.

DECOCTUM SENEKÆ. The chief qualities of the ſeneka are contained in this form. An addition of a ſmall quantity of liquorice obviates an unpleaſant ſenſation otherwiſe produced by it in the fauces.

DECOCTUM ULMI. This may be emplŏyed, with great advantage, as a collyrium in chronic ophthalmia. It is given internally in ſome cutaneous eruptions.

DECOMPOSITION. A ſeparation of parts. See *Analyſis*.

DECORTICATION, (*Decorticatio, onis*, f. from *de*, from, and *cortex*, bark). The ſtripping any thing of its bark, huſk, or ſhell: thus almonds, and the like, are decorticated, that is, deprived of their pellicle, when ordered for medicinal purpoſes.

DECREPITATION, (*Decrepitatio, onis*, f. from *decrepo*, to crackle). A kind of crackling noiſe, which takes place in bodies when heated: it is peculiar to ſome kinds of ſalt; which, from a ſtate of ſolution, are cryſtallized ſo rapidly, that the cryſtals formed burſt into minute pieces.

DECUSSATION, (*Decuſſatio, onis*, f. from *decutio*, to divide). When

nerves or muſcular fibres croſs one another, they are ſaid to decuſſate each other.

DEFERENS VAS, (*Deferens*; from *defero*, to convey; becauſe it conveys the ſemen to the veſiculæ ſeminales). See *Vas deferens*.

DEFLAGRATION, (*Deflagratio, onis*, f. from *deflagro*, to burn). Calcination. A chemical term, chiefly employed to expreſs the burning or ſetting fire to any ſubſtance; as nitre, ſulphur, &c.

DEFLUXION, (*Defluxio, onis*, f. from *defluo*, to run off). A diſcharge of a fluid from any part.

DEGLUTITION, (*Deglutitio, onis*, f. from *deglutio*, to ſwallow down). A natural action, by which the maſticated bole or a fluid is conveyed from the mouth into the fauces, and from thence through the œſophagus into the ſtomach.

DELETERIOUS, (*Deleterius*, δηλητηριος; from δηλεω, to hurt or injure). Thoſe ſubſtances are ſo called, which are of a poiſonous nature.

DELIQUESCENCE. Deliquation, or the gradually melting down of cryſtallized ſalts, from expoſure to the air.

DELĬQUĬUM ANĬMI. See *Syncope*.

DELIRĬUM, (*Delirium, i*, n. from *deliro*, to rave). A febrile ſymptom, conſiſting in the perſons acting or talking unreaſonably. It is to be carefully diſtinguiſhed from an alienation of the mind, without fever.

DELPHINĬUM, (*Delphinium, i*, n. δελφινιον; from δελφινος, the dolphin). Larkſpur: formerly ſo called from the likeneſs of its flower to the dolphin's head.

DELPHINĬUM CONSOLĬDA. The ſyſtematic name of the *conſolida regalis*. See *Conſolida regalis*.

DELPHINĬUM STAPHYSAGRĬA. The ſyſtematic name of ſtave-acre. See *Staphiſagria*.

DELTOIDES, (*Deltoides*, δελτοειδης; from δελτα, the Greek letter Δ, and ειδος, a likeneſs; ſhaped like the Greek delta). A muſcle of the ſuperior extremity, ſituated on the ſhoulder. It ariſes exactly oppoſite to the trapezius from one-third part of the clavicule, from the acromium and ſpine of the ſcapula, and is inſerted, tendinous, into the middle of the os humeri, which bone it lifts up directly; and it aſſiſts with the ſupra-ſpinatus and coracobrachialis in all the actions of the humerus, except the depreſſion; it being convenient that the arm ſhould be raiſed and ſuſtained, in order to its moving on any ſide.

DEMENTĬA, (*Dementia, æ*, f. from *de*, and *mens*, without mind). Madneſs, delirium, abſence of intellect.

DEMULCENTS, (*Demulcentia, ſc. medicamenta*; from *demulceo*, to ſoften). Medicines are thus called, which poſſeſs a power of diminiſhing the effects of ſtimuli on the ſenſible ſolids of the body. There are two orders of demulcents: 1. *Lenient demulcents*, as *ſtarch*, *gum arabic*, and *olive oil*: theſe are beſt adapted to irritable conſtitutions, and thoſe with a remarkable diſpoſition to have ſecretions morbidly augmented. 2. *Diluent demulcents*, as *water* and *watery ſubſtances*: theſe are calculated for ſuch as have a diminution of the ſecretions, and whoſe habits are naturally torpid.

DENS, (*Dens, tis*, m. *quaſi edens*; from *edo*, to eat, or from οδους, οδοντος). A tooth. Many herbs have this ſpecific name, from their fancied reſemblance to the tooth of ſome animal; as *dens leonis*, the dandelion; *dens canis*, dog's tooth, &c.

DENS LEONIS. See *Taraxacum*.

DENTĀGRA, (*Dentagra, æ*, f. οδοντα-γρα; from οδους, a tooth, and αγρα a ſeizure). The tooth-ach: alſo an inſtrument for drawing the teeth.

DENTARIA, (*Dentaria, æ*, f. from *dens*, a tooth: ſo called, becauſe its root is denticulated). *Dentillaria*. Tooth wort. This plant is to be diſtinguiſhed from the pelletory of Spain, which

is also called dentaria. It is the *Plumbago europæa; foliis amplexicaulibus, lanceolatis scabris*, of Linnæus. The root was formerly esteemed, prepared in a variety of ways, as a cure for the tooth-ache, arising from caries.

DENTATA. See *Dentatus*.

DENTĀTUS, (*Dentatus*; from *dens*, a tooth, from its tooth-like process). *Dentata. Epistrophæus.* The second vertebra of the neck. It differs from the other cervical vertebræ, by having a tooth-like process at the upper part of the body.

DENTES LACTEI. The milk teeth. See *Teeth*, and *Dentition*.

DENTIFRICE, (*Dentifricium, i*, n. from *dens*, a tooth, and *frico*, to rub). A medicine to clean the teeth.

DENTILLARIA, (from *dentella*, a little tooth: so called, because its root is denticulated). See *Dentaria*.

DENTITION, (*Dentitio, onis*, f. from *dentio*, to breed teeth). The breeding or cutting of the teeth. The first dentition takes place about the sixth or seventh month, and the teeth are termed the *primary* or *milk* teeth. About the seventh year these fall out, and are succeeded by others, which remain during life, and are called the *secondary* or *perennial* teeth. The last dentition takes place between the ages of twenty and five-and-twenty, when the four last grinders appear; they are called *dentes sapientiæ*. See also *Teeth*.

DEOBSTRUENTS, (*Deobstruentia, sc. medicamenta*; from *de*, and *obstruo*, to obstruct). Medicines that are exhibited with a view of removing any obstruction.

DEPILATORY, (*Depilatoria, sc. unguenta*; from *de*, of, and *pilus*, the hair). Any application which removes the hairs from any part of the body; thus, a pitch cap pulls the hairs of the head out by the roots.

DEPRESSOR, (*Depressor, oris*, m. from *deprimo*, to press down). Several muscles are so termed, because they depress the parts into which they are inserted.

DEPRESSOR ALÆ NASI. See *Depressor labii superioris alæque nasi*.

DEPRESSOR ANGŬLI ORIS. *Triangularis* of Winslow. *Depressor labiorum communis* of Douglas. A muscle of the mouth and lip, situated below the under lip. It arises, broad and fleshy, from the lower edge of the lower jaw, near the chin; and is inserted into the angle of the mouth, which it pulls downwards.

DEPRESSOR LABĬI SUPERĬORIS ALÆQUE NASI. *Depressor alæ nasi* of Albinus. *Incisivus medius* of Winslow. *Depressor labii superioris proprius* of Douglas. A muscle of the mouth and lip, situated above the mouth, that draws the upper lip and ala nasi downwards and backwards. It arises, thin and fleshy, from the superior maxillary bone, immediately above the joining of the gums, with the two incisor teeth and cuspidatus; from thence it runs upwards, and is inserted into the upper lip and root of the ala of the nose.

DEPRESSOR LABĬI INFERIŌRIS. *Quadratus* of Winslow. *Depressor labii inferioris proprius* of Douglas. A muscle of the mouth and lip, that pulls the under lip and skin of the side of the chin downwards, and a little outwards.

DEPRESSOR LABĬI SUPERĬORIS PROPRĬUS. See *Depressor labii superioris alæque nasi*.

DEPRESSOR LABIORUM COMMUNIS. See *Depressor anguli oris*.

DEPRESSOR OCŬLI. See *Rectus inferior oculi*.

DEPRĬMENS. See *Rectus inferior oculi*.

DEPURATION. The freeing a liquor or solid body from its foulness.

DERIVATION, (*Derivatio, onis*, f. from *derivo*, to drain off). The doctrines of derivation and revulsion, talked of by the ancients, are now

wholly exploded. Derivation means the drawing away any diſeaſe from its original ſeat, to another part.

DERMA, (Δερμα, the ſkin). See *Cutis*.

DERMATODES, (Δερματοειδες; from δερμα, a ſkin or leather, and ειδος, likeneſs). See *Dura mater*.

DERMĂTOLOGĬA, (*Dermatologia*, *æ*, f. δερματολογια; from δερμα, the true ſkin, and λογος, a diſcourſe). A treatiſe upon the ſkin.

DERMĂTO-PATHOLOGĬA, (*Dermato-pathologia*, *æ*, f. from δερμα, the ſkin, and παθολογια, the pathology). A treatiſe on diſeaſes of the ſkin.

DESCENSUS, (*Deſcenſus*, *us*, m. from *deſcendo*, to move downwards). Chemiſts call it a diſtillation *per deſcenſum*, by deſcent, when the fire is applied at top, and round the veſſel, whoſe orifice is at the bottom.

DESPUMATION, (*Deſpumatio*, *onis*, f. from *deſpumo*, to clarify). The clarifying of any liquor, by throwing up its foulneſs in a froth, and removing it.

DESQUAMATION, (*Deſquamatio*, *onis*; from *deſquamo*, to ſcale off). The falling off of the cuticle or ſkin, in the form of ſmall ſcales.

DETERGENTS, (*Detergentia*, *ſc. medicamenta*; from *detergo*, to wipe off). Thoſe applications are ſo termed by ſurgeons, which poſſeſs the property of cleanſing foul ulcers.

DETONATION, (*Detonatio*, *onis*, f. from *detono*, to make a noiſe). The noiſe produced by the exploſion of nitre, or ſubſtances containing nitre, when heated, which is greater or leſs, according to the manner and quantity of the compoſition, the ſudden or gradual application of the heat, the coolneſs of the veſſels, &c.

DETRĂHENS QUADRĀTUS. See *Platyſma myoides*.

DETRUSOR URĪNÆ. The muſcular coat of the urinary bladder was formerly ſo called.

DEVIL'S DUNG. See *Aſſafœtida*.

DIABĒTES, (*Diabetes*, *æ*, or *is*, m. διαβητης; from δια, through, and βαινω, to paſs). An immoderate flow of urine. It is a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes*, and order *ſpaſmi* of Cullen. There are two ſpecies of this complaint: 1. *Diabetes ſeroſus*, in which there is a ſuperabundant diſcharge of limpid urine, of its uſual urinary taſte: 2. *Diabetes mellitus*, in which the urine is very ſweet, and contains a great quantity of ſugar.

DIÆRĔSIS, (*Diæreſis*, *is*, f. διαιρεσι; from διαιρεω, to divide or ſeparate). A ſolution of continuity of the ſoft parts of the human body.

DIAGNŌSIS, (*Diagnoſis*, *is*, f. διαγνωσι; from διαγινωσκω, to diſcern or diſtinguiſh). The ſcience which delivers the ſigns by which a diſeaſe may be diſtinguiſhed from another diſeaſe; hence thoſe ſymptoms which diſtinguiſh ſuch affections are termed *diagnoſtic*.

DIALŸSIS, (*Dialyſis*, *is*, f. διαλυσις; from a διαλυω, to diſſolve). A ſolution of continuity, or a deſtruction of parts. An order in the claſs *locales* of Cullen's noſology is termed *Dialyſes*.

DIANTHUS CARYOPHYLLUS.—The ſyſtematic name of the clove-pink. See *Caryophyllum rubrum*.

DIAPHANOUS, (Διαφανης; from δια, through, and φαινω, to ſhine). A term applied to any ſubſtance which is tranſparent; as the hyaloid membrane covering the vitreous humour of the eye, which is as tranſparent as glaſs.

DIAPHORĒSIS, (*Diaphoreſis*, *is*, f. διαφορησις; from διαφορεω, to carry through). Perſpiration or increaſed cutaneous ſecretion.

DIAPHORETICS, (*Diaphoretica*, *ſc. medicamenta*, διαφορητικα; from διαφορεω, to carry through). Sudorifics. Medicines which, from being taken internally, increaſe the diſcharge by the ſkin. This claſs of medicines comprehends five orders: 1. *Pungent dia-*

phoretics, as the *volatile ſalts* and *eſſential oils*, which are well adapted for the aged; thoſe in whoſe ſyſtem there is little ſenſibility; thoſe who are difficultly affected by other diaphoretics; and thoſe whoſe ſtomachs will not bear large doſes of medicines. 2. *Calefacient diaphoretics*, ſuch as *ſerpentaria*, *contrayerva*, and *guaiacum*: theſe are given in caſes where the circulation is low and languid. 3. *Stimulant diaphoretics*, as antimonial and mercurial preparations, which are beſt fitted for the vigorous and plethoric. 4. *Antiſpaſmodic diaphoretics*, as *opium*, *muſk*, and *camphire*, which are given to produce a diaphoreſis, when the momentum of the blood is increaſed. 5. *Diluent diaphoretics*, as water, whey, &c. which are beſt calculated for that habit in which a prediſpoſition to ſweating is wanted; and in which no diaphoreſis takes place, although there be evident cauſes to produce it.

DIAPHRAGM, (*Diaphragma*, *ătis*, n. διαφραγμα; from δια, and φραττω, to divide). *Septum tranſverſum*. The midrif. A muſcle that divides the cavity of the thorax from that of the abdomen. It is compoſed of two muſcles; the firſt and ſuperior of theſe ariſes from the ſternum, and the ends of the laſt ribs on each ſide. Its fibres, from this ſemi-circular origination, tend towards their centre, and terminate in a tendon, or aponeuroſis, which is termed the *centrum tendinoſum*. The ſecond and inferior muſcle comes from the vertebræ of the loins by two productions, of which that on the right ſide comes from the firſt, ſecond, and third vertebræ of the loins; that on the left ſide is ſomewhat ſhorter, and both theſe productions join and make the lower part of the diaphragm, which joins its tendons with the tendon of the other, ſo that they make but one muſcular partition. It is covered by the pleura on its upper ſide, and by the peritonæum on the lower ſide. It is pierced in the middle, for the paſſage of the vena cava; in its lower part for the œſophagus, and, the nerves which go to the upper orifice of the ſtomach, and betwixt the productions of the inferior muſcle, paſſes the aorta, the thoracic duct, and the vena azygos. It receives arteries and veins called phrenic or diaphragmatic, from the cava and aorta; and ſometimes on its lower part two branches from the vena adipoſa, and two arteries from the lumbares. It has two nerves which come from the third vertebra of the neck, which paſs through the cavity of the thorax, and are loſt in its ſubſtance. In its natural ſituation the diaphragm is convex on the upper ſide towards the breaſt, and concave on its lower ſide towards the belly: therefore, when its fibres ſwell and contract, it muſt become plain on each ſide, and conſequently the cavity of the breaſt is enlarged to give liberty to the lungs to receive air in inſpiration; and the ſtomach and inteſtines are preſſed for the diſtribution of their contents; hence the uſe of this muſcle is very conſiderable; it is the principal agent in reſpiration, particularly in inſpiration; for when it is in action the cavity of the thorax is enlarged, particularly at the ſides, where the lungs are chiefly ſituated; and as the lungs muſt always be contiguous to the inſide of the thorax and upper ſide of the diaphragm, the air ruſhes into them, in order to fill up the increaſed ſpace. In expiration it is relaxed and puſhed up by the preſſure of the abdominal muſcles upon the viſcera of the abdomen; and at the ſame time that they preſs it upwards, they pull down the ribs, by which the cavity of the thorax is diminiſhed, and the air ſuddenly puſhed out of the lungs.

DIAPHRAGMĬTIS, (*Diaphragmitis*, *idis*, f. διαφραγμιτις; from διαφραγμα,

the diaphragm). *Paraphrenitis.* An inflammation of the diaphragm. See *Paraphrenitis.*

DIARRHŒA. (*Diarrhœa, æ,* f. διαρροια; from διαῤῥεω, to flow through). A purging. It is distinguished by frequent stools with the natural excrement, not contagious, and seldom attended with pyrexia. It is a genus of disease in the class *neuroses,* and order *spasmi* of Cullen, containing the following species: 1. *Diarrhœa crapulosa.* The feculent diarrhœa, from *crapulus,* one who overloads his stomach. 2. *Diarrhœa biliosa.* The bilious, from an increased secretion of bile. 3. *Diarrhœa mucosa.* The mucous, from a quantity of slime being voided. 4. *Diarrhœa hepatirrhœa.* The hepatic, in which there is a quantity of serous matter, somewhat resembling flesh, voided; the liver being primarily affected. 5. *Diarrhœa lienterica.* The lientery; when the food passes unchanged. 6. *Diarrhœa cœliaca.* The cœliac passion: the food passes off in this affection in a white liquid state like chyle. 7. *Diarrhœa verminosa.* Arising from worms.

DIARTHRŌSIS, (*Diarthrosis, is,* f. from διαρθροω, to articulate). A moveable connexion of bones. This genus has five species, viz. enarthrosis, arthrodia, ginglymus, trochoides, and amphyarthrosis.

DIASTĂSIS, (*Diastasis, is,* f. from διστημι, to separate). A separation of the ends of bones.

DIASTŎLE, (*Diastole, es,* f. from δια, and στελλω, to stretch). The dilation of the heart and arteries.

DIĀTHĔSIS, (*Diathesis, is,* f. διαθεσις; from διαθημι, to dispose). Any particular state of the body: thus, in inflammatory fever, there is an inflammatory diathesis, and, during putrid fever, a putrid diathesis.

DICROTIC, (*Dicroticus, sc. pulsus*; from δις, twice, and κ ρω, to strike). A term given to a pulse in which the artery rebounds after striking, so as to convey the sensation of a double pulsation.

DICTAMNUS, (*Dictamnus, i,* m. from *Dictamnus,* a city in Crete, on whose mountains it grows). Dittany.

DICTAMNUS ALBUS. White fraxinella, or bastard dittany. *Dictamnus albus; foliis pinnatis, caule simplici,* of Linnæus. Class. *Decandria.* Order. *Monogynia.* The root of this plant is the part directed for medicinal use; when fresh, it has a moderately strong, not disagreeable, smell. Formerly it was much used as a stomachic, tonic, &c. but is now fallen into disuse.

DICTAMNUS CRĒTICUS. Dittany of Crete. The leaves of this plant, *Origanum dictamnus; foliis inferioribus tomentosis, spicis nutantibus,* of Linnæus, are now rarely used; they have been recommended as emmenagogue and alexipharmic.

DIDŸMI, (*Didymi*; from διδυμος, double). Twins. An old name of the testicles, and two eminences of the brain, from their double protuberance.

DIERVILLA, (*Diervilla, æ,* f. named in honor of Mr. Dierville, who first brought it from Arcadia). The young branches of this species of honeysuckle, *Lonicera diervilla; racemis terminalibus, foliis serratis,* of Linnæus, are employed in North America as a certain remedy in gonorrhœa and suppression of urine. It has not yet been exhibited in Europe.

DIET, (*Diæta, æ,* f. διαιτα). The dietetic part of medicine is no inconsiderable branch, and seems to require a much greater share of regard than it commonly meets with. A great variety of diseases might be removed by the observance of a proper diet and regimen, without the assistance of medicine, were it not for the impatience of the sufferers. However, it may on all occasions come in as a proper assistant to the cure, which sometimes cannot be performed with-

out a due observance of the non-naturals. That food is, in general, thought the best and most conducive to long life, which is most simple, pure, and free from irritating, and such as approaches nearest to the nature of our own bodies in a healthy state, or capable of being easiest converted into their substance by the vis vitæ, after it has been duly prepared by the art of cookery: but the nature, composition, virtues, and uses of particular aliments can never be learnt to satisfaction, without the assistance of practical chemistry.

Dietetics. That part of medicine which considers the way of living with relation to food, or diet suitable to any particular case.

Digastricus, (*Digastricus, sc. musc.* from ., twice, and γαστηρ, a belly). *Biventer maxillæ inferioris.* A muscle so called from its having two bellies, situated externally between the lower jaw and *os hyoides.* It arises, by a fleshy belly, from the upper part of the processus mastoidæus, and descending, it contracts into a round tendon, which passes through the stylohyoidæus, and an annular ligament which is fastened to the os hyoides; then it grows fleshy again, and ascends towards the middle of the edge of the lower jaw, where it is inserted. Its use is to open the mouth by pulling the lower jaw downwards and backwards; and when the jaws are shut, to raise the larynx, and consequently the pharynx, upwards, as in deglutition.

Digestion, animal, (*Digestio, onis*, f. from *digero*, to dissolve). The change that the food undergoes in the stomach, by which it is converted into chyme. The circumstances necessary to effect a healthy digestion of the food are: 1. A certain degree of heat of the stomach. 2. A free mixture of saliva with the food in the mouth. 3. A certain quantity of healthy gastric juice. 4. The natural peristaltic motion of the stomach. 5. The pressure of the contraction and relaxation of the abdominal muscles and diaphragm. From these circumstances, the particles of the food are softened, dissolved, diluted, and intimately mixed into a soft pap, called chyme, which passes through the pylorus of the stomach into the duodenum. The fluid which is termed gastric juice, is separated by the minute arteries opening into the cavity of the stomach.—See *Gastric juice.* From various experiments of physiologists, it is ascertained that the gastric juice reduces the aliments into an uniform pap, even out of the body; that it acts in the same manner after death; and that it is the chief agent in the process of digestion.

Digestion, chemical. An operation in which such matters as are intended to act slowly on each other, are exposed to a slow heat, continued for some time.

Digestives, (*Digestiva, sc. medicamenta*; from *digero*, to dissolve). A term applied by surgeons to those substances which, when applied to an ulcer or wound, promote suppuration: such are the *unguentum resinæ flavæ, unguentum elemi*, warm poultices, fomentations, &c.

Digitalis, (*Digitalis, is*, f. from *digitus*, a finger; because its flower represents a finger). Common foxglove. *Digitalis purpurea; calycinis foliolis ovatis acutis, corollis obtusis, labio superiore integro*, of Linnæus. Class. *Didynamia.* Order. *Angiospermia.* The leaves of this plant have a bitter nauseous taste, but no remarkable smell; they have been long used externally to ulcers and scrophulous tumours with considerable advantage. Respecting the internal use of this plant, we are told of its good effects in epilepsy, scrophula, and phthisis; and Dr. Withering and others have established its reputation as a diuretic

in dropſies. It is, however, neceſſary to obſerve, that this remedy muſt be cautiouſly adminiſtered; for the plant is of ſo deleterious a nature, that three grains of the dried leaf have been known to produce the moſt dreadful tormina.

DIGITĀLIS PURPURĔA. The ſyſtematic name of fox-glove. See *Digitalis.*

DIGĬTUS, (*Digitus, i,* m.). A finger or toe.

DIGĬTUS MANUS. A finger. The *fingers* and thumb in each hand conſiſt of fourteen bones, there being three to each *finger*; they are a little convex and round towards the back of the hand, but hollow and plain towards the palm, except the laſt, where the nails are. The order of their diſpoſitions is called firſt, ſecond, and third *phalanx*. The firſt is longer than the ſecond, and the ſecond longer than the third. What has been ſaid of the fingers, applies to the toes alſo.

DIGĬTUS PEDIS. A toe. See *Digitus manus.*

DILL. See *Anethum.*

DILUENTS, (*Diluentia*; from *diluo*, to waſh away). See *Attenuants.*

DIOSCŌRĔA. Named in honor of Dioſcorides.

DIOSCŌRĔA ALĀTA. See *Yams.*

DIOSCŌRĔA BULBĬFERA. See *Yams.*

DIOSCŌRĔA SATĪVA. See *Yams.*

DIOSPŸROS LOTUS. See *Indian date plum.*

DIPLOE, (*Diploe, is,* f. from διπλοω, to double). *Meditullium.* The ſpungy ſubſtance between the two tables of the ſkull.

DIPLŌPIA, (*Diplopia, æ,* f. διπλωπια; from διπλοος, double, and οπτομαι, to ſee). *Viſus duplicatus.* A diſeaſe of the eye, in which the perſon ſees an object double or triple.

DIRECTOR, (*Sulcus, i,* m.). A chirurgical inſtrument in which there is a groove for the cutting inſtrument to ſlide.

DISCUTIENTS, (*Diſcutientia*; from *diſcutio*, to ſhake in pieces). A term in ſurgery applied to thoſe ſubſtances which poſſeſs a power of repelling or reſolving tumours.

DISEASE. *Morbus.* Any alteration from a perfect ſtate of health is a diſeaſe. A diſeaſe is variouſly termed, when it pervades the whole ſyſtem, and does not depend on any other diſeaſe; as an inflammatory fever, for inſtance: it it called a *general diſeaſe*, to diſtinguiſh it from inflammation of the eye, or any other viſcus, which is a *partial* or *local* one: and when it does not depend on another diſeaſe, it is termed an *idiopathic diſeaſe*, which may be either general or partial, to diſtinguiſh it from a *ſymptomatic affection*, which depends upon another diſeaſe, and is produced by conſent of parts. See alſo *Endemic*, *Epidemic*, *Sporadic*, &c.

DISLOCATION, (*Diſlocatio, onis,* f. from *diſloco*, to put out of place). Luxation. The receſſion of a bone of a moveable articulation from its natural cavity.

DISPENSARY. The ſhop or place in which medicines are prepared.

DISPENSATORY. A book which treats of the compoſition of medicines.

DISSECTION, (*Diſſectio, onis,* f. from *diſſeco*, to cut aſunder). The cutting to pieces of any part of an animal or vegetable, for the purpoſe of examining its ſtructure.

DISTICHIĀSIS, (*Diſtichiaſis, is,* f. διστιχιασις; from διστιχια, from δις, double, and στιχος, a row). A diſeaſe of the eyelaſh, in which there is a double row of hairs, the one row growing outwards, the other inwards towards the eye.

DISTILLATION, (*Diſtillatio, onis,* f. from *diſtillo*, to drop by little and little). A chemical proceſs, very ſi-

nilar to evaporation, instituted to separate the volatile from the fixed principles by means of heat. Distillatory vessels are either alembics or retorts; the former consist of an inferior vessel, called a cucurbit, designed to contain the matter to be examined, and having an upper part fixed to it, called the capital or head. In this last the vapours are condensed by the contact of the surrounding air, or, in other cases, by the assistance of cold water surrounding the head, and contained in a vessel called a refrigeratory. From the lower part of the capital proceeds a tube, called the nose, beak, or spout, through which the vapours, after condensation, are, by a proper figure of the capital, made to flow into a vessel called the receiver, which is usually spherical. These receivers have different names, according to their figure, being called mattrasses, balloons, &c. Retorts are a kind of bottle of glass, pottery, or metal, the bottom being spherical, and the upper part gradually diminishing into a neck, which is turned on one side.

DITTANDER. See *Nasturtium hortense*.

DITTANY, BASTARD. See *Dictamnus albus*.

DITTANY OF CRETE. See *Dictamnus creticus*.

DITTANY, WHITE. See *Dictamnus albus*.

DIURĒSIS, (*Diuresis, is*, f. διυρησις; from δια, through, and ῥεω, to flow). An increased secretion of urine. See *Diabetes*.

DIURETICS, (*Diuretica, sc. medicamenta*, διυρητικα; from διυρησις, a discharge of urine). Those medicines or substances are so called which, when taken internally, augment the flow of urine from the kidneys. This class of medicines comprehends three orders: 1. *Stimulating diuretics*, as squills, *colchium*, and *cantharides*, which are best calculated for the aged, the lax, the phlegmatic, and those with highly diminished sensibility. 2. *Refrigerating diuretics*, as the *acetosa*, *acetum*, *kali acetatum*, and *cremor tartar*; the constitutions in which these are chiefly preferable to others are, the young, the sanguine, and those of remarkable sensibility. 3. *Diluent diuretics*, as *water*, *acidulated water*, and *whey*, which are well adapted for those constitutions in which serosity appears to be deficient, and in which there is a high degree of inanition.

DIVARICATION. The crossing of any two things: thus when the muscular or tendinous fibres intersect each other at different angles, they are said to divaricate.

DIVERTĬCULUM, (*Diverticulum, i*, n.). A mal-formation or diseased appearance of intestine, in which a portion of intestine goes out of the regular course of the tube; and thereby forms a diverticulum, or deviation from the usual course, of the alimentary canal.

DIVERTICŬLUM NUCKĬI. The opening through which the round ligaments of the uterus pass. Nuck asserted that it remained open a long time after birth; to these openings he gave the name of *diverticula*.

DOCIMASTIC ART. *Ars docimastica*. The art of examining fossils, in order to discover what metals, &c. they contain.

DOCK-CRESSES. See *Lampsana*.

DOCK, SOUR. See *Acetosa*.

DOCK, WATER. See *Hydrolapathum*.

DODDER OF THYME. See *Epithymum*.

DOG AND DUCK WATER. See *Epsom water*.

DOG-ROSE. See *Cynosbatus*.

DOG'S BANE, SYRIAN. This plant, *Asclepias Syriaca* of Linnæus, is particularly poisonous to dogs, and also to the human species. Boiling appears to destroy the poison in the

young ſhoots, which are then ſaid to be eſculent, and flavoured like aſparagus.

Dog's grass. See *Gramen canixum.*

Dog's mercury. See *Cynocrambe.*

Dog-stones. See *Satyrion.*

Dogma, (*Dogma, ătis*, n. δογμα; from δοκεω, to be of opinion). An opinion founded on reaſon and experience.

Dolĭchos, (*Dolichos, i*, m. from δολιχος, long: ſo called from its long ſhape). Cowhage. *Dolichos pruriens; volubilis, leguminibus racemoſis, valvulis ſubcarinatis hirtis, pedunculis ternis*, of Linnæus. Claſs. *Diadelphia.* Order. *Decandria.* The pods of this plant are covered with ſharp hairs, which are the parts employed medicinally in form of electuary, as anthelmintics.

Dolichos soja. The plant which affords the Indian kidney bean. It is much cultivated in Japan, where it is called *daidſu*: and where the pods ſupply their kitchens for various purpoſes; but the two principal are, with a ſort of butter, termed *miſo*, and a pickle called *ſooju.*

Dolĭchos prurĭens. The ſyſtematic name of the cowhage. See *Dolichos.*

Dolor faciei. See *Tic douloureux.*

Douloureux tic. *Dolor faciei.* A painful intermittent diſeaſe which attacks the face. It conſiſts in a chronic fixed pain, which has paroxyſms of acute pain, and, during its preſence, gives violent lancinating twitches, like the ticking of a clock. The ſeat of this affection is in the branches of the facial nerve and the fifth pair.

Doronĭcum, (*Doronicum, i*, n. Arab.). Leopard's bane. See *Arnica.*

Doronĭcum germanĭcum. See *Arnica.*

Doronĭcum pardalĭanches. The ſyſtematic name of the Roman leopard's bane. See *Doronicum romanum.*

Doronĭcum romānum. Roman leopard's bane. *Doronicum pardilanches; foliis cordatis, obtuſis, denticulatis; radicalibus petiolatis; caulinis amplexicaulibus*, of Linnæus. The root of this plant, if given in a full doſe, poſſeſſes poiſonous properties; but inſtances are related of its efficacy in epileptical and other nervous diſeaſes.

Dorsi spinalis. See *Spinalis dorſi.*

Dorstenia. (Named in honor of Dr. Dorſten). A name of the *Contrayerva.*

Dorstēnĭa drakena. The ſyſtematic name of the contrayerva. See *Contrayerva.*

Dorstēnĭa houstonĭi. See *Contrayerva.*

Dove's foot. See *Geranium columbinum.*

Draco sylvestris. See *Ptarmica.*

Dracocephălum canarĭense. The ſyſtematic name of the balſam of Gilead. See *Moldavica.*

Dracōnis sanguis. See *Sanguis draconis.*

Dracontĭum, (*Dracontium, i*, n. δρακωντιον; from δρακων, a dragon: ſo called, becauſe its roots reſemble a dragon's tail). *Dracontium, ſive ſerpentaria.* Dragon's wort. This plant is the *Arum dracunculus* of Linnæus. Its roots and leaves are extremely acrimonious, more ſo than the arum maculatum, with which it agrees in medicinal virtues.

Dragacantha. See *Tracacantha.*

Dragant gum. See *Tragacantha.*

Dragons. See *Dracontium.*

Dragon's blood. See *Sanguis draconis.*

Drakena. See *Contrayerva.*

Drastic, (*Draſtica. ſc. medica*

menta, δραστικο-, active, brisk; from δραω, to effect). A term generally applied to those medicines which are very violent in their action; thus, drastic purges, emetics, &c.

Dropsy, (*Hydrops*, *ōpis*, m. from ὑδωρ, water). See *Ascites*, *Anasarca*.

Dropwort. See *Œnanthe*, and *Filipendula*.

Dropwort hemlock. See *Œnanthe*.

Dropwort water. See *Œnanthe*.

Drosĕra, (from δροσερος, dewy, which is from δροσος, dew; drops hanging on the leaves like dew). Sun-dew.

Drosĕra rotundĭfolĭa. The systematic name of the sun-dew. See *Ros solis*.

Ductility. A property by which bodies are dilated by repeated or continued pressure. It is peculiar to metals.

Ducts, biliary. See *Biliary ducts*.

Ductus ad nasum. See *Canalis nasalis*.

Ducts communis choledŏchus. See *Choledochus ductus*.

Ductus hepatĭcus. See *Hepatic duct*.

Ductus lachrymālis. See *Lachrymal ducts*.

Ductus lactifĕri. *Ductus galactoferi*. The excretory ducts of the glandular substance composing the female breast. The milk passes along these ducts to the nipple.

Ductus pancreatĭcus. The pancreatic duct. It is white and small, and arises from the sharp extremity of the pancreas, runs through the middle of the gland towards the duodenum, into which it pours its contents by an opening common to it and the *ductus communis choledochus*.

Ductus salivāles. The excretory ducts of the salivary glands, which convey the saliva into the mouth.

Ductus Stenōnis. The Stenonian duct, which was so called after its discoverer. *Steno* arises from all the small excretory ducts of the parotid gland. It passes transversely over the masseter muscle, penetrates the buccinator, and opens into the mouth.

Ductus Warthonĭanus. The excretory duct of the maxillary glands; so named after its discoverer.

Dung, devil's. See *Assafœtida*.

Duŏdēnum, (*Duodenum*, *i*, n. from *duodenus*, consisting of twelve: so called, because it was supposed not to exceed the breadth of twelve fingers; but as the ancients dissected only animals, this does not hold good in the human subject). The first portion of the small intestines. See *Intestines*.

Dura mater, (from *durus*, hard, and *mater*, a mother; called *dura*, from its comparative hardness with the *pia mater*, and *mater*, from its being supposed to be the source of all the other membranes). *Dura meninx*. *Dermatodes*. A thick membrane, formed of two layers, that surrounds and defends the brain, and adheres strongly to the internal surface of the cranium. It has three considerable processes, the falciform, the tentorium, and the septum cerebelli; and several sinusses, of which the longitudinal, lateral, and inferior longitudinal are the principal.

Dura meninx. See *Dura mater*.

Dwale. See *Belladonna*.

Dwarf elder. See *Ebulus*.

Dysæsthēsĭæ, (*Dysæsthesia*, *æ*, f. δυσαισθησια; from δυς, difficultly, and αισθανομαι, to feel or perceive). The senses injured or destroyed by the imperfections of the organs. It is an order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosological arrangement.

Dyscinesĭæ, (*Dyscinesia*, *æ*, f. δυσκινησια; from δυς, bad, and κινεω, to move). Motion impeded, or depraved, from an imperfection of the

organ. An order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosology.

Dysecoea, (*Dysecoea*, æ, f. δυσηκοια; from δυς, difficult, and ακοη, hearing). Hearing diminished or destroyed. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dysæsthesiæ* of Cullen, containing two species: *Dysecoëa organica*, which arises from wax in the meatus, injuries of the membrane, or inflammation and obstruction of the tube: *Dysecoëa atonica*, when without any discernible injury of the organ.

Dysentery, (*Dysentēria*, æ, f. δυσεντερια; from δυς, difficultly, and εντερα, the bowels). Flux. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexiæ*, and order *profluvia* of Cullen's nosology. It is known by contagious pyrexia; frequent griping stools; tenesmus; stools, chiefly mucous, sometimes mixed with blood, the natural fæces being retained or voided in a hardened state; loss of appetite, and nausea.

Dyslochĭa, (*Dyslochia*, æ, f. δυσλοχια; from δυς, difficultly, and λοχια, the lochia). A suppression of the lochia.

Dysōpĭa, (*Dysopia*, æ, f. δυσοπια; from δυς, bad, and ωψ, an eye). Sight depraved, requiring one certain quantity of light, one particular distance, or one position. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ* of Cullen, containing the five following species: 1. *Dysopia tenebrarum*, requiring objects to be placed in a strong light. 2. *Dysopia luminis*, objects only discernible in a weak light. 3. *Dysopia distitorum*, in which distant objects are not perceived. 4. *Dysopia proximorum*, in which objects too near are not perceived. 5. *Dysopia lateralis*, in which objects are not seen, unless placed in an oblique position.

Dysorexĭa, (*Dysorexia*, æ, f. δυσορεξια; from δυς, bad, and ορεξις, appetite). The appetite depraved, or deficient. An order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosology.

Dyspepsia, (*Dyspepsia*, æ, f. δυσπεψια; from δυς, bad, and πεσσω, to concoct). Want of appetite, accompanied by nausea, vomiting, flatulence, heartburn, costiveness, and pain in the stomach, with other symptoms of debility in the organ of digestion. It is symptomatic of scirrhus, ulcer, poison, worms, chlorosis, pregnancy, gout, nephritis, &c. It is arranged by Cullen in the class *neurosis*, and order *adynamiæ*.

Dyspermatismus, (*Dyspermatismus*, i, m. δυσπερματισμος; from δυς, bad, and σπερμα, seed). Slow or impeded emission of semen during coition. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *epischeses* of Cullen.

Dysphōnĭa, (*Dysphonia*, æ, f. δυσφωνια; from δυ, bad, and φωνη, the voice). A difficulty of speaking.

Dyspnœa, (*Dyspnœa*, æ, f. δυσπνοια; from δυς, difficult, and πνεω, to breathe). Continual difficult respiration, without sense of stricture, and accompanied with cough through the whole course of the disease. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi* of Cullen.

Dysurĭa, (*Dysuria*, æ, f. δυσυρια; from δυς, difficult, and ουρον, urine). Difficulty and pain in discharging the urine. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *epischeses* of Cullen, containing six species: 1. *Dysuria ardens*, a sense of heat, without any manifest disorder of the bladder. 2. *Dysuria spasmodica*, from spasm. 3. *Dysuria compressionis*, from a compression of the neighbouring parts. 4. *Dysuria phlogistica*, from violent inflammation. 5. *Dysuria calculosa*, from stone in the bladder. 6. *Dysuria mucosa*, from an abundant secretion of mucus.

E.

EAR, (*Auris, is*, f.). The organ of hearing is ſituated at the ſide of the head, and is divided into external and internal ear. The *auricula*, commonly called the ear, conſtitutes the external, and contains ſeveral eminences and depreſſions, as the *helix*, *antihelix*, *tragus*, *antitragus*, *concha auriculæ*, *ſcapha*, and *lobulus*. The external auditory paſſage, containing the wax, proceeds from its middle down to the membrane of the tympanum, which divides the external from the internal parts of this organ. Behind the membrana tympani is an irregular cavity, the cavity of the tympanum, in which are four little bones, the *malleus*, *incus*, *ſtapes*, and *os orbiculare*; and four openings, one of the Euſtachian tube, maſtoid ſinus, feneſtra ovalis, and feneſtra rotunda. The tympanum is terminated by the labyrinth. The labyrinth is the remaining part of the internal ear, conſiſting of the *cochlea*, *veſtibulum*, and *ſemicircular canals*. The arteries of the ear are the external and internal auditory. The veins empty themſelves into the external jugulars. The muſcles of the ear are divided into three claſſes: the common, proper, and internal. The common muſcles are, the *attollens aurem*, *anterior auris*, and *retrahentes auris*, which move the whole ear. The proper are, *helicis major*, *helicis minor*, *tragicus*, *antitragicus*, and *tranſverſus auris*; theſe affect the parts only to which they are connected. The muſcles of the internal ear are, *laxator tympani*, *tenſor tympani*, and *ſtapedius*, which belong to the officula auditus. The nerves of the external ear are branches of the *nervus auditorius durus*, and thoſe of the internal ear are branches of the *nervus auditorius mollis*.

EARTH. *Terra*. Modern chemiſts are of opinion, that no bodies ſhould be admitted as true earths, but ſuch as are perfectly inſipid, inſoluble, and infuſible; and therefore they admit but of ſeven earths, which are equally ſimple and elementary. The firſt conſtitutes rock cryſtal, quartz, gritſtone, flints, and all hard ſtones which ſtrike fire with ſteel, and is called *vitrifiable earth*, or *ſilice*, becauſe it is the only earth that forms a tranſparent glaſs by combination with alkalis. The ſecond is termed *argillaceous earth*, which, in a ſtate of purity, is almoſt opake, and diſpoſed in thin plates or laminæ. It is taſteleſs, like vitrifiable earth, but adheres to the tongue. The other five are, *calcareous earth*, *barytic earth*, *magneſian earth*, *earth of glucine* or *terra circona*, and *earth of jargon*. Theſe ſimple or elementary earths have diſtinct properties, and conſtitute the principles of all thoſe termed compound earths, ſtones, &c.

EARTH, ABSORBENT. See *Abſorbents*.

EARTH, ALUMINOUS. Earth which contains alum. Theſe are found in ſeveral parts of England, Scotland, and many other places. See *Alumen*.

EARTH, ANIMAL CALCAREOUS. This term is applied to crabs claws, &c. which are calcareous earth, and obtained from the animal kingdom.

EARTH, ARGILLACEOUS. See *Earth*.

EARTH, BOLAR. See *Bole*.

EARTH, FULLERS. *Cimolia purpureſcens*. A compact bolar earth,

commonly of a greyiſh colour. It is ſometimes applied by the common people to inflamed breaſts, legs, &c. with a view of cooling.

EARTH, HEAVY. See *Barytes.*

EARTH, JAPAN. See *Catechu.*

EARTH, MINERAL CALCAREOUS. Thoſe calcareous earths which are obtained from the mineral kingdom. The term is applied in oppoſition to thoſe obtained from animals.

EARTH NUT. See *Pig nut.*

EARTH, SEALED. *Terra ſigillata.* Little cakes of bolar earths, which are ſtamped with impreſſions. They were formerly in high eſtimation as abſorbents, but now fallen into diſuſe.

EARTH WORM. *Lambricus terreſtris, Vermis terreſtris.* Theſe inſects are ſuppoſed to poſſeſs a diuretic and antiſpaſmodic virtue, with which views they are occaſionally employed in foreign countries.

EARWAX. *Cerumen aurium.* A waxy ſecretion found in the meatus auditorius externus, into which it is ſeparated by the glands around that canal.

EASTERN ANACARDIUM. See *Anacardium.*

EASTERN BUCK WHEAT. See *Buck wheat, Eaſtern.*

EASTERN FOX GLOVE. See *Fox glove, Eaſtern.*

EATON'S STYPTIC. French brandy highly impregnated with calcined green vitriol.

EAU-DE-LUCE. See *Spiritus ammoniæ ſuccinatus.*

EAU-DE-RABEL. This is compoſed of one part of ſulphureous acid to three of rectified ſpirit of wine. It is much uſed in France in the cure of gonorrhœas, leucorrhœa, &c.

EBULLITION, (*Ebullitio, onis,* f. from *ebullio,* to bubble up). Boiling. This conſiſts in the change which a fluid undergoes from a ſtate of liquidity to that of an aeriform fluid or gaz, in conſequence of the application of heat, which dilates and converts it into vapour.

EBULUS, (*Ebulus, i.* f. from *ebullio,* to make boil: ſo called, becauſe of its uſe in purifying the humours of the body). Dwarf elder, or danewort. The root, interior bark, leaves, flowers, berries, and ſeeds of this herbaceous plant, *Sambucus ebulus; cynieſtriſidis, ſtipulis foliaceis, caule herbaceo,* of Linnæus, have all been adminiſtered medicinally, in moderate doſes, as reſolvents and deobſtruents, and, in larger doſes, as hydragogues. The plant is chiefly employed by the poor of this country, amongſt whom it is in common uſe as a purgative.

ECCHYMŌMA, (*Ecchymoma, atis,* n. ἐκχύμωμα, an extravaſation of blood). *Ecchymoſis.* Extravaſation. Contuſion. A black and blue ſwelling, either from a bruiſe or extravaſation of blood. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales,* and order *tumores* of Cullen.

ECCHYMŌSIS, (*Ecchymoſis, is,* f. from ἐκχύω, to pour out). See *Ecchymoma.*

ECCOPROTICS, (*Eccoprotica, ſc. medicamenta,* ἐκκοπρωτικα; from ἐκ, and κόπρος, dung). Opening medicines, whoſe operation is very gentle; ſuch as *manna, ſenna,* &c.

ECTŌPĪÆ, (*Ectopia, æ,* f. ἐκτοπια; from ἐκτοπος, out of place). Parts diſplaced. It conſtitutes an order in the claſs *locales* of Cullen's noſology.

ECTROPĪUM, (*Ectropium, i,* n. ἐκτρεπτιον; from ἐκτρεπω, to invert). An extraverſion of an eyelid, ſo that its internal ſurface is outermoſt.

EFFERVESCENCE, (*Efferveſcentia, æ,* f. from *efferveſco,* to grow hot). A ſmall degree of ebullition. That agitation which is produced by mixing an acid and an alkali together.

EFFLORESCENCE, (*Efflureſcentia*; from *efflureſco,* to blow as a flower). A preternatural redneſs of the ſkin. In chemiſtry it means that phenome-

non which takes place upon cryſtals, producing a white powder, when expoſed to air.

Effluvia, (*Effluvium, i*, n. from *effluo*, to ſpread abroad). See *Contagion.*

Eggs, (*Ovum, i*, n.). The eggs of poultry are chiefly uſed as food: the different parts are likewiſe employed in pharmacy and in medicine. The calcined ſhell is eſteemed as an abſorbent. The oil of the egg is ſoftening, and is uſed externally to burns and chaps. The yolk of the egg renders oil miſcible with water, and is triturated with the ſame view with reſinous and other ſubſtances.

Elaphoboscum, (*Elaphoboſcum, i*, n. ελαφοβοσκον; from ελαφος, a ſtag, and βοσκω, to eat; ſo called, becauſe deer eat them greedily). The wild parſnip. See *Paſtinaca.*

Elastic fluid. See *Gaz.*

Elastic gum. See *Indian rubber.*

Elasticity. A force in bodies, by which they endeavour to reſtore themſelves to the poſture from whence they were diſplaced by any external force. To ſolve this property, many have recourſe to the univerſal law of nature, attraction, by which the parts of ſolid and firm bodies are cauſed to cohere together: whereby when hard bodies are ſtruck or bent, ſo that the component parts are a little moved from one another, but not quite diſjoined or broken off, nor ſeparated ſo far as to be out of the power of that attracting force, by which they cohere together; they certainly muſt, on the ceſſation of the external violence, ſpring back with a very great velocity to their former ſtate; but in this circumſtance the atmoſpherical preſſure will account for it as well; becauſe ſuch a violence, if it be not great enough to ſeparate the conſtituent particles of a body far enough to let in any foreign matter, muſt occaſion many vacuola between the ſeparated ſurfaces, ſo that upon the removal they will cloſe again by the preſſure of the aërial fluid upon the external parts, i. e. the body will come again into its natural poſture. The included air, likewiſe, in moſt bodies, gives that power of reſilition upon their percuſſion; and becauſe a tolerable underſtanding of the affair is of great importance in phyſical reaſoning, and helpful to the knowledge of many modern writings, it may be worth giving an abſtract hereof from the beſt authors upon the ſubject.

If two bodies perfectly *elaſtic* ſtrike one againſt another, there will be or remain in each the ſame relative velocity as before, i. e. they will recede with the ſame velocity as they meet together with. For the compreſſive force, or the magnitude of the ſtroke in any given bodies, ariſes from the relative velocity of thoſe bodies, and is proportional to it: and bodies perfectly *elaſtic* will reſtore themſelves completely to the figure they had before the ſhock; or, in other words, the reſtitutive force is equal to the compreſſive, and therefore muſt be equal to the force with which they came together, and conſequently they muſt by elaſticity recede again from each other with the ſame velocity. Hence, taking equal times before and after the ſhock, the diſtances between the bodies will be equal: and therefore the diſtances of times from the common center of gravity will, in the ſame times, be equal. And hence the laws of percuſſion of bodies perfectly elaſtic are eaſily deduced.

Elaterium, (*Elaterium, i*, n. ελατηριον; from ελαυνω, to ſtimulate or agitate: ſo named from its great purgative qualities). The juice of the *Cucumis agreſtis.* See *Cucumis agreſtis.*

Elatine, (*Elatine, es*, f. ελατινη; from ελαττων; ſmaller, being the ſmaller ſpecies), Fluellen. Female ſpeedwell. *Antirrhinum elatine* of Linnæus.

The leaves of this plant have a roughish bitter taste, but no smell. It was formerly much used against scurvy and old ulcerations, but now wholly forgotten.

ELCŌSIS, (*Elcosis, is*, f. ελκωσις; from ελκος, an ulcer). A disease attended with fetid, carious, and chronic ulcers. The term is seldom used.

ELDER. See *Sambucus*.

ELDER DWAF. See *Ebulus*.

ELECAMPANE. See *Enula campana*.

ELECTRICITY, (*Electricitas, ātis*, f. from *electrum*, ελεκτρον, from ελεκτωρ, the sun, because of its bright shining colour; or from ελκω, to draw, because of its magnetic power). A property which certain bodies possess when rubbed, heated, or excited, whereby they attract remote bodies, and frequently emit sparks or streams of light. The ancients first observed this property in amber, which they called *electrum*, and hence arose the word electricity. The efficacy of electricity in the cure of several diseases has been supported by many very respectable authorities, especially in paralytic diseases. It considerably augments the circulation of the blood, and excites the action of the absorbents.

ELECTRUM, (*Electrum, i*, n. ελεκτρον). Amber was so called by the ancients. See *Amber*.

ELECTUARIUM CASSIÆ. This is a very elegant, pleasant, and mild aperient, calculated for the feeble and for children.

ELECTUARIUM CATECHU. A very useful adstringent, and, perhaps, the most efficacious way of giving the catechu to advantage. Ten scruples of this electuary contain one grain of opium.

ELECTUARIUM OPIATUM. This preparation, ordered in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, is an excellent aromatic adstringent, and calculated for the debilitated, the aged, and nervous. One grain of opium is contai ed in about a drachm.

ELECTUARIUM SCAMMONII. This is a strong stimulating catharti and calculated to remove worms fro the primæ viæ, with which view it mostly exhibited.

ELECTUARIUM E SENNÆ. mild and elegant aperient: well ada ed for pregnant women, and the whose bowels are easily moved.

ELECTUARY, (*Electuarium, i*, from *eligo*, to choose). A medici containing several ingredients that a mixed together by a fluid into t consistence of honey.

ELEMENTS. Radicals. First pri ciples. The minutest particles any substance, which can no furth be divided or decomposed by chem cal analysis. Many substances cann be farther decomposed by the chem into constituent parts, but this d not entitle the ranking them amo the elements. Though they are *yet decomposed*, it does not follow th they are *undecomposable*; as, perha neither our senses nor our instrume will ever reach those substances whi by their nature admit of no sort decomposition. The bodies whi are known to us at present, howev as simple substances, amount to for one; some of these may be sensil exhibited in their simple state, u combined with other matters: th are termed *ostensible, producible, sim substances*, to distinguish them fr those whose existence or presence only inferred from facts, and are c ed *unostensible, unproducible, simple stances*. The following is a list simple substances at present known

Unproducible simple Substances.

1. Phlogiston, or basis of light.		6. Sulphur. 7. Phosphor.
2. Oxygen.		8. Muriatic
3. Hydrogen.		9. Fluoric
4. Azotic	Rad.	10. Boracic
5. Carbonic		11. Rad. of gol

12. Rad. of platina		22. Rad. of nickel.	
13. —— ſilver.		23. —— cobalt.	
14. —— mercury		24. —— arſenic.	
15. —— lead.		25. —— mangan.	
16. —— copper.		26. —— molybd.	
17. —— iron.		27. —— wolfranc	
18. —— tin.		28. —— uranium	
19. —— zinc.		29. —— titanium	
20. —— biſmuth.		30. —— tellurium	
21. —— antim.		31. —— chronic.	

Producible, oſtenſible, ſimple Subſtances.

32. Caloric.		37. Strontian	Alk. Earth.
33. Siliceous	Earth.	38. Argillac.	
34. Calcar.		39. Glucine	
35. Magneſi.		40. Vegetab.	Alk.
36. Ponder.		41. Mineral	

ELEMI, (*Elemi*, n. ind. It is ſaid this is its Ethiopian name). Gum elemi. The parent plant of this reſin is ſuppoſed to be the *Amyris elemifera*; *foliis ternis quinato-pinnatiſque ſubtus tomentoſis*, of Linnæus. Elemi is brought here from the Spaniſh Weſt Indies: it is moſt eſteemed when ſoftiſh, ſomewhat tranſparent, of a pale whitiſh colour, inclining a little to green, and of a ſtrong, though not unpleaſant ſmell. It is only uſed in ointments and plaſters, and is a powerful digeſtive.

ELEOSELĪNUM, (*Eleoſelinum*, *i*, n. ελεοσελινον; from ελος, a lake, and σελινον, parſley). See *Apium*.

ELEPHANTĪĂSIS, (*Elephantiaſis*, *is*, f. ελεφαντιασις; from ελεφας, an elephant: ſo named from the legs of people affected with this diſorder growing ſcaly, rough, and wonderfully large, like the legs of an elephant). *Elephas*. A diſeaſe that moſtly affects the feet, which appear ſomewhat like thoſe of the elephant. It is known by the ſkin being thick, rough, wrinkly, unctuous, and void of hair, and moſtly without the ſenſe of feeling. It is ſaid to be contagious. Cullen makes it a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ*, and order *impetigines*.

ELETTARI PRIMUM. See *Amomum verum*.

ELEUTHERĬA BARK. See *Caſcarillæ cortex*.

ELEUTHERĬÆ CORTEX. See *Caſcarillæ cortex*.

ELEVĀTOR, (*Elevator*, *oris*, m. from *elevo*, to lift up). A muſcle is ſo called whoſe office is to lift up the part to which it is attached. Alſo a chirurgical inſtrument with which ſurgeons raiſe any depreſſed portion of bone, but chiefly thoſe of the cranium.

ELEVĀTOR LABĬI SUPERIORIS PROPRIUS. See *Levator labii ſuperioris alæque naſi*.

ELEVĀTOR LABĬI INFERIŌRIS PROPRIUS. See *Levator labii inferioris*.

ELEVĀTOR LABĬORUM COMMUNIS. See *Levator anguli oris*.

ELICHRYSUM, (*Elichryſum*, *i*, n. ηλιοχρυσον; from ηλιος, the ſun, and χρυσος, gold: ſo called from their ſhining yellow appearance). *Stæchas citrina*. Goldilocks. This ſmall downy plant is the *Gnaphalium ſtæchas* of Linnæus. The flowers are warm, pungent, and bitter, and ſaid to poſſeſs aperient and corroborant virtues.

ELIXIR, (*Elixir*, n. ind. from *elekſer*, an Arabic word ſignifying quinteſſence). A term formerly applied to many preparations ſimilar to compound tinctures. It is now very little employed.

ELLEBORUM. See *Helleborus albus*.

ELM. See *Ulmus*.

ELM-LEAVED SUMACH. See *Sumach*.

ELYTROCELE, (*Elytrocele*, *es*, f. ελυτροκηλη; from ελυτρον, the vagina, and κηλη, a tumour). A hernia in the vagina.

ELYTROID, (*Elytroides*, ελυτροειδης; from ελευτρον, a ſheath, and ειδος, form). The tunica vaginalis is ſo called by ſome writers, becauſe it includes the teſtis like a ſheath.

EMBROCATION, (*Embrocatio, onis*, f. from εμβρεχω, to moiſten or ſoak in). A fluid application to rub any part of the body with.

EMBRYO, (*Embryo, onis*, m. εμβρυον; from εμβρυω, to bud forth). The *fœtus in utero* is ſo called before the fifth month of pregnancy, becauſe its growth reſembles that of the budding of a plant.

EMBRYOTOMY, (*Embryotomia, æ*, f. εμβρυοτομια; from εμβρυον, a fœtus, and τεμνω, to cut). The ſeparating of any part of the fœtus whilſt *in utero*, to extract it.

EMETICS, (*Emetica, ſc. medicamenta*, εμετικα; from εμεω, to vomit). Under this name are to be conſidered thoſe medicines which, taken into the ſtomach in a ſound ſtate, are capable of exciting vomiting. This claſs of medicines may be divided into four orders: 1. *Irritating emetics*, as *antimonium tartariſatum*, *vitriolum album*, and *hydrargyrus vitriolatus*, which are to be ſelected for the vigorous in conſtitution, the melancholic, and thoſe who are with difficulty affected by emetics. 2. *Evacuating emetics*, as *ipecacuanha*, *aſarum*, and *ſcilla*, adapted to any habit, but are to be preferred for the plethoric and infirm. 3. *Calefacient emetics*, as *muſtard* and *horſeradiſh*, which are principally adapted for the delicate and debilitated 4. *Narcotic emetics*, as *nicotiana* and *tabacum*, admiſſible only in thoſe conſtitutions where there is no degree of irritability in the nervous ſyſtem.

EMINENTIÆ QUADRIGEMĬNÆ. See *Tubercula quadrigemina*.

EMMĒNAGOGUES, (*Emmenagoga, ſc. medicamenta*, εμμηναγωγα; from εμμηνια, the menſes, and αγω, to move). Thoſe medicines that poſſeſs a power of promoting that monthly diſcharge of blood by the uterus, which, from a law of the animal œconomy, ſhould take place in certain conditions of the female ſyſtem. The articles belonging to this claſs may be referred to four orders: 1. *Stimulating emmenagogues*, as *hydrargyrite* and *antimonial preparations* which are principally adapted for the young, and thoſe with peculiar inſenſibility of the uterus. 2. *Irritating emmenagogues*, as *aloes*, *ſavine*, and *Spaniſh flies*: theſe are to be preferred in torpid and chlorotic habits. 3. *Tonic emmenagogues*, as *ferruginous preparations*, *cold bath*, and *exerciſe*, which are advantageouſly ſelected for the lax and phlegmatic. 4. *Antiſpaſmodic emmenagogues*, as *aſſafœtida*, *caſtor* and *pediluvia*: the conſtitutions to which theſe are more eſpecially ſuited are the delicate, the weak, and the irritable.

EMOLLIENTS, (*Emollientia, ſc. medicamenta*; from *emollio*, to ſoften) Thoſe ſubſtances which poſſeſs a power of relaxing the living animal fibre without producing that effect from any mechanical action. The different articles belonging to this claſs of medicines may be comprehended under the following orders: 1. *Humectant emollients*, as *warm water* and *tepid vapours*, which are fitted for the robuſt, and thoſe in the prime of life 2. *Relaxing emollients*, as *althæa*, *malva*, &c. Theſe may be employed in all conſtitutions, while, at the ſame time, they do not claim a preference to others from any particular habit of body. 3. *Lubricating emollients*, as *bland oils*, *fat*, and *lard*. The ſame obſervation will hold of this order as was made of the laſt mentioned. 4. *Atonic emollients*, as *opium* and *pediluvia*: theſe are applicable to any conſtitution, but are to be preferred in habits where the effects of this claſs are required over the ſyſtem in general.

EMPHYSĒMA, (*Emphyſema, atis*, n. εμφυσημα; from εμφυσαω, to inflate) Air in the cellular membrane. See *Pneumatoſis*.

EMPIRIC, (*Empiricus*, εμπειρικος

from εν, in, and πειρα, experience). One who practiſes the healing art upon experience, and not theory. This is the true meaning of the word empiric: but it is now applied, in a very oppoſite ſenſe, to thoſe who deviate from the line of conduct purſued by ſcientific and regular practitioners, and vend noſtrums, or ſound their own praiſe in the public papers.

EMPLASTRUM AMMÓNĬĀCI CUM HYDRARGŸRO. This mixture of ammoniacum hydrargyrus and ſulphurated oil is ſaid to poſſeſs reſolvent virtues, and the plaſter is recommended with this view to be applied to nodes, tophes, indurated glands, and tumours.

EMPLASTRUM ASÆFŒTĬDÆ.—This plaſter, ordered by the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, is ſaid to poſſeſs anodyne and antiſpaſmodic virtues. It is therefore occaſionally directed to be applied to the umbilical region in hyſterical caſes.

EMPLASTRUM CANTHARĬDIS. The virtues of this plaſter are enumerated under the title of cantharides.

EMPLASTRUM CĒRÆ COMPOSĬTUM. This is a gently drawing preparation, calculated to promote a moderate diſcharge from a bliſtered ſurface, with which intention it is moſtly uſed. Where the ſtronger preparations irritate, this will be found, in general, to agree.

EMPLASTRUM CUMĪNI. A warm ſtomachic plaſter, which, when applied to the ſtomach, expels flatulency. To indolent ſcrophulous tumours, where the object is to promote ſuppuration, this is an efficacious plaſter.

EMPLASTRUM LADĂNI COMPOSITUM. This may be uſed with the ſame intentions as the cumin plaſter, to which it is in no way ſuperior, though compoſed of more expenſive materials.

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGŸRI.—Excoriations of the ſkin, ſlight burns, and the like may be covered with this plaſter: but it is in more general uſe, as a defenſitive, where the ſkin becomes red from lying a long time on the part.

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGŸRI COMPOSĬTUM. This is a warm, ſtimulating, and ſuppurative plaſter, calculated to promote maturation of indolent or ſchirrous tumours, and to allay the pains of ſciatica, arthodynea, &c.

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGŸRI CUM HYDRARGŸRO. Plaſters of this compound are frequently applied to reſolve venereal bubos, nodes, tophes, and ſwelled joints from the ſame cauſe.

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGŸRI CUM RESĪNA. This is the common adheſive plaſter uſed by ſurgeons to retain dreſſings in their places, and to keep together the edges of wounds, ulcers, &c.

EMPLASTRUM PĪCIS BURGUNDĬCÆ COMPOSĬTUM. From the ſlight degree of redneſs this ſtimulating application produces, it is adapted to gently irritate the ſkin, and thus relieve rheumatic pains. Applied to the temples it is ſometimes of uſe in pains of the head.

EMPLASTRUM SAPŌNIS. Diſcutient properties are attributed to this elegant plaſter, with which view it is applied to lymphatic and other indolent tumours. It forms an admirable, defenſitive, and ſoft application, ſpread on linen, to ſurround a fractured limb.

EMPLASTRUM THURIS COMPOSĬTUM. This plaſter is ſaid to poſſeſs ſtrengthening, as well as adheſive powers. By keeping the ſkin firm, it may give tone to the relaxed muſcles it ſurrounds, but cannot, in any other way, impart more ſtrength than the common adheſive plaſter.

EMPROSTHŎTŎNUS, (*Emproſthotonus, i*, m. εμπροσθοτονος; from εμπροσθεν, before, or forwards, and τεινω,

to draw)). A clonic ſpaſm of ſeveral muſcles, ſo as to keep the body in a fixed poſition and bent forward. Cullen conſiders it as a ſpecies of tetanus. See *Tetanus*.

Empyēma, (*Empyema, ătis*, n. εμπυημα; from εν, within, and πυον, pus). A collection of pus in the cavity of the thorax. It is one of the terminations of pleuritis.

Empyreuma, (*Empyreuma, ătis*, n. εμπυρευμα; from εμπυρευω, to kindle, and πυρ, fire). The offenſive ſmell that diſtilled waters and other ſubſtances receive from being expoſed too much to fire.

Empyreumatic. Smelling as it were burnt: thus empyreumatic oils are thoſe diſtilled with a great heat, and impregnated with a ſmell of the fire.

Emulgent vessels, (*Vaſa emulgentia*; from *emulgeo*, to milk out: applied to the veins and arteries which go from the aorta and vena cava to the kidneys, becauſe the ancients ſuppoſed they ſtrained, and, as it were, milked the ſerum through the kidneys). Renal veſſels. The veſſels of the kidneys are ſo termed. The emulgent artery is a branch of the aorta. The emulgent vein evacuates its blood into the aſcending cava.

Emulsio arabĭca. This cooling and demulcent emulſion, ordered in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, may be drank ad libitum to mitigate ardor urinæ, whether from the venereal virus, or any other cauſe. In difficult and painful micturition and ſtrangury it is of infinite ſervice.

Emulsio camphorata. A much more uſeful form of giving camphire than that directed by the London Pharmacopœia; yet a great quantity of the camphire is unneceſſarily loſt in this preparation. It is calculated for the ſtomachs of thoſe who can only bear ſmall quantities of camphire.

Emulsion, (*Emulſio, onis*, f.). A ſoft and ſomewhat oily medicine reſembling milk.

Emunctory, (*Emunctorium, i*, n. from *emungo*, to drain off). The excretory ducts of the body are ſo termed: thus the exhaling arteries of the ſkin conſtitute the great emunctory of the body.

Enamel. See *Teeth*.

Enarthrōsis, (*Enarthroſis, is*, f. εναρθρωσις; from εν, in, and αρθρον, a joint). The ball and ſocket joint. A ſpecies of diarthroſis, or moveable connexion, in which the round head of one bone is received into the deep cavity of another, ſo as to admit of motion in every direction; as the head of the os femoris with the acetabulum of the os innominatum. See *Articulation*.

Encanthis, (*Encanthis, ĭdis*, f. εγκανθις; from εν, in, and κανθος, the angle of the eye). An excreſcence or intumeſcence of the lachrymal caruncle, which is ſituated in the inner angle or canthus of the eye.

Encauma, (*Encauma, ătis*, n. εγκαυμα; from εν, in, and καιω, to burn). *Encauſis*. A puſtule produced from a burn.

Encēphălon, (*Encephalon, i*, n. εγκεφαλον; from εν, in, and κεφαλη, the head). *Encephalum*. By ſome writers the cerebrum only is ſo called; and others expreſs by this term the contents of the cranium.

Endemic, (*Endemicus*, ενδημικος; from εν, in, and δημος, people). A diſeaſe is ſo termed that is peculiar to a certain claſs of perſons, or country; thus ſtruma is endemial to the inhabitants of Derbyſhire and the Alps; ſcurvy to ſeafaring people; and the plica polonica is only to be met with in Poland.

Endive. See *Endivia*.

Endivia, (*Endivia, æ*, f. *quaſi eundo viâ, quia paſſim nacitur*; named from the quickneſs of its growth). *Endīva*. Endive. This plant, *Cichorium endivia; floribus ſolitariis, pe-*

hunculatis; *foliis integris, crenatis*, of Linnæus, is an extremely wholesome sallad, possessing bitter and anodyne qualities.

Enĕma, (*Enema, ătis*, n. ενεμα; from ενιημι, to inject). Clyster. Injection. A glyster.

Energy, (*Energia, æ*, f. from ενεργεω, to act). Action. The degree of force exercised by any power: thus, nervous energy, muscular energy, &c.

English mercury. See *Allgood*.

Ensiform, (*Ensiformis, sc. cartilago*: from *ensis*, a sword, and *forma*, resemblance). Sword-like. A term applied to a cartilage. See *Cartilago ensiformis*.

Entĕrītis, (*Enteritis, ĭdis*, f. εντερίτις; from εντερον, an intestine). Inflammation of the intestines. It is a genus of disease in the class *pyrexiæ*, and order *phlegmasiæ* of Cullen, and is known by the presence of pyrexia, fixed pain in the abdomen, costiveness, and vomiting.

Entĕrocēle, (*Enterocele, es*, f. εντεροκηλη; from εντερον, an intestine, and κηλη, a tumour). *Hernia intestinalis*. Every hernia may be so called that is produced by the protrusion of an intestine, whether it is in the groin, navel, or elsewhere.

Entĕro-epiplocēle, (*Entero-epiplocele, es*, f. εντερο-επιπλοκηλη; from εντερον, an intestine, επιπλοον, the epiploon, and κηλη, a tumour). A rupture formed by the protrusion of part of an intestine, with a portion of the epiploon.

Entĕro-hydrocele, (*Entero-epiplocele, es*, f. εντερο-επιπλοκηλη; from εντερον, an intestine, ὑδωρ, water, and κηλη, a tumour). An intestinal hernia with water in the scrotum.

Entĕromphălus, (*Enterompha-lus, i*, m. εντερομφαλος; from εντερον, an intestine, and ομφαλος, the navel). An umbilical hernia produced by the protrusion of a portion of an intestine.

Entĕroraphĭa, (*Enteroraphia æ*. f. εντερορραφη; from εντερον, an intestine, and ραφη, a suture). The sewing together the divided edges of an intestine.

Entropĭum, (*Entropium, i*. n. εντροπιον; from εν, and τρεπω, to turn). A disease of the eyelids, occasioned by the eyelashes and eyelid being inverted towards the bulb of the eye.

Enŭla campāna, (*Enula, æ*, f. a corruption of *henula* or *Helenium*, from *Helene*, the island where it grew). *Helenium*. Common inula, or elecampane. *Inula helenium*; *foliis amplexicaulibus ovatis rugosis subtus tomentosis, calycum squamis ovatis*, of Linnæus. Class. *Syngenesia*. Order. *Polygamia superflua*. This plant, though a native of Britain, is seldom met with in its wild state, but mostly cultivated. The root, which is the part employed medicinally, in its recent state, has a weaker and less grateful smell than when thoroughly dried, and kept for a length of time, by which it is greatly improved, its odour then approaching to that of Florentine orris. It was formerly in high estimation in dyspepsia, pulmonary affections, and uterine obstructions, but is now fallen into disuse.

Enurēsis, (*Enuresis, is*, f. ενυρησις; from ενυρεω, to make water). An involuntary flow of urine. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *apocenoses* of Cullen, containing two species: 1. *Enuresis atonica*, the sphincter of the bladder having lost its tone from some previous disease: 2. *Enuresis ab irritatione, vel compressione vesicæ*, from an irritation or compression of the bladder.

Ephēlis, (*Ephelis, ĭdis*, f. εφηλις; from επι, and ηλιος, the sun). A broad, solitary, or aggregated spot, attacking most commonly the face, back of the hand, and breast, from exposure to the sun.

EPHEMĔRA, (*Ephemera, æ*, f. ἐφημερα; from ἐπι, upon, and ἡμερα, a day). A fever which begins, is perfectly formed, and runs through its course, in the space of twelve hours.

EPHIDRŌSIS, (*Ephidrosis, is*, f. ἐφιδρωσις; from ἐφιδρω, to perspire). *Sudatio. Mador.* A violent and morbid perspiration. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *apocenoses* of Cullen.

EPHIPPĬUM, (*Ephippium, i*, n. ἐφιππιον, a saddle, which it is thought to resemble). See *Sella turcica.*

EPICOLIC REGION, (*Regio epicolica*; from ἐπι, upon, and κωλον, the colon). That part of the abdomen which lies over the head of the cœcum and sygmoid flexure of the colon.

EPICRANĬUM, (*Epicranium, i*, n. ἐπικρανιον; from ἐπι, and κρανιον, the cranium). The common integuments, aponeurosis, and muscular expansion which lie upon the cranium.

EPICRANĬUS. See *Occipito-frontalis.*

EPIDEMIC, (*Epidemicus*, ἐπιδημικος; from ἐπι, upon, and δημος, the people). A contagious disease is so termed that attacks many people at the same season, and in the same place; thus putrid fever, plague, dysentery, &c. are often epidemic.

EPIDENDRUM VANILLA. The systematic name of the vanelloe plant. See *Vanilla.*

EPĬDERMIS, (*Epidermis, ĭdis*, f. ἐπιδερμις; from ἐπι, upon, and δερμα, the true skin). The scarf-skin. See *Cuticle.*

EPIDIDŸMIS, (*Epididymis, ĭdis*, f. ἐπιδιδυμος; from ἐπι, upon, and διδυμος, a testicle). A hard vascular oblong substance, that lies upon the testicle, formed of a convolution of the *vas deferens.* It has a thick end, which is convex, and situated posteriorly; and a thin end, which is rather flat, and situated inferiorly. The epididymis adheres to the testicle by its two extremities only, for its middle part is free, forming a bag, to which the tunica vaginalis of the testicle is attached.

EPIGASTRIC REGION, (*Epigastricus*, ἐπιγαστριχος; from ἐπι, upon or above, and γαστηρ, the stomach). That part of the abdomen that lies over the stomach.

EPIGLOTTIS, (*Epiglottis, ĭdis*, ἐπιγλωττις; from ἐπι, upon, and γλωττα, the tongue). The cartilage at the root of the tongue that falls upon the glottis or superior opening of the larynx. Its figure is nearly oval; it is concave posteriorly, and convex anteriorly. Its apex or superior extremity is loose, and is always elevated upwards by its own elasticity. While the back of the tongue is drawn backwards in swallowing, the epiglottis is put over the aperture of the larynx, hence it shuts up the passage from the mouth into the larynx. The base of the epiglottis is fixed to the thyroid cartilage, the os hyoides, and the base of the tongue, by a strong ligament.

EPILEPSY, (*Epilepsia, æ*, f. ἐπιλημψια; from ἐπιλαμβανω, to seize upon: so called, from the suddenness of its attack). Convulsions with sleep, and usually froth issuing from the mouth. It is a genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi* of Cullen, and contains nine species: 1. *Epilepsia traumatica*, arising from an injury of the head: 2. *Epilepsia à dolore*, from pain: 3. *Epilepsia vermi nosa*, from the irritation of worms: 4. *Epilepsia à veneno*, from poisons: 5. *Epilepsia exanthematica*, from the repulsion of cutaneous eruptions: 6. *Epilepsia à cruditate ventriculi*, from crudities of the stomach: 7. *Epilepsia ab inanitione*, from debility: 8. *Epilepsia uterina*, from hysterical affections: 9. *Epilepsia ex onanismo*, from onanism.

EPINYCTIS, (Επινυκτις; from επι

επι and νυξ, *night*). A puſtule, which riſes in the night, forming an angry tumor on the ſkin of the arms, hands, and thighs, of the ſize of a lupine, of a duſky red, and ſometimes of a livid and pale colour, with great inflammation and pain. In a few days breaks, and ſloughs away.

Epiphŏra, (*Epiphora, æ*, f. επιφορα, from επιφερω, to carry forcibly). The watery eye. An involuntary flow of tears. A ſuperabundant flowing of a ſerous or aqueous humour from the eyes. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales*, and order *apocenoſes*, of Cullen. The humour which flows very copiouſly from the eye in epiphora, appears to be furniſhed, not only by the lachrymal gland, but from the whole ſurface of the conjunctive membrane, Meibomius's glands, and the caruncula lachrymalis; which increaſed and morbid ſecretion may be induced from any ſtimulus ſeated between the globe of the eye and lids, as ſand, acrid fumes, and the like; or it may ariſe from the ſtimulus of active inflammation; or from the acrimony of ſcrophula, meaſles, ſmall-pox; or from general relaxation. The diſeaſe may alſo be brought on by cauſes obſtructing the abſorption of the tears.

Epĭphўsis, (*Epiphyſis, is*, f. επιφυσις, from επι, upon, and φυω, to grow). Any portion of bone growing upon another, but ſeparated from it by a cartilage.

Epiplocēle, (*Epiplocele, es*, f. επιπλοκηλη, from επιπλοον, the omentum, and κηλη, a tumour). An omental hernia. A rupture produced by the protruſion of a portion of the omentum. See *Hernia*.

Epiploic appendages. See *Appendiculæ epiploicæ*.

Epiploītis, (*Epiploitis, ĭdis*, f. επιπλοϊτις, from επιπλοον, the omentum). An inflammation of the proceſs of the peritoneum, that forms the epiploon or omentum. See *Peritonitis*.

Epiplŏon, (*Epiploon, i*, n. επιπλοον, from επιπλεω, to ſail over, becauſe it is moſtly found floating, as it were, upon the inteſtines). See *Omentum*.

Epischĕses, (*Epiſcheſis, is*, f. επισχεσις, from επισχεω, to reſtrain). A ſuppreſſion of excretions. It is an order in the claſs *locales* of Cullen's noſology.

Epispastics, (*Epiſpaſtica, ſc. medicamenta*, επισπαστικα, from επισπαω, to draw together). Thoſe ſubſtances which increaſe the action of the veſſels in thoſe parts of the ſurface of the body to which they are applied, in ſuch a manner as to produce an efflux of fluids there; as cantharides, ſquills, boiling water, &c. They are moſtly employed, 1. To diminiſh violent pain. 2. To take off the effects of uncommon ſenſibility. 3. To remove torpor. 4. To diminiſh the impetus of the blood againſt any part morbidly affected. 5. To diminiſh the morbid increaſe of action in veſſels in the neighbourhood of thoſe to which they are applied. 6. To diminiſh the quantity of circulating fluids. 7. To evacuate morbid accumulations of ſerum.

Epistaphilīnus. See *Uvula*.

Epistaxis, (*Epiſtaxis, is*, f. επισταξις, from επισταζω, to diſtil from). Bleeding at the noſe, with pain, or fulneſs of the head. A genus of diſeaſe arranged by Cullen in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *hæmorrhagiæ*.

Episthotŏnos, (*Epiſthotonos, i*, m. επισθοτονος, from επισθω, forwards, and τεινω to extend). A ſpaſmodic affection of muſcles drawing the body forwards. See *Tetanus*.

Epistrophēus, (επιστροφαιος, from επιστρεφω, to turn round, becauſe the head is turned upon it). *Epiſtrophæus*. The ſecond cervical vertebra. See *Dentatus*.

Epithelĭum, (*Epithelium, i*, n.). The cuticle on the red part of the lips; the cuticle reflected upon the

internal parts, as the mouth, rectum, &c.

Epithēma, (*Epithema, atis*, n. επιθημα, from επι, upon, and τιθημι, to apply). A term sometimes applied to a lotion, fomentation, or some external application.

Epithýmum, (*Epithymum, i*, n. επιθυμον from επι, upon, and θυμος, the herb time). *Cuscuta*. Dodder of thyme. A parasitical plant, possessing a strong disagreeable smell, and a pungent taste very durable in the mouth. Two kinds are recommended in melancholia, as cathartics, viz. *Cuscuta epithymum*; *foliis sessilibus, quinquifidis, bracteis obvallatis*, and *cuscuta europæa*; *floribus sessilibus* of Linnæus.

Epsom salt. See *Magnesia vitriolata*.

Epsom water. *Aqua Epsomensis*. This water evaporated to dryness leaves a residuum, the quantity of which has been estimated from an ounce and a half in the gallon to five drachms and one scruple. Of the total residuum, by far the greater part, about four or five sixths, is sulphate of magnesia mixed with a very few muriats, such as that of lime, and probably magnesia, which render it very deliquescent, and increase the bitterness of taste, till purified by repeated chrystallizations. There is nothing sulphureous or metallic ever found in this spring. The diseases in which it is employed are similar to those of Sedlitz water. There are many other of the simple saline springs that might be enumerated, all of which agree with that of Epsom, in containing a notable proportion of some purging salt. This, for the most part, is either Epsom or Glauber's salt, or often a mixture of both, such as Acton, Kilburne, Bagnigge Wells, Dog and Duck, St. George's Fields, &c.

Epūlis, (*Epulis, ĭdis*, f. επουλις, from επι and ουλα, the gums). An excrescence growing from the gums.

Epulotics, (*Epulotica, sc. medicamenta*, επουλωτικα, from επουλοω, to cicatrize). A term given by surgeons to those applications which promote the formation of skin.

Equisētum, (*Equisetum, i*, n. from *equus*, a horse, and *seta*, a bristle, so named from its resemblance to a horse's tail). *Cauda equina*. Horsetail, mare's-tail. The plant directed for medicinal purposes under this name is the *Hippuris vulgaris* of Linnæus. It possesses adstringent qualities, and is frequently used by the common people as tea in diarrhæas and hæmorrhages. The same virtues are also attributed to the *Equisetum arvense, fluviatile limosum*, and other species, which are directed indiscriminately by the term *Equisetum*.

Equisetum arvense. See *Equisetum*.

Equus asinus. The systematic name of the animal called an ass; the female affords a light and nutritious milk.

Erector clitorĭdis. First muscle of the clitoris of Douglas. A muscle of the clitoris that draws it downwards and backwards, and serves to make the body of the clitoris more tense, by squeezing the blood into it from its crus. It arises from the tuberosity of the ischium, and is inserted into the clitoris.

Erector penis. A muscle of the penis that drives the urine or semen forwards, and, by grasping the bulb of the urethra, pushes the blood towards the corpus cavernosum and the glans, and thus distends them. It arises from the tuberosity of the ischium, and is inserted into the side of the cavernous substance of the penis.

Erethismus, (*Erethismus, i*, m. ερεθισμος, from ερεθιζω, to excite or irritate). Increased sensibility and irritability. It is variously applied by modern writers.

Erigĕron acre. The systema-

tic name of the conyza. See *Conyza cærulea.*

ERĪGĔRUM, (*Erigerum, i,* n. ερυγερων, from ηρ, the ſpring, and γερων, old, ſo called, becauſe in the ſpring it has a white bloſſom like the hair of an old man). *Erigeron.* Groundſel. This very common plant, *Senecio vulgaris* of Linnæus, is frequently applied bruiſed to inflammations and ulcers, as a refrigerent and antiſcorbutic.

ERRATIC, (*Erraticus,* from *erro,* to wander). Wandering. Irregular. A term occaſionally applied to pains, or any diſeaſe which is not fixed, but moves from one part to another, as gout, rheumatiſm, &c.

ERRHINE, (*Errhīna. ſc. medicamenta,* ερρινα, from εν, in, and ῥις, the noſe). By errhines are to be underſtood thoſe medicines which, when topically applied to the internal membrane of the noſe, excite ſneezing, and increaſe the ſecretion, independent of any mechanical irritation. The articles belonging to this claſs may be referred to two orders: 1. *Sternutatary errhines,* as *nicotiana, helleborus, euphorbium,* which are ſelected for the torpid, the vigorous, but not plethoric; and thoſe to whom any degree of evacuation would not be hurtful. 2. *Evacuating errhines,* as *aſarum,* &c. which is calculated for the phlegmatic and infirm.

ERROR LOCI. Boerhaave is ſaid to have introduced this term, from the opinion that the veſſels were of different ſizes, for the circulation of blood, lymph, and ſerum; and that when the larger ſized globules were forced into the leſſer veſſels by an *error of place,* they were obſtructed. But this opinion does not appear to be well grounded.

ERŪCA, (*Eruca, æ,* f. from *erugo,* to make ſmooth, ſo named from the ſmoothneſs of its leaves; or from *uro,* to burn, becauſe of its biting quality). Garden rocket. Roman rocket. Rocket gentle. The ſeeds of this plant, *Braſſica eruca*; *foliis lyartis, caule hirſuto ſiliquis glabris,* of Linnæus, and of the wild rocket, have an acrid taſte, and are eaten by the Italians in their pickles, &c. They are ſaid to be good aperients and antiſcorbutics, but are eſteemed by the above-mentioned people for their ſuppoſed aphrodiſiac qualities.

ERUCA SYLVESTRIS. The wild rocket, *Braſſica erucaſtrum* of Linnæus. See *Eruca.*

ERVUM, (*Ervum, i,* n. *quaſi arvum,* a field, becauſe it grows wild in the fields: or from *eruo,* to pluck out, becauſe it is diligently plucked from corn). *Orobus.* The tare. The plant ordered in ſome pharmacopœias by this name is the *Ervum ervilia*; *germinibus undato-plicatis, foliis impari-pinnatis,* of Linnæus. In times of ſcarcity the ſeeds have been made into bread, which is not the moſt ſalubrious. The meal was formerly amongſt the reſolvents.

ERVUM ERVILIA. The ſyſtematic name of the Orobos. See *Ervum.*

ERVUM LENS. The ſyſtematic name of the lentil. See *Lens.*

ERŸNGĬUM, (*Eryngium, i,* n. ερυγγιον, from ερυγγαω, to eructate, becauſe it cauſes eructation). Sea eryngo, or holly. *Eryngium maritimum*; *foliis radicalibus ſubrotundis plicatis ſpinoſis, capitulis pedunculatis, paleis tricuſpidatis,* of Linnæus. Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Digynia.* The root of this plant is directed for medicinal uſe. It has no particular ſmell, but to the taſte it manifeſts a grateful ſweetneſs; and, on being chewed for ſome time, it diſcovers a light aromatic warmth or pungency. It was formerly celebrated for its ſuppoſed aphrodiſiac powers, but it is now very rarely employed.

ERYNGO. See *Eryngium.*

ERYNGO, SEA. See *Eryngium.*

ERYNGO LEAVED LICHEN. See *Lichen iſlandicus.*

ERYNGIUM CAMPESTRE. The root of this plant, *Eryngium campeſtre*; *foliis radicalibus, amplexicaulibus, pinnato-lanceolatis*, of Linnæus is uſed in many places for that of the ſea eryngo. See *Eryngium*.

ERYSIMUM, (*Eryſimum, i*, n. ερυσιμον, from ερυω, to draw, ſo called from its power of drawing and producing bliſters; others derive it απο της ερεικης, becauſe the leaves are much cut; others from ερετιμαι, precious). Hedge muſtard. This plant, *Eryſimum officinale*; *ſiliquis ſpicæ adpreſſis, foliis runcinatis*, of Linnæus, was formerly much uſed for its expectorant and diuretic qualities, which are now forgotten. The ſeeds are warm and pungent, and very ſimilar to thoſe of muſtard in their effects.

ERISIMUM ALLIARIA. The ſyſtematic name of jack in the hedge. See *Alliaria*.

ERISIMUM BARBAREA. The ſyſtematic name of the barberea of the ſhops. See *Barbarea*.

ERYSIMUM OFFICINALE. The ſyſtematic name of the hedge muſtard. See *Eryſimum*.

ERYSIPELAS, (*Eryſipelas, atis*, n. ερυσιπελας, from ερυω, to draw, and πελας, adjoining; named from the neighbouring parts being affected by the eruption). *Ignis ſacer*. St. Anthony's fire. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen. It is known by ſynocha of two or three days continuance, with drowſineſs, and ſometimes with delirium; pulſe commonly full and hard; then erythema of the face, with continuance of ſynocha, tending to either apoplexy or to abſceſs. There are two ſpecies of this diſeaſe, according to Cullen: 1. *Eryſipelas veſiculoſum*, with large bliſters: 2. *Eryſipelas phlyctænodes*, the ſhingles, or an eryſipelas with phlyctenæ, or ſmall bliſters.

ERYTHEMA, (*Erythema, atis*, n. ερυθημα, from ερυθρος, red). A mordid redneſs of the ſkin, as is obſerved upon the cheeks of hectic patients after eating, and the ſkin covering bubo, phlegmon, &c.

ERYTRODANUM, (*Erythrodanum, i*, n, ερυθροδανον, from ερυθρος, red, ſo called from the colour of its juice). See *Rubia*.

ESCHAR, (*Eſchara, æ*, f. εσχαρα, from εσχαρεω, to ſcab over). The portion of fleſh that is deſtroyed by the application of a cauſtic.

ESCHAROTICS, (*Eſcharotica, ſc. medicamenta*, εσχαρωτικα, from εσχαρεω, to ſcab over). Cauſtics. Corroſives. A term given by ſurgeons to thoſe ſubſtances which poſſeſs a power of deſtroying the texture of the various ſolid parts of the animal body to which they are directly applied. The articles of this claſs of ſubſtances may be arranged under two orders: 1. *Eroding eſcharotics*, as blue vitriol, alumen uſtum, &c. 2. *Cauſtic eſcharotics*, as *lapis infernalis, argentum nitratum, oleum vitrioli, acidum nitroſum*, &c.

ESCULENT. An appellation given to ſuch plants, or any part of them, that may be eaten for food.

ESOX LUCIUS. The ſyſtematic name of the fiſh of the claſs *piſces*, and order *abdominales*, from whoſe liver an oil ſpontaneouſly is ſeparated which is termed in ſome pharmacopœias *oleum lucii piſcis*. It is uſed in ſome countries by ſurgeons to deſtroy ſpots of the tranſparent cornea.

ESSENTIAL OIL. See *Oil*.

ESSERA, (*Eſſera, æ*, f. Arab.). A ſpecies of cutaneous eruption, diſtinguiſhed by broad, ſhining, ſmooth, red ſpots, moſtly without fever, and differing from the nettle raſh in not being elevated. It generally attacks the face and hands.

ESULA, (*Eſula, æ*, f. from *eſus*, eating, becauſe it is eaten by ſome as a medicine). Spurge.

ESULA MAJOR. The officinal plant ordered by this name in ſome pharmacopœias is the *Euphorbia pa-*

luſtris; *umbella multifida, befida, involucellis ovatis, foliis lanceolatis, ramis ſterilibus*, of Linnæus. The juice is exhibited in Ruſſia as a common purge; and the plant is given in ſome places in the cure of intermittents.

ESŬLA MINOR. *Tithymalis cyparifſias*. Cypreſs ſpurge. This, like moſt of the ſpurges, is very acrimonious, inflaming the eyes and œſophagus after touching them. It is now fallen into diſuſe, whatever were its virtues formerly, which, no doubt, amongſt ſome others, was that of opening the bowels, for amongſt ruſtics it was called poor-man's rhubarb.

ETHER. See *Æther*.

ETHER, ACETIC. Acetic naphtha. An etherial fluid, drawn over from an equal admixture of alkohol and acetic acid, diſtilled with a gentle heat from a glaſs retort in a ſand bath. It has a grateful ſmell, is extremely light, volatile, and inflammable.

ETHER, MURIATIC. Marine ether. Marine ether is obtained by mixing and diſtilling alkohol with extremely concentrated muriat of tin. It is ſtimulant, antiſeptic, and diuretic.

ETHER, NITROUS. Nitric napha. This is only a ſtronger preparation than the ſpiritus ætheris nitroſi of the London Pharmacopeia; it is produced by the diſtillation of two parts of alkohol to one part and an half of fuming nitric acid.

ETHER, SULPHURIC. See *Æther vitriolicus*.

ETHER, VITRIOLIC. See *Æther vitriolicus*.

ETHERIAL OIL. Any highly rectified eſſential oil may be ſo termed.

ETHIOPS ANTIMONIAL. See *Sulphuretum hydrargyri ſtibiatum nigrum*.

ETHIOPS MINERAL. See *Hydrargyrus cum ſulphure*.

ETHIOPS PER SE. See *Oxydum hydrargyri nigrum*.

ETHMOIDES, OS. See *Ethmoid bone*.

ETHMOID BONE, (*Os ethmoideum*, from ἠθμὸς, a ſieve, and εἶδος, form; becauſe it is perforated like a ſieve). *Os ethmoides*. *Os æthmoides*. Cribriform bone. A bone of the head. It is ſituated anteriorly in the baſis of the cranium, at the upper part of the noſe. The principal eminences and depreſſions of this bone are the criſta galli, the perpendicular ſeptum, the ſpongy laminæ, and the cribroſe foramina.

EUDIOMETER. An inſtrument by which the quantity of oxygen and azot in atmoſpherical air can be aſcertained. They are all founded upon the principle of decompoſing common air by means of a body which has a greater affinity with the oxygen.

EUGENIA JAMBOS. The ſyſtematic name of the Malabar plumb tree. See *Malabar plumb*.

EUPATORĬUM, (*Eupatorium, i*, n. εὐπατόριον, from *Eupator* its inventor). *Eupatorium Arabicum*. Hemp agrimony. This very bitter and ſtrong-ſmelling plant, is the *Eupatorium cannabinum*; *foliis digitatis*, of Linnæus. Its juice proves violently emetic and purgative, if taken in ſufficient quantity, and promotes the ſecretions generally. It is recommended in dropſies, jaundices, agues, &c. and is in common uſe in Holland, amongſt the lower orders, as a purifier of the blood in old ulcers, ſcurvy, and anaſarca.

EUPATORĬUM ARABICUM. See *Eupatorium*.

EUPATORĬUM CANNABĬNUM. The ſyſtematic name of the hemp agrimony. See *Eupatorium*.

EUPATORĬUM MESUES. See *Ageratum*.

EUPEPTIC, (*Eupeptica*, εὐπεπτικὰ, from εὖ, good, and πέσσω, to digeſt). Subſtances are ſo called that are eaſy to digeſt.

EUPHORBĬA ANTIQUŌRUM. The Linnæan name of a plant ſuppoſed to produce the *Euphorbium*.

EUPHORBĬA CANARĬENSIS. In the Canary iſlands this ſpecies of ſpurge affords the gum euphorbium.

EUPHORBĬA CYPARISSIAS. The ſyſtematic name of the cypreſs ſpurge. See *Eſula minor*.

EUPHORBĬA LATHŸRIS. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the leſſer cataputia ſeeds. See *Cataputia minor*.

EUPHORBĬA OFFICINĀRUM. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the euphorbium in the greateſt abundance. See *Euphorbium*.

EUPHORBĬA PALUSTRIS. The ſyſtematic name of the greater ſpurge. See *Eſula major*.

EUPHORBĬA PARALĬAS. See *Tithymalus paralios*.

EUPHORBĬUM, (*Euphorbium, i*, n. from *Euphorbus*, the phyſician of king Juba, in honour of whom it was named). An inodorous gum-reſin in yellow tears, which have the appearance of being worm-eaten; ſaid to be obtained from ſeveral ſpecies of euphorbiæ, but principally from the *Euphorbia officinarum*; *aculeata nuda multangularis, aculeis germinatis*, of Linnæus; it is imported from Ethiopia, Libya, and Mauritania. It contains an active reſin, and is very ſeldom employed but as an errhine.

EUPHRASIA, (*Euphraſia, æ*, f. corrupted from *Euphroſyne*, ευφροσυνη, from ευφρων, joyful, ſo called becauſe it exhilerates the ſpirits). Eye-bright. This beautiful little plant, *Euphraſia officinalis*; *foliis ovatis, lineatis, argute dentatis*, of Linnæus, has been greatly eſteemed by the common people as a remedy for all diſeaſes of the eyes; yet notwithſtanding this, and the encomiums of ſome medical writers, is now wholly fallen into diſuſe. It is an ingredient in the Britiſh herb tobacco.

EUPHRASĬA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the eye-bright. See *Euphraſia*.

EUSTACHIAN TUBE. *Tuba Euſtachiana*. The tube ſo called was diſcovered by the great Euſtachius. It begins, one in each ear, from the anterior extremity of the tympanum, and runs forwards and inwards in a bony canal, which terminates with the petrous portion of the temporal bone. It then goes on, partly cartilaginous and partly membranous, gradually becoming larger, and at length ends behind the ſoft palate. Through this tube the air paſſes to the tympanum.

EUSTACHIAN VALVE. See *Valvula Euſtachii*.

EVAPORATION, (*Evaporatio, onis*, f.). The volatilization of a fluid by means of heat, with acceſs of air, in order to diminiſh its fluidity, to obtain any fixed ſalts it may hold in ſolution, or to diminiſh the quantity of a reſiduum. In this manner ſea water is evaporated, and the ſalt obtained, and decoctions made into extracts.

EXANTHĒMA, (*Exanthema, ătis*, n. εξανθημα, from εξανθεω, to ſpring forth, to bud). An eruption of the ſkin. Cullen makes *exanthemata* an order in the claſs *pyrexiæ*. It includes contagious diſeaſes, beginning with fever, and followed by an erruption on the ſkin.

EXCITABILITY. See *Excitement*.

EXCITEMENT. In all the ſtates of life, ſays Dr. Brown, from whoſe work this article is ſelected, man and other animals differ from themſelves in their dead ſtate, or from any other inanimate matter, in this property alone; *they can be affected by external agents, as well as by certain functions peculiar to themſelves in ſuch a manner, that the phenomena peculiar to the living ſtate can be produced.* This propoſition extends to every thing that is vital in nature, and therefore applies to vegetables.

The external agents are reducible to heat, diet, and other ſubſtances taken into the ſtomach, blood, the fluids ſecreted from the body and air.

The functions of the ſyſtem itſelf

producing the same effect, are muscular contraction, sense, or perception, and the energy of the brain in thinking, and in exciting passion and emotion. These affect the system in the same manner as the other agents; and they arise both from the other and from themselves.

If the property which distinguishes living from dead matter, or the operation of either of the two sets of powers be withdrawn, life ceases. Nothing else than the presence of these is necessary to life.

The property on which both sets of powers act may be named *Excitability*, and the powers themselves exciting powers. By the word body is meant, both the body simply so called, and also as endued with an intellectual part, a part appropriated to passion and emotion, or a soul: the usual appellation in medical writings is system.

The effects, common to all the exciting powers, are sense, motion, mental exertion, and passion. Now their effects being the same, it must be granted, that the operation of all the powers is the same.

The effects of the exciting powers acting upon the excitability may be denominated *excitement*.

Exciting cause. Occasional cause. Procatarctic cause. Remote cause. That which, when applied to the body under a state of predisposition, excites a disease. The exciting or remote causes of diseases are either external or internal.

Excoriation, (*Excoriatio, onis*, f. from *excorio*, to take off the skin). An abrasion of the skin.

Excrement, (*Excrementum, i*, n. from *excerno*, to separate from). The alvine fæces.

Excrescence, (*Excrescentia, æ*, f. from *excresco*, to grow from). Any preternatural formation of flesh, or any part of the body, as wens, warts, &c.

Excretion, (*Excretio, onis*, f. from *excerno*, to separate from). This term is applied to the separation or secretion of those fluids from the blood of an animal, that are supposed to be useless, as the urine, perspiration, and alvine fæx.

Exomphălus, (*Exomphalus, i*, m. εξομφαλος, from εξ, out, and ομφαλος, the navel). *Exomphalos*. An umbilical hernia. See *Hernia*.

Exophthalmĭa, (*Exophthalmia, æ*, f. εξοφθαλμια, from εξ, out, and οφθαλμος, the eye). A swelling or protrusion of the bulb of the eye, to such a degree, that the eyelids cannot cover it. It may be caused by inflammation, when it is termed *exophthalmia inflammatoria*; or from a collection of pus in the globe of the eye, when it is termed the *exophthalmia purulenta*: or from a congestion of blood within the globe of the eye, *exophthalmia sanguinea*.

Exostōsis, (*Exostosis, is*, f. εξοστωσις, from εξ, and οστεον, a bone). *Hyperostis*. A morbid enlargement, or hard tumour of a bone. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *locales* and order *tumores*,

Expectorants, (*Expectorantia, sc. medicamenta*, from *expectoro*, to discharge from the breast). Under this title are to be considered those medicines which can, with safety, be employed to increase the discharge of mucus from the lungs. The different articles referred to this class may be divided into the following orders: 1. *Nauseating expectorants*, as squills, ammoniacum, and garlic, which are to be preferred for the aged and phlegmatic. 2. *Stimulating expectorants*, as marrubium, which is adapted to the young and irritable, and those easily affected by expectorants. 3. *Antispasmodic expectorants*, as vesicatories, pediluvium, and watery vapours; these are best calculated for the plethoric

and irritable, and thoſe liable to ſpaſmodic affections. 4. *Irritating expectorants*, as fumes of tobacco and acid vapours. The conſtitutions to which theſe are chiefly adapted, are thoſe paſt the period of youth, and thoſe in whom there are evident marks of torpor, either in the ſyſtem generally, or in the lungs in particular.

EXPIRATION, (*Expiratio, onis*, f. from *expiro*, to breathe). That part of reſpiration in which the air is thruſt out from the lungs. See *Reſpiration*.

EXPRESSED OILS. Such oils as are obtained by preſſing the ſubſtance containing them, as olives, which give out olive oil, almonds, &c.

EXTENSOR, (*Extenſor, oris*, m. from *extendo*, to ſtretch out). A term given to thoſe muſcles whoſe office it is to extend any part; the term is in oppoſition to flexor.

EXTENSOR BREVIS DIGĬTORUM PEDIS. *Extenſor brevis* of Douglas. A muſcle of the toes ſituated on the foot. It ariſes fleſhy and tendinous from the fore and upper part of the os calcis, and ſoon forms a fleſhy belly, diviſible into four portions, which ſend off an equal number of tendons that paſs over the upper part of the foot under the tendons of the extenſor longus digitorum pedis, to be inſerted into its tendinous expanſion. Its office is to extend the toes.

EXTENSOR CARPI RADĬĀLIS BREVĬOR. *Radialis externus brevior* of Albinus. *Radialis ſecundus* of Winſlow. An extenſor muſcle of the wriſt, ſituated on the fore-arm. It ariſes tendinous from the external condyle of the humerus, and from the ligament that connects the radius to it, and runs along the outſide of the radius. It is inſerted by a long tendon into the upper and back part of the metacarpal bone of the middle finger. It aſſiſts in extending and bringing the hand backward.

EXTENSOR CARPI RADĬĀLIS LONGĬOR. *Radialis externus longior* of Albinus. *Radialis externus primus* of Winſlow. An extenſor muſcle of the carpus, ſituated on the fore arm, that acts in conjunction with the former. It ariſes thin, broad, and fleſhy, from the lower part of the external ridge of the os humeri, above its external condyle, and is inſerted by a round tendon into the poſterior and upper part of the metacarpal bone that ſuſtains the fore fingers.

EXTENSOR CARPI ULNĀRIS. *Ulnaris externus* of Albinus and Winſlow. It ariſes from the outer condyle of the os humeri, and then receives an origin from the edge of the ulna: its tendon paſſes in a groove behind the ſtyloid proceſs of the ulna: to be inſerted into the inſide of the baſis of the metacarpal bone of the little finger.

EXTENSOR DIGĬTŌROM COMMŪNIS. A muſcle ſituated on the fore-arm, that extends all the joints of the fingers. It ariſes from the external protuberance of the humerus: and at the wriſt it divides into three flat tendons, which paſs under the annular ligament, to be inſerted into all the bones of the fore, middle, and ring fingers.

EXTENSOR DIGĬTŌRUM LONGUS. See *Extenſor longus digitorum pedis*.

EXTENSOR INDĬCIS. See *Indicator*.

EXTENSOR LONGUS DIGĬTŌRUM PEDIS. *Extenſor longus* of Douglas. A muſcle ſituated on the leg, that extends all the joints of the four ſmall toes. It ariſes from the upper part of the tibia and fibula, and the interoſſeous ligament; its tendon paſſes under the annular ligament, and then divides into five, four of which are inſerted into the ſecond and third phalanges of the toes, and the fifth goes to the baſis of the metatarſal bone. This laſt Winſlow reckons a diſtinct muſcle, and calls it *Peronæus brevis*.

EXTENSOR LONGUS POLLĬCIS

PEDIS. See *Extenſor proprius pollicis pedis.*

EXTENSOR MAGNUS. See *Gaſtrocnemius internus.*

EXTENSOR MAJOR POLLĬCIS MANUS. See *Extenſor ſecundi internodii.*

EXTENSOR MINOR POLLĬCIS MANUS. See *Extenſor primi internodii.*

EXTENSOR OSSIS METACARPI POLLĬCIS MANUS. *Abductor longus pollicis manus* of Albinus. *Extenſor primi internodii* of Douglas. It ariſes fleſhy from the middle and poſterior part of the ulna, from the poſterior part of the middle of the radius, and from the interoſſeous ligament, and is inſerted into the os trapezium, and upper part of the metacarpal bone of the thumb.

EXTENSOR POLLĬCIS PRIMUS. See *Extenſor primi internodii.*

EXTENSOR POLLĬCIS SECUNDUS. See *Extenſor ſecundi internodii.*

EXTENSOR PRIMI INTERNODĬI. *Extenſor minor pollicis manus* of Albinus. This muſcle, and the *Extenſor oſſis metacarpi pollicis manus*, are called *Extenſor pollicis primus* by Winſlow, and *Extenſor ſecundi internodii* by Douglaſs. A muſcle of the thumb, ſituated on the hand, that extends the firſt bone of the thumb obliquely outwards. It ariſes fleſhy from the poſterior part of the ulna, and from the interoſſeous ligament, and is inſerted tendinous into the poſterior part of the firſt bone of the thumb.

EXTENSOR PROPRĬUS POLLĬCIS PEDIS. *Extenſor longus pollicis pedis* of Douglas. An extenſor muſcle of the great toe, ſituated on the foot. It ariſes by an acute, tendinous, and fleſhy beginning, ſome way below the head and anterior part of the fibula, along which it runs to near its lower extremity, connected to it by a number of fleſhy fibres, which deſcend obliquely, and form a tendon which is inſerted into the poſterior part of the firſt and laſt joint of the great toe.

EXTENSOR SECUNDI INTERNODĬI. *Extenſor major pollicis manus* of Albinus. *Extenſor pollicis ſecundus* of Winſlow. *Extenſor tertii internodii* of Douglas. A muſcle of the thumb, ſituated on the hand, that extends the laſt joint of the thumb obliquely backwards. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the middle part of the ulna, and the interoſſeous ligament; it then forms a tendon, which runs through a ſmall groove at the inner, and back part of the radius to be inſerted into the laſt bone of the thumb.

EXTENSOR SECUNDI INTERNODĬI INDĬCIS PROPRĬUS. See *Indicator.*

EXTENSOR TARSI MINOR. See *Plantaris.*

EXTENSOR TARSI SURĀLIS. See *Gaſtrocnemius internus.*

EXTENSOR TERTĬI INTERNODĬI MINĬMI DIGĬTI. See *Abductor minimi digiti manus.*

EXTENSOR TERTĬI INTERNODĬI INDĬCIS. See *Prior indicis.*

EXTERNUS MALLĔI. See *Laxator tympani.*

EXTRACTUM COLOCYNTHIDIS COMPOSITUM. A warm ſtimulating cathartic, calculated to remove coſtiveneſs in the old, phlegmatic, and torpid.

EXTRACTUM SATURNI. See *Aqua lithargyri acetata.*

EXTRAVASATION, (*Extravaſatio, onis*, f. from *extra*, without, and *vas*, a veſſel). See *Ecchymoma.*

EXULCERATION, (*Exulceratio, onis*, f. from *exulcero*, to cauſe ulcers). The ſame as ulcer, though occaſionally applied to that ſpecies which is ſmall and ſuperficial.

EXUVĬÆ, (*Exuviæ, arum*, pl. f. from *exuo*, to ſtrip off). The cuticle of the ſerpent, which is caſt every ſpring.

EYE. *Oculus.* The eye, or organ of viſion, is ſituated in a ſocket called the *orbit*, at the ſide of the root of the noſe, which is compoſed of ſeven

bones, viz. the frontal, ſuperior maxillary, jugal, lachrymal, palatine, ethmoid, and ſphænoid, which almoſt ſurround and defend it. Anatomiſts have divided the ſoft parts which form the eye into external and internal. The external parts are the *ſupercilia* or eyebrows, *palpebræ* or eyelids, *cilia* or eyelaſhes, lachrymal gland, lachrymal caruncle, naſal duct, muſcles of the bulb of the eye, and the fat of the orbit. The internal parts are thoſe which form the bulb, or eye, properly ſo called: they conſiſt of eight inembranes, viz. the ſclerotic, tranſparent cornea, the choroid membrane, iris, uvea, retina, hyaloid, and capſule of the chryſtalline lens; two chambers, one anterior, the other poſterior; and three humours, the aqueous, cryſtalline lens, and vitreous humour. The arteries of this viſcus are the internal orbital, the central, and the ciliary arteries. The veins empty themſelves into the external jugulars. The nerves are the optic, and branches from the third, fourth, fifth, and ſixth pair. The various parts are deſcribed under the different heads of *ſupercilia*, *cilia*, *ſcelerotis* membrane, *choroid*, &c. The uſe of the eye is to form the organ of viſion.

EYE-BRIGHT. See *Euphraſia.*

EYE-BROW. *Superalium.* A layer of ſhort hair which lies thick upon the lower part of the frontal bone, on the ſuperior prominent part of the orbit.

EYE-LID. *Palpebra.* The ſemilunar moveable production of the ſkin which covers the eye when ſhut. It is diſtinguiſhed into upper and under eye-lid.

F.

F, or ft. In a preſcription theſe letters are abbreviations of *fiat*, or *fiant*, let it, or them be made; thus *f. bolus*, let the ſubſtance or ſubſtances preſcribed be made into a bolus.

FABA, (*Faba, æ*, f.). See *Bean.*

FABA CRASSA. *Telephium. Fabaria craſſula. Anacampſeros.* The plant which bears theſe names in various pharmacopœias, is the orphine, *Sedum telephium*; *foliis planiuſculis ſerratis, corymbo foliaſe, caule erecto*, of Linnæus. It was formerly ranked as an antiphlogiſtic, but now forgotten.

FABA FEBRIFUGA. See *Faba indica.*

FABA INDICA. *Faba ſancti ignatii. Faba febrifuga.* The ſeeds of a gourd-like fruit, the produce of the *Ignatia amara* of Linnæus. They are of a roundiſh figure, very irregular and uneven, about the ſize of a middling nutmeg, ſemitranſparent, and of a hard, horny texture. They have a very bitter taſte, and no conſiderable ſmell. They are ſaid to be uſed in the Philippine iſlands in all diſeaſes, acting as a vomit and purgative. Infuſions are given in the cure of intermittents, &c.

FABA PECHURIM. *Faba pichurim. Faba pechuris.* An oblong oval, brown, and ponderous ſeed, ſuppoſed to be the produce of a *Laurus*, brought from the Brazils. Their ſmell is like that of muſk, between it and the ſcent of ſaſſafras. They are exhibited as carminatives in flatulent colics, diarrhæas, and dyſenteries.

FABA PURGATRIX. See *Ricinus major.*

Faba sanctI ignatĭI. See *Faba indica.*

Faba suilla. See *Hyoſciamus.*

Fabarĭa, (*Fabaria, æ*, f. from *faba*, a bean, which it reſembles). Orphine. See *Faba craſſa.*

Face. The bones of the face are divided into thoſe of the upper and under jaw. The upper jaw conſiſts of thirteen bones, viz. two ſuperior maxillary, two jugal, two naſal, two lachrymal, two inferior ſpongy, two palatine, and the vomer. The under jaw is formed of one bone, the inferior maxillary bone. The muſcles of the face are thoſe of the eyelids, eyeball, noſe, mouth, and lips.

Facial nerve. *Nervus facialis. Portio dura* of the auditory nerve. Theſe nerves are two in number, and are properly the eighth pair: but are commonly called the ſeventh, being reckoned with the auditory, which is the portio mollis of the ſeventh pair. They ariſe from the fourth ventricle of the brain, paſs through the petrous portion of the temporal bone to the face, where they form the pes anſerina, which ſupplies the integuments of the face and forehead.

Facies, (*Facies, ei*, f.). See *Face.*

Factitious. A term applied to any thing which is made by art, in oppoſition to that which is native, or found already made in nature.

Facĭes hippocratĭca. That particular diſpoſition of the features which immediately precedes the ſtroke of death is ſo called, becauſe it has been ſo admirably deſcribed by Hippocrates.

Faculty, (*Facultas, atis*, f.). The power or ability by which any action is performed.

Fæces. The plural of *fæx.* The alvine excretions.

Fæcŭla, (*Fecula, æ*, f. dim. of *fæx*). A ſubſtance obtained by bruiſing or grinding certain vegetables in water. It is that part which after a little falls to the bottom. The fæcula of plants appears to be only a ſlight alteration of mucilage, for it differs from mucilage in no other reſpect than being inſoluble in cold water, in which it falls with wonderful quickneſs. There are few plants which do not contain fæcula; but the ſeeds of gramineous and leguminous vegetables, as all tuberoſe roots contain it moſt plentifully.

Fæx, (*Fæx, fæcis*, f. pl. *fæces*). The alvine excretions.

Fagara octandra. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords tacamahaca. See *Tacamahca.*

Fagus, (*Fagus, i*, φαγος, from φαγω, to eat; its nut being one of the firſt fruits uſed by man). The beech tree. The fruit and interior bark of this tree *Fagus ſylvatica; foliis ovatis, obſolete ſerratis*, of Linnæus, are occaſionally uſed medicinally, the former in obſtinate headachs, and the latter in the cure of hectic fever.

Fagus castanĕa. The ſyſtematic name of the cheſnut tree. See *Caſtanea.*

Fagus sylvatĭca. The ſyſtematic name of the beech tree. See *Fagus.*

Fainting. See *Syncope.*

Fairburn water. A ſulphureous water it the county of Roſs, in the north of England.

Falciform process, (*Falciformis*, from *falx*, a ſcythe, and *forma*, reſemblance). The falx. A proceſs of the dura mater, that ariſes from the griſta galli, ſeparates the hemiſpheres of the brain, and terminates in the tentorium.

Falling sickness. See *Epilepſia.*

Fallopian tube. See *Tuba Fallopiana.*

Fallopian ligament. See *Pouparts ligament.*

Falx (*Falx, cis*, f.). The falciform proceſs of the dura mater. See *Falciform proceſs.*

FARFARA, (*Farfara*, from *farfarus*, the white poplar, ſo called becauſe its leaves reſemble thoſe of the white poplar). See *Tuſſilago*.

FARĪNA, (*Farina*, *æ*, from *far*, corn, of which it is made). Meal or flour. A term given to the pulverulent and glutinous part of wheat and other ſeeds, which is obtained by grinding and ſifting. It is highly nutritious, and conſiſts of gluten, ſtarch, and mucilage. See *Wheat*.

FARINACEOUS. A term given to all articles of food which contain *farina*. See *Farina*.

FASCĬA, (*Faſcia*, *æ*, f. from *faſcis*, a bundle; becauſe by means of a band materials are collected into a bundle). A bandage, fillet, or roller: hence the aponeurotic expanſions of muſcles, which bind parts together, are termed *faſciæ*.

FASCĬA LATĂ. A thick and ſtrong tendinous expanſion ſent off from the back, and from the tendons of the glutei and adjacent muſcles, to ſurround the muſcles of the thigh. It is the thickeſt on the outſide of the thigh and leg, but towards the inſide of both becomes gradually thinner. A little below the trochanter major, it is firmly fixed to the linea aſpera; and, farther down, to that part of the head of the tibia that is next the fibula, where it ſends off the tendinous expanſion along the outſide of the leg. It ſerves to ſtrengthen the action of the muſcles, by keeping them firm in their proper places when in action, particularly the tendons that paſs over the joints where this membrane is thickeſt.

FASCIALIS, (*Faſcialis*, *ſc. muſculus*). See *Tenſor vaginæ femoris*.

FAT, (*Adeps*, *ipis*, m. & f.). A concrete oily matter contained in the cellular membrane of animals, of a white or yellowiſh colour, with little or no ſmell nor taſte. It differs in all animals in ſolidity, colour, taſte, &c. and likewiſe in the ſame animal at different ages. In infancy it is white, inſipid, and not very ſolid; in the adult it is firm and yellowiſh, and in animals of an advanced age its colour is deeper, its conſiſtence various, and its taſte in general ſtronger. Fat meat is nouriſhing to thoſe that have ſtrong digeſtive powers. It is uſed externally as a ſoftening remedy, and enters into the compoſition of ointments and plaſters.

FATŬITAS, (*Fatuitas*, *atis*. f. from *fatuus*, ſilly). Fooliſhneſs. A ſynonim of *Amentia*.

FAUCES, (*Faux*, *cis*, f. pl. *fauces*). A cavity behind the tongue, palatine arch, uvula, and tonſils: from which the pharynx and larynx proceed.

FEBRES. (*Febris*, *is*, f.). An order in the claſs *pyrexiæ* of Cullen, characterized by the preſence of pyrexia, without primary or local affection.

FEBRĬCŬLA, (*Febricula*, *æ*, f. dim. of *febris*, a fever). A term employed to expreſs a ſlight degree of ſymptomatic fever.

FEBRIFUGE, (*Febrifuga*, from *febris*, a fever, and *fugo*, to drive away). A medicine that poſſeſſes the property of abating the violence of any fever.

FEBRIS CONTINUA. A continued fever. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen. It has no intermiſſion, but exacerbations come on twice in one day. The ſpecies of continued fever are: 1. *Synocha*, or inflammatory fever, known by increaſed heat; pulſe frequent, ſtrong, and hard; urine high-coloured; ſenſes not much impaired. 2. *Typhus*, or putrid-tending fever, which is contagious, and is characterized by moderate heat; quick, weak, and ſmall pulſe; ſenſes much impaired, and great proſtration of ſtrength. Typhus has four varieties, viz. 1. *Typhus petechialis*, typhus with petechiæ: 2. *Typhus mitior*, the nervous fever: 3. *Typhus gravior*, the putrid fever: 4. *Typhus icterodes*, the yellow fever.

Febris erysipelatōsa. See *Erysipelas*.

Febris hectĭca. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexiæ* and order *febres* of Cullen. It is known by exacerbations at noon, but chiefly in the evening, with slight remissions in the morning, after nocturnal sweats; the urine depositing a furfuraceo-lateritious sediment; appetite good; thirst moderate. Hectic fever is symptomatic of chlorosis, scrophula, phthisis, diseased viscera, &c.

Febris inflammatorĭa. See *Febris continua*.

Febris intermittens. An intermittent fever or ague. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexiæ* and order *febres*. It is known by cold, hot, and sweating stages in succession, attending each paroxysm, and followed by an intermission or remission. There are three species of this disease, viz. 1. *Intermittens quotidiana*. A quotidian ague. The paroxysms return in the morning at an interval of about twenty-four hours. 2. *Intermittens tertiana*. A tertian ague. The paroxysms commonly come on at midday, at an interval of about forty-eight hours. 3. *Intermittens quartana*. A quartan ague. The paroxysms come on in the afternoon, with an interval of about seventy-two hours.

Febris nervōsa. *Febris lenta nervosa*. The nervous fever. A variety of *typhus mitior* of Cullen, but by many considered as a distinct disease. It mostly begins with loss of appetite, increased heat and vertigo; to which succeed nausea, vomiting, great languor, and pain in the head, which is variously described, by some like cold water pouring over the top, by others a sense of weight. The pulse, before little increased, now becomes quick, feeble, and tremulous; the tongue is covered with a white crust, and there is great anxiety about the præcordia. Towards the seventh or eighth day, the vertigo is increased, and tinnitus aurium, cophosis, delirium, and a dry and tremulous tongue, take place. The disease mostly terminates about the fourteenth or twentieth day.

Febris putrĭda. See *Febris continua*.

Febris vesĭculōsa. See *Erysipelas*.

Fecula. See *Fæcula*.

Fel, (*Fel, fellis*, n.). See *Bile*.

Fel-wort. So called from its bitter taste like bile. See *Gentiana*.

Felon. See *Paronichia*.

Femŏris os. See *Femur*.

Femur, (*Fĕmur, ŏris*, n.). *Os femoris*. The thigh bone. A long cylindrical bone, situated between the pelvis and tibia. Its upper extremity affords three considerable processes; these are, the head, the trochanter major, and trochanter minor.—The head, which forms about two thirds of a sphere, is turned inwards, and is received into the acetabulum of the os innominatum, with which it is articulated by enarthrosis. It is covered by a cartilage, which is thick in its middle part, and thin at its edges, but which is wanting in its lower internal part, where a round spongy fossa is observable, to which the strong ligament, usually, though improperly, called the *round* one, is attached. This ligament is about an inch in length, flattish, and of a triangular shape, having its narrow extremity attached to the fossa just described, while its broader end is fixed obliquely to the rough surface near the inner and anterior edge of the acetabulum of the os innominatum, so that it appears shorter internally and anteriorly than it does externally and posteriorly.

The head of the os femoris is supported obliquely, with respect to the rest of the bone, by a smaller part, called the *cervix*, or *neck*, which, in the generality of subjects, is about an

inch in length. At its baſis we obſerve two oblique ridges, which extend from the trochanter major to the trochanter minor. Of theſe ridges, the poſterior one is the moſt prominent. Around this neck is attached the capſular ligament of the joint, which likewiſe adheres to the edge of the cotyloid cavity, and is ſtrengthened anteriorly by many ſtrong ligamentous fibres, which begin from the lower and anterior part of the ilium, and ſpreading broader as they deſcend, adhere to the capſular ligament, and are attached to the anterior oblique ridge at the bottom of the neck of the femur. Poſteriorly and externally, from the baſis of the neck of the bone, a large unequal protuberance ſtands out, which is the *trochanter major*. The upper edge of this proceſs is ſharp and pointed poſteriorly, but is more obtuſe anteriorly. A part of it is rough and unequal, for the inſertion of the muſcles; the reſt is ſmooth, and covered with a thin cartilaginous cruſt, between which and the tendon of the glutæus maximus that ſlides over it, a large burſa mucoſa is interpoſed. Anteriorly, at the root of this proceſs, and immediately below the bottom of the neck, is a ſmall proceſs called *trochanter minor*. Its baſis is nearly triangular, having its two upper angles turned towards the head of the femur and the great trochanter, while its lower angle is placed towards the body of the bone. Its ſummit is rough and rounded.—Theſe two proceſſes have gotten the name of *trochanters*, from the muſcles that are inſerted into them being the principal inſtruments of the rotatory motion of the thigh. Immediately below theſe two proceſſes the body of the bone may be ſaid to begin. It is ſmooth and convex before, but is made hollow behind by the action of the muſcles. In the middle of this poſterior concave ſurface is obſerved a rough ridge, called *linea aſpera*, which ſeems to originate from the trochanters, and extending downwards, divides at length into two branches, which terminate in the tuberoſities near the condyles.—At the upper part of it, blood veſſels paſs to the internal ſubſtance of the bone, by a hole that runs obliquely upwards.

The lower extremity of the os femoris is larger than the upper one, and ſomewhat flattened, ſo as to form two ſurfaces, of which the anterior one is broad and convex, and the poſterior one narrower and ſlightly concave.—This end of the bone terminates in two large protuberances, called *condyles*, which are united before ſo as to form a pulley, but are ſeparated behind by a conſiderable cavity, in which the crural veſſels and nerves are placed ſecure from the compreſſion to which they would otherwiſe be expoſed in the action of bending the leg. Of theſe two condyles, the external one is the largeſt; and when the bone is ſeparated from the reſt of the ſkeleton, and placed perpendicularly, the internal condyle projects leſs forwards, and deſcends nearly three tenths of an inch lower that the external one: but in its natural ſituation, the bone is placed obliquely, ſo that both condyles are then nearly on a level with each other. At the ſide of each condyle externally, there is a tuberoſity, the ſituation of which is ſimilar to that of the condyles of the os humeri. The two branches of the linea aſpera terminate in theſe tuberoſities, which are rough, and ſerve for the attachment of ligaments and muſcles.

FENNEL. See *Fæniculum*.

FENNEL-HOGS. See *Peucedanum*.

FENESTRA OVĀLIS. An oblong or eleptical foramen, between the cavity of the tympanum, and the vestibulum of the ear. It is ſhut by the ſtapes.

FENESTRA ROTUNDA. A round

foramen, leading from the tympanum to the cochlea of the ear. It is covered by a membrane in the fresh subject.

FENUGREEK. See *Fænugrecum*.

FERINE, (*Ferinus, sc. morbus*, savage or brutal). A term occasionally applied to any malignant or noxious disease.

FERMENTATION, (*Fermentatio, onis*, f.). A spontaneous commotion in a vegetable substance, by which its properties are totally changed. There are several circumstances required in order that fermentation may proceed: such are, 1. A certain degree of fluidity: thus, dry substances do not ferment at all. 2. A certain degree of heat. 3. The contact of air. Chemists, after Boerhaave, have distinguished three kinds of fermentation: the *spirituous*, which affords ardent spirit; the *acetous*, which affords vinegar, or acid; and the *putrid* fermentation, or putrefaction, which produces volatile alkali. The conditions necessary for spirituous fermentation are, 1. A saccharine mucilage. 2. A degree of fluidity slightly viscid. 3. A degree of heat between 55 and 65 of Fahrenheit. 4. A large mass, in which a rapid commotion may be excited. When these four conditions are united, the spirituous fermentation takes place, and is known by the following characteristic phenomena: 1. An intestine motion takes place. 2. The bulk of the mixture then becomes augmented. 3. The transparency of the fluid is diminished by opake filaments. 4. Heat is generated. 5. The solid parts mixed with the liquor rise and float in consequence of the disengagement of elastic fluid. 6. A large quantity of cretaceous acid gaz is disengaged by bubbles. All these phenomina gradually cease in proportion as the liquor loses its sweet and mild taste, and becomes brisk, penetrating, and capable of producing intoxication. In this manner wine, beer, cider, &c. are made. All bodies which have undergone the spirituous fermentation are capable of passing on to the acid fermentation; but although it be probable that the acid fermentation never takes place before the body has gone through the spirituous fermentation, yet the duration of the first is frequently so short and imperceptible, that it cannot be ascertained. Besides the bodies which are proper for spirituous fermentation, this class includes all sorts of fecula boiled in water. The conditions required for the acid fermentation are, 1. A heat from 20 to 25 degrees of Fahrenheit. 2. A certain degree of liquidity. 3. The presence of atmospheric air. 4. A moderate quantity of fermentable matter. The phenomena which accompany this fermentation, are an intestine motion, and a considerable absorption of air. The transparent liquor becomes turbid, but regains its limpidity when fermentation is over. The fermented liquor now consists, in a great measure, of a peculiar acid, called the acetous acid, or vinegar. Not a vestige of spirit remains, it being entirely decompounded; but the greater the quantity of spirit in the liquor, previous to the fermentation, the greater will be the quantity of true vinegar obtained. See also *Putrefaction*.

FERN-MALE. See *Filix*.

FERN-FEMALE. See *Filix fœmina*.

FERRI LIMĀTŪRA PURIFICĀTA. Steel filings possess tonic, astringent, and deobstruent virtues, and are calculated to relieve chlorosis and other diseases in which steel is indicated, where crudity in the primæ viæ abounds.

FERRI RUBĪGO. See *Rubigo ferri*.

FERRUM, (*Ferrum, i*, n.). Iron. See *Iron*.

FERRUM AMMONIACĀLE. *Flores martiales. Flores salis ammoniaci martiales. Ens martis. Ens veneris Boylei.*

Murias ammoniacæ ferratus. Sal martis muriaticum ſublimatum. Sal ammoniacum martiale. This preparation is a true ammoniacal muriat of iron, and therefore termed murias ferri ammoniacalis in the new chemical nomenclature. It is exhibited in chloroſis, aſthenia, menorrhagia, intermittent fevers, and moſt caſes of debility.

FERRUM TARTĂRISĀTUM. *Tartarus chalybeatus. Mars ſolubilis. Ferrum potabile.* This preparation of iron is called *Tartaris potaſſæ acidulus ferratus* in the new chemical nomenclature. Its virtues are adſtringent and tonic, and it forms in ſolution an excellent tonic fomentation to contuſions, lacerations, diſtortions, &c.

FERRUM VITRĬOLĀTUM. *Vitriolum martis. Vitriolum ferri. Vitriolum viride. Sal martis.* Green vitriol. This is an excellent preparation of iron, and is exhibited in many diſeaſes as a ſtyptic, tonic, adſtringent, and antihelmentic. In the new chemical nomenclature it is called *ſalphas ferri,* it being a ſulphate of iron.

FERŬLA ASSA FÆTĬDA. The ſyſtematic name of the aſſafætida plant. See *Aſſafætida.*

FEVER. See *Febris.*

FEVERFEW. See *Matricaria.*

FIBER, (*Fiber, ri,* m. from *fiber,* extreme, becauſe it reſides in the extremities of lakes and rivers). The beaver. The female beaver. *Caſtor fiber* of Linnæus, it has two excretory follicles near the anus filled with an unctuous ſubſtance called caſtor. See *Caſtoreum.*

FIBRE, (*Fibra, æ,* f.). A very ſimple filament, compoſed of earthy particles, connected together by an intermediate gluten. It is owing to the different arrangements of the fibres that the cellular ſtructure, membranes, muſcles, veſſels, nerves, and, in ſhort, every part of the body, except the fluids, are formed.

FIBRE MUSCULAR. See *Muſcular fibre.*

FIBRINE. The coagulable lymph is ſo termed by the French.

FIBŬLA, (*Fibula, æ,* f. *quaſi figulula,* from *figo,* to faſten. So named becauſe it joints together the tibia and the muſcles). A long bone of the leg, ſituated on the outer ſide of the tibia, and which forms, at its lower end, the outer ankle. Its upper extremity is formed into an irregular head, on the inſide of which is a ſlightly concave articulating ſurface, which, in the recent ſubject, is covered with cartilage, and receives the circular flat ſurface deſcribed under the edge of the external cavity of the tibia. This articulation is ſurrounded by a capſular ligament, which is farther ſtrengthened by other ſtrong ligamentous fibres, ſo as to allow only a ſmall motion backwards and forwards.—Externally, the head of the fibula is rough and protuberant, ſerving for the attachment of ligaments, and for the inſertion of the biceps cruris muſcle.—Immediately below it, on its inner ſide, is a tubercle, from which a part of the gaſtrocnemius internus has its origin. Immediately below this head the body of the bone begins. It is of a triangular ſhape, and appears as if it were ſlightly twiſted at each end in a different direction. It is likewiſe a little curved inwards and forwards. This curvature is in part owing to the action of muſcles: and in part perhaps to the careleſſneſs of nurſes.—Of the three angles of the bone, that which is turned towards the tibia is the moſt prominent, and ſerves for the attachment of the interoſſeous ligament, which, in its ſtructure and uſes, reſembles that of the fore-arm, and, like that, is a little interrupted above and below. The three ſurfaces of the bone are variouſly impreſſed by different muſcles. About the middle of the poſterior ſurface, is obſerved, a paſſage for the

medullary veſſels, ſlanting downwards. The lower end of the fibula is formed into a ſpongy, oblong head, externally rough and convex, internally ſmooth, and covered with a thin cartilage, where it is received by the external triangular depreſſion at the lower end of the tibia. This articulation, which reſembles that of its upper extremity, is furniſhed with a capſular ligament, and farther ſtrengthened by ligamentous fibres, which are ſtronger and more conſiderable than thoſe we deſcribed above. They extend from the tibia to the fibula, in an oblique direction, and are more eaſily diſcernible before than behind. Below this the fibula is lengthened out, ſo as to form a conſiderable proceſs, called *malleolus externus*, or the outer ancle. It is ſmooth, and covered with cartilage on the inſide, where it is contiguous to the aſtragalus, or firſt bone of the foot. At the lower and inner part of this proceſs there is a ſpongy cavity, filled with fat; and a little beyond this, poſteriorly, is a cartilaginous groove, for the tendons of the peroneus longus and peroneus brevis, which are here bound down by the ligamentous fibres that are extended over them.

The principal uſes of this bone ſeem to be, to afford origin and inſertion to muſcles, and to contribute to the articulation of the leg with the foot.

Ficaria, (*Ficaria, æ*, f. from *ficus*, a fig, ſo called from its likeneſs). The herb figwort.

Ficus, (*Ficus, i*, f. or n.). A fleſhy excreſcence about the anus, in figure reſembling a fig.

Ficus carĭca. The ſyſtematic name of the fig-tree. See *Carica*.

Fidĭcĭnāles, (*Fidicinalis, ſc. muſculus*). See *Lumbricalis*.

Figs. See *Carica*.

Fig-wort. See *Scrophularia*.

Filament. A term applied in anatomy to a ſmall thread-like portion adhering to any part, and frequently ſynonymous with fibre. See *Fibre*.

Filipendŭla, (*Filipendula, æ*, f. from *filum*, a thread, and *pendeo*, to hang, ſo named becauſe the numerous bulbs of its root hang as it were by ſmall threads). *Saxifraga rubra*. Drop-wort. The root of this plant, *Spiræa filipendula; foliis pennatis, foliolis uniformibus ſerratis, caule herbaceo, floribus corymboſis* of Linnæus, poſſeſſes adſtringent, and it is ſaid lithontriptic virtues. It is ſeldom uſed in the practice of the preſent day.

Filix, (*Filix, ĭcis*, f.). Male polypody, or fern. *Polypodium filix mas* of Linnæus. The root of this plant has lately been greatly celebrated for its effects upon the *tænia oſculis ſuperficialibus*, or broad tape-worm. Madame Noufer acquired great celebrity by employing it as a ſpecific. This ſecret was thought of ſuch importance by ſome of the principal phyſicians at Paris, who were deputed to make a complete trial of its efficacy, that it was purchaſed by the French king, and afterwards publiſhed by his order. The method of cure is the following: After the patient has been prepared by an emolient glyſter, and a ſupper of panada, with butter and ſalt, he is directed to take in the morning, while in bed, a doſe of two or three drachms of the powdered root of the male fern. The powder muſt be waſhed down with a draught of water, and two hours after a ſtrong cathartic, compoſed of calomel and ſcammony, is to be given, proportioned to the ſtrength of the patient. If this does not operate in due time, it is to be followed by a doſe of purging ſalts, and if the worm be not expelled in a few hours, this proceſs is to be repeated at proper intervals. Of the ſucceſs of this, or a ſimilar mode of treatment, in caſes of tænia, there can be no doubt, as many proofs of it in this country afford ſufficient teſtimony; but whether the fern-root or the ſtrong cathartic is the princi-

pal agent in the deſtruction of the worm, may admit of a queſtion.

FILIX FÆMĬNA. The female fern. The plant which is thus called in the pharmacopœias, is not the *Polypodium filix fœmina*, but the *Pteris aquilina*; *frondibus ſupradecompoſitis, foliolis pinnatis pinnis lanceolatis, infimis pinnatifidis, ſuperioribus minoribus* of Linnæus. The root is eſteemed as an anthelmentic, and is ſuppoſed to be as efficacious in the deſtroying the tape-worm as the root of the male-fern.

FILIX MAS. See *Filix*.

FILTRATION. A method of rendering fluids clear, by paſſing them through a porous ſolid, as the filtering ſtone, compact cloſe linen, woollen cloths, or porous paper, which is generally uſed for this purpoſe, as a lining to a funnel, or other ſuch veſſel. Filtration is alſo performed on a principle ſomewhat different, as by immerſing one end of a porous ſubſtance, as a piece of liſt, ſcaine of cotton, or ſlip of thick paper, or other ſuch ſubſtance, moiſtened in its whole length in the fluid, and allowing the other end of it to hang down over the outſide of the veſſel. The fluid in this depending part drains out by its own gravity, and is ſupplied by capillary attraction from the portion next within the veſſel, which is ſupplied in the ſame manner form the ſurface of the fluid, till the whole paſſes over, unleſs too deep, the liſt, &c. appearing to act as ſyphons.

FIMBRĬÆ, (*Fimbria, æ*, f. *quaſi ſinibria*, from *finis*, the extremity). The extremities of the Fallopian tubes.

FINCKLE. See *Fæniculum*.

FINE LEAVED WATER HEMLOCK. See *Fæniculum aquaticum*.

FINOCHIO. The Italian name of the ſweet azorian fennel.

FIR-TREE. See *Abies*.

FIR, BALSAM OF GILEAD. See *Balſamea*.

FIR, CANADA. See *Balſamum Canadenſe*.

FIR, NORWAY SPUCE. See *Pinus abies*.

FIR, SCOTCH. See *Pinus ſilveſtris*.

FIR, SILVER. See *Pinus picea*.

FIRE, (*Ignis, is*, m.). A very ſimple and active element, the principal agent in nature to balance the power and natural effect of attraction. The moſt uſual acceptation of the word fire comprehends *heat* and *light*. There have been ſeveral theories propoſed reſpecting fire, but no one as yet is generally received. It is therefore, at preſent, only known by its effects, namely, light, heat, rarefaction.

FISH-GLUE. See *Ichthyocolla*.

FISSŪRA MAGNA SYLVĬI. The anterior and middle lobes of the cerebrum on each ſide are parted by a deep narrow ſulcus, which aſcends obliquely backwards from the temporal ala of the os ſphenoides, to near the middle of the os parietale, and this ſulcus is thus called.

FISSURE, (*Fiſſura, æ*, f.). That ſpecies of fracture in which the bone is ſlit but not completely divided.

FISTICK-NUT. See *Piſtachio nut*.

FISTŬLA. (*Fiſtula, æ*, f. *quaſi ſufula*, from *fundo*, to pour out). A term in ſurgery, applied to a long and ſinuous ulcer that has a narrow opening, and ſometimes leads to a larger cavity.

FIVE-LEAVED GRASS. See *Pentaphyllum*.

FIXED AIR. See *Carbonic acid*.

FIXED BODIES. Chemiſts give this name to thoſe ſubſtances which cannot be cauſed to paſs by a ſtrong rarefaction from the liquid ſtate to that of an elaſtic fluid.

FLAG, SWEET. See *Calamus aromaticus*.

FLAG, YELLOW WATER. See *Iris paluſtris*.

FLAMMŬLA, (*Flammula, æ*, f. dim.

of *flamma*, a fire, named from the burning pungency of its taſte). Small water crow-foot, or ſpear-wort. The roots and leaves of this common plant, *Ranunculus flammula*; *foliis ovatis-lanceolatis, petiolatis, caule declinato* of Linnæus, taſte very acrid and hot, and, when taken in a ſmall quantity, produce vomiting, ſpaſms of the ſtomach, and delirium. Applied externally, they veſicate the ſkin. The beſt antidote after clearing the ſtomach, is cold-water acidulated with lemon-juice, and then mucilaginous drinks.

Flammŭla jovis, (*Flammula jovis*, ſo called from the burning pungency of its taſte). Upright virgin's bower. *Clematis recta*; *foliis pinnatis, foliolis ovato lanceolatis integerrimis, caule erecto, floribus pentapetalis tetrapetaliſque* of Linnæus. Claſs, *polyandria*. Order, *polygynia*. More praiſes have been beſtowed upon the virtue which the leaves of this plant are ſaid to poſſeſs, when exhibited internally as an antivenereal, by foreign phyſicians, than its trials in this country can juſtify. The powdered leaves are ſometimes applied externally to ulcers as an eſcharotic.

Flatulent. Windy.

Flax-leaved daphne. See *Thymelæa*.

Flax, purging. See *Linum Catharticum*.

Flax, spurge. See *Thymelea*.

Flea-wort. See *Pſyllium*.

Flexor, (*Flexor, oris*, m.). The name of ſeveral muſcles whoſe office it is to bend parts into which they are inſerted.

Flexor accessorĭus digĭtorum pedis. See *Flexor longus digitorum pedis*.

Flexor brĕvis digĭtorum pedis, perforatus, sublimis. *Perforatus ſeu ſublimis* of Douglas. A flexor muſcle of the toes, ſituated on the foot. It ariſes by a narrow tendinous and fleſhy beginning from the inferior protuberance of the os calcis. It likewiſe derives many of its fleſhy fibres from the adjacent aponeuroſis, and ſoon forms a thick belly, which divides into four portions. Each of theſe portions terminates in a flat tendon, the fibres of which decuſſate, to afford a paſſage to a tendon of the long flexor, and afterwards re-uniting, are inſerted into the ſecond phalanx of each of the four leſſer toes. This muſcle ſerves to bend the ſecond joint of the toes.

Flexor brĕvis mĭnĭmi digĭti pedis. *Parathenar minor* of Winſlow. This little muſcle is ſituated along the inferior ſurface and outer edge of the metatarſal bone of the little toe. It ariſes tendinous from the baſis of that bone, and from the ligaments that connect it to the os cuboides. It ſoon becomes fleſhy, and adheres almoſt the whole length of the metatarſal bone, at the anterior extremity of which it forms a ſmall tendon that is inſerted into the root of the firſt joint of the little toe. Its uſe is to bend the little toe.

Flexor brĕvis pollĭcis manus. *Flexor ſecundi internodii* of Douglas. *Thenar* of Winſlow. This muſcle is divided into two portions by the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis. The outermoſt portion ariſes tendinous from the anterior part of the os trapezoides and internal annular ligament. The ſecond or innermoſt and thickeſt portion, ariſes from the ſame bone, and likewiſe from the os magnum, and os cuneiforme. Both theſe portions are inſerted tendinous into the ſeſamoid bones, and ſecond bone of the thumb. The uſe of this muſcle is to bend the ſecond joint of the thumb.

Flexor brĕvis pollĭcis pedis. A muſcle of the great toe, that bends the firſt joint of the great toe. It is ſituated upon the metatarſal bone of the great toe, ariſes tendinous from the under and anterior part of the os calcis, and from the under part of

the os cuneiforme externum. It ſoon becomes fleſhy and diviſible into two portions, which do not ſeparate from each other till they have reached the anterior extremity of the metatarſal bone of the great toe, where they become tendinous, and then the innermoſt portion unites with the tendon of the abductor, and the outermoſt with that of the adductor pollicis. They adhere to the external os ſeſamoideum, and are finally inſerted into the root of the firſt joint of the great toe. Theſe two portions, by their ſeparation form a groove, in which paſſes the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis.

FLEXOR CARPI RADĬĀLIS. This, which is the *radialus internus* of Albinus and Winſlow, is a long thin muſcle, ſituated obliquely at the inner and anterior part of the fore-arm, between the palmaris longus and the pronator teres. It ariſes tendinous from the inner condyle of the os humeri, and, by many fleſhy fibres, from the adjacent tendinous faſcia. It deſcends along the inferior edge of the pronator teres, and terminates in a long, flat, and thin tendon, which afterwards becomes narrower and thicker, and after paſſing under the internal annular ligament, in a groove diſtinct from the other tendons of the wriſt, it ſpreads wider again, and is inſerted into the fore and upper part of the metacarpal bone that ſuſtains the fore finger. It ſerves to bend the hand, and its oblique direction may likewiſe enable it to aſſiſt in its pronation.

FLEXOR CARPI ULNARIS. *Ulnaris internus* of Winſlow and Albinus. A muſcle, ſituated on the cubit or fore arm, that aſſiſts the former in bending the arm. It ariſes tendinous from the inner condyle of the os humeri, and, by a ſmall fleſhy origin, from the anterior edge of the olecranon. Between theſe two portions, we find the ulnar nerve paſſing to the fore-arm. Some of its fibres ariſe likewiſe from the tendinous faſcia that covers the muſcles of the fore-arm. In its deſcent it ſoon becomes tendinous, but its fleſhy fibres do not entirely diſappear till it has reached the lower extremity of the ulna, where its tendon ſpreads a little, and, after ſending off a few fibres to the external and internal and annular ligaments, is inſerted into the os piſiforme.

FLEXOR LONGUS DIGĬTORUM PEDIS, PROFUNDUS, PERFŎRANS. A flexor muſcle of the toes, ſituated along the poſterior part and inner ſide of the leg. It ariſes fleſhy from the back part of the tibia, and after running down to the internal ancle, its tendon paſſes under a kind of annular ligament, and then through a ſinuoſity at the inſide of the os calcis. Soon after this it receives a ſmall tendon from the flexor longus pollicis pedis, and about the middle of the foot it divides into four tendons, which paſs through the ſlits of the flexor brevis digitorum pedis, and are inſerted into the upper part of the laſt bone of all the leſſer toes. About the middle of the foot this muſcle unites with a fleſhy portion, which, from the name of its firſt deſcriber, has been uſually called *maſſa carnea Jacobi Sylvii*: it is alſo termed *Flexor acceſſorius digitorum pedis*. This appendage ariſes by a thin fleſhy origin, from moſt part of the ſinuoſity of the os calcis, and likewiſe by a thin tendinous beginning from the anterior part of the external tubercle of that bone; it ſoon becomes all fleſhy, and unites to the long flexor juſt before it divides into its four tendons. The uſe of this muſcle is to bind the laſt joint of the toes.

FLEXOR LONGUS POLLĬCIS MANUS. This muſcle, which is ſo named by Winſlow and Albinus, is the *flexor tertii internodii* of Douglas. It is placed at the ſide of the laſt deſcribed muſcle, and is covered by the

extenſores carpi radiales. It ariſes fleſhy from the anterior ſurface of the radius immediately below the inſertion of the biceps, and is continued down along the oblique ridge, which ſerves for the inſertion of the ſupinator brevis, as far as the pronator quadratus. Some of its fibres ſpring likewiſe from the neighbouring edge of the interoſſeous ligament. Its tendon paſſes under the internal annular ligament of the wriſt, and after running along the inner ſurface of the firſt bone of the thumb, between the two portions of the flexor brevis pollicis, goes to be inſerted into the laſt joint of the thumb, being bound down in its way by the ligamentous expanſion that is ſpread over the ſecond bone. In ſome ſubjects we find a tendinous portion ariſing from the inner condyle of the os humeri, and forming a fleſhy ſlip that commonly terminates near the upper part of the origin of this muſcle from the radius. The uſe of this muſcle is to bend the laſt joint of the thumb.

FLEXOR LONGUS POLLĬCIS PEDIS. This muſcle is ſituated along the poſterior part of the leg. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy a little below the head of the fibula, and its fibres continue to adhere to that bone almoſt to its extremity. A little above the heel it terminates in a round tendon, which after paſſing in a groove formed at the poſterior edge of the aſtragalus, and internal and lateral part of the os calcis, in which it is ſecured by an annular ligament, goes to be inſerted into the laſt bone of the great toe, which it ſerves to bend.

FLEXOR OSSIS METACARPI POLLĬCIS. *Opponens pollicis. Flexor primi internodii* of Douglas. This muſcle is ſituated under the abductor brevis pollicis, which it reſembles in its ſhape. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the os ſcaphoides, and from the anterior and inner part of the internal annular ligament. It is inſerted tendinous and fleſhy into the under and anterior part of the firſt bone of the thumb. It ſerves to turn the firſt bone of the thumb upon its axis, and at the ſame time to bring it inwards oppſite to the other fingers.

FLEXOR PARVUS MĬNĬMI DIGĬTI MĀNUS. *Abductor minimi digiti, Hypothenar Riolani* of Douglas. The ſituation of this muſcle is along the inner ſurface of the metacarpal bone of the little finger. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the hook-like proceſs of the unciform bone, and likewiſe from the anterior ſurface of the adjacent part of the annular ligament. It terminates in a flat tendon, which is connected with that of the abductor minimi digiti, and inſerted into the inner and anterior part of the upper end of the firſt bone of the little finger. It ſerves to bend the little finger, and likewiſe to aſſiſt the abductor.

FLEXOR PROFUNDUS PERFŎRANS. *Profundus* of Albinus. *Perforans* of Douglas. It is a muſcle ſituated on the fore-arm, immediately under the perforatus, which it greatly reſembles in its ſhape. It ariſes fleſhy from the external ſide, and upper part of the ulna for ſome way downwards, and from a large portion of the interoſſeous ligament. It ſplits into four tendons a little before it paſſes under the annular ligament of the wriſt, and theſe paſs through the ſlits in the tendons of the flexor ſublimis, to be inſerted into the fore and upper part of the third or laſt bone of all the four fingers, which joint they bend.

FLEXOR SUBLĪMIS PERFŎRĀTUS. This muſcle, which is the *perforatus* of Cowper, Douglas, and Winſlow, is by Albinus and others named *ſublimis*. It has gotten the name of perforatus from its tendons being perforated by thoſe of another flexor muſcle of the finger, called the *perforans*. They who give it the appellation of

ſublimis, conſider its ſituation with reſpect to the latter, and which, inſtead of *perforans*, the name *profundus*. It is a long muſcle, ſituated moſt commonly at the anterior and inner part of the fore-arm, between the palmaris longus and the flexor carpi ulnaris; but, in ſome ſubjects, we find it placed under the former of theſe muſcles, between the flexor carpi ulnaris and the flexor carpi radialis. It ariſes, tendinous and fleſhy, from the inner condyle of the os humeri, from the inner edge of the coronoid proceſs of the ulna, and from the upper and fore part of the radius, down to near the inſertion of the pronator teres. A little below the middle of the fore-arm its fleſhy belly divides into four portions, which degenerate into as many round tendons, that paſs all together under the internal annular ligament of the wriſt, after which they ſeparate from each other, become thinner and flatter, and running along the palm of the hand, under the aponeuroſis palmaris, are inſerted into the upper part of the ſecond bone of each finger. Previous to this inſertion, however, the fibres of each tendon decuſſate near the extremity of the firſt bone, ſo as to afford a paſſage to a tendon of the perforans. Of theſe four tendons, that of the middle-finger is the largeſt, that of the fore-finger the next in ſize, and that of the little-finger the ſmalleſt. The uſe of this muſcle is to bend the ſecond joint of the fingers.

FLEXOR TERTĬI INTERNODĬI. See *Flexor longus pollicis manus*.

FLORES BENZŎES. See *Benzoic acid*.

FLORES SULPHŬRIS. See *Sulphur*.

FLORES SULPHŬRIS LOTI. When ſublimed ſulphur is boiled and waſhed in water, it forms the *flores ſulphuris loti* of the pharmacopœias. Analogous to this preparation is the *ſulphur præcipitatum*; they poſſeſs eccoprotic, diaphoretic, and antipſorical virtues, and are adminiſtered in obſtipation where there are piles, colica pictonum, worm caſes, to diminiſh ſalivations, &c.

FLOWERS. A term formerly employed by chemiſts to the fine parts which are ſublimated from certain bodies, as the flowers of benzamin, ſulphur, zinc, &c.

FLOWER-DE-LUCE. See *Iris noſtras*.

FLOWERS OF BENJAMIN. See *Benzoic acid*.

FLUATS, (*Fluas, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the fluoric acid, combined with different baſis: thus, *fluat of alumin*, *fluat of ammoniac*, &c.

FLUCTUATION. A term often uſed by ſurgeons to expreſs the undulation of a fluid; thus when pus is formed in an abſceſs, or when water accumulates in the abdomen, if the abſceſs or abdomen be lightly preſſed with the fingers, the motion of fluctuation may be diſtinctly felt.

FLUELLIN. See *Elatine*.

FLUID. A fluid is that ſubſtance, the conſtituent principles of which ſo little attract each other, that, when poured out, it drops *guttatim*, and adapts itſelf, in every reſpect, to the form of the veſſel containing it.

FLUIDS OF THE BODY. The drying of any part of the human body demonſtrates, that by far the greater part conſiſts of fluid. The quantity of fluid in a man of one hundred and ſixty pounds weight is eſtimated at one hundred and thirty-five pounds. The fluids of the human body are divided into, 1. *Crude*, or thoſe which have not yet entirely put on the animal nature, as the chyme and chyle; 2. *Sanguineous*, to this is referred the blood, or the cruor of the blood; 3. *Lymphatis*, which are thoſe of the lymphatic veſſels, and the nutritious jelly; 4. *Secreted*, to this head are referred all thoſe ſeparated from the blood, which are very numerous;

Excrementitious, which are eliminated from the body, as the alvine fæces, urine, cutaneous, and pulmonary perſpirable matter.

The ſecreted humours are divided into, 1. *Lacteal*, which are white, as the milk, juice of the proſtate and thymus glands; 2. *Aqueous*, as the aqueous humour of the eye; 3. *Mucous*, as the mucous of the noſtrils and primæ viæ; 4. *Albuminous*, as the ſerum of the blood; 5. *Oleous*, as the oil of the adipoſe membrane: 6. *Bilious*, as the bile and wax of the ears.

The fluids of the human body are alſo divided from their motion into, 1. *Circulating*, which continually circulate in the veſſels; 2. *Commorant*, which circulate with a ſlow motion, as the oil of the adipoſe membrane and male ſemen: 3. *Stagnant*, which remain for a certain time in any receptacle, as cyſtic bile, urine, and the alvine fæces.

Fluor albus. See *Leucorrhœa*.

Fluor spar. Vitreous ſpar. Sparry fluor. Derbyſhire ſpar. A ſpecies of ſalt which abounds in nature, formed by the combination of the ſparry acid with lime. It is called ſpar, becauſe it has the ſparry form and fracture: fluor, becauſe is melts very readily; and vitreous, becauſe it has the appearance of glaſs, and may be fuſed into glaſs of no contemptible appearance.

Flux. This word is moſtly employed for *dyſenteria ſanguinea*.

Fluxion. A term moſtly applied by chemiſts to ſignify the change of metals or other bodies from the ſolid into the fluid ſtate by the application of heat. See *Fuſion*.

Fly, spanish. See *Cantharides*.

Fœnĭcŭlum, (*Fœniculum, i*, n. *quaſi fœnum oculorum*, the hay or herb good for the ſight; ſo called becauſe it is thought good for the eyes). Fennel.

Fœnĭcŭlum aquatĭcum. Water fennel. Fine-leaved water hemlock. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Phellandrium aquaticum*; *foliorum ramificationibus divaricatis*, of Linnæus. It poſſeſſes vertiginous and poiſonous qualities, which are beſt counteracted by acids, after clearing the primæ viæ. The ſeeds are recommended by ſome, in conjunction with peruvian bark, in the cure of pulmonary phthiſis.

Fœnĭcŭlum dulce. Common fennel. *Anethum fœniculum fructibus ovatis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*. The ſeeds and roots of this indiginous plant are directed by the colleges of London and Edinburgh. The ſeeds have an aromatic ſmell, and a warm ſweetiſh taſte, and contain a large proportion of eſſential oil. They are ſtomachic and carminative. The root has a ſweet taſte, but very little aromatic warmth, and is ſaid to be pectoral and diuretic.

Fœnĭcŭlum porcīnum. See *Peucedanum*.

Fœnĭcŭlum vulgāre. Common fennel or fenckle. A variety of the *Anethum fœniculum*. See *Fœniculum dulce*.

Fœnum græcum, (*Fœnum, i*, hay, and *græcus*, belonging to Greece, becauſe in Greece it grew in the meadows like hay). Fenugreek. *Trigonella fœnum græcum leguminibus ſeſſilibus ſtrictis erectiuſculis ſubfalcatis acuminatis, caule erecto*, of Linnæus. Claſs *Diadelphia*. Order *Decandria*. A native of Montpelier. The ſeeds are brought to us from the ſouthern parts of France and Germany; they have a ſtrong diſagreeable ſmell, and an unctuous farinaceous taſte, accompanied with a ſlight bitterneſs. They are eſteemed as aſſiſting the formation of pus in inflammatory tumours; and the meal, with that intention, is made into a poultice with milk.

Fœnum camelōrum. See *Juncus odoratus*.

Fœtus, (*Fœtus, us*, m.). The child encloſed in the uterus of its mo-

ther is called a fœtus from the fifth month after pregnancy until the time of its birth. The internal parts peculiar to the fœtus are the thymus gland, canalis venoſus, canalis arterioſus, foramen ovale, and the membrana pupillaris. Beſides theſe peculiarities, there are other circumſtances in which the fœtus differs from the adult. The lungs are black and collapſed, and ſink in water; the liver is very large; all the glands, eſpecially the thymus and ſuprarenal, and the vermiform proceſs of the cæcum, are alſo conſiderably larger in proportion. The teeth of the fœtus are hid within their ſockets; the great inteſtines contain a ſubſtance called meconium; the membrana tympani is covered with a kind of mucous membrane, and the bones in many places are cartilaginous.

Folium orientale. See *Senna.*

Follicle, (*Follicŭlus, i,* m. dim. of *follis,* a bag). The hollowed ſpecies of gland which conſiſts of ſimply a hollow vaſcular membrane and an excretory duct.

Follicŭlose gland. One of the moſt ſimple ſpecies of gland, conſiſting merely of a hollow vaſcular membrane or follicle and an excretory duct; ſuch are the muciparous glands, the ſebaceous, &c.

Fomentation, (*Fomentatio, ōnis,* f.). A ſort of partial bathing, by applying hot flannels to any part dipped in medicated decoctions, whereby ſteams are communicated to the diſeaſed parts, their veſſels are relaxed, and their morbid action ſometimes removed.

Fomites. A term moſtly applied as ſynonimous with contagion.

Fons pulsatilis. See *Fontanella.*

Fontanella, (*Fontanella, æ,* dim. of *fons,* a fountain). *Fons pulſatilis.* The parietal bones and the frontal bones do not coaleſce until the third year, ſo that before this period there is an obvious interſtice, commonly called *mould,* and ſcientifically the *fontanel,* or *fons pulſatilis.* There is alſo a leſſer ſpace, occaſionally, between the occipital and parietal bones, termed the *poſterior fontanel.* Theſe ſpaces between the bones are filled up by the dura mater and the external integuments, ſo that, during birth, the ſize of the head may be leſſened; for at that time the bones of the head, upon the ſuperior part, are not only preſſed nearer to each other, but they frequently lap over one another, in order to diminiſh the ſize during the paſſage of the head through the pelvis.

Fontanella anterĭor. See *Fontanella.*

Fontanella poſterĭor. See *Fontanella.*

Fontĭcŭlus, (*Fonticulus, i,* m. dim. of *fons,* an iſſue). An artificial ulcer formed in any part, and kept diſcharging by introducing daily a pea, covered with any digeſtive ointment.

Forāmen, (*Foramen, ĭnis,* n. from *foro,* to pierce). A little opening.

Foramen cæcum. A ſingle opening in the baſis of the cranium between the ethmoid and the frontal bone, that gives exit to a ſmall vein.

Forāmen ovale. The opening between the two auricles of the heart of the fœtus. See alſo *Innominatum os.*

Foramĭna lacĕra in basi cranii. A pair of foramina in the baſis of the cranium, through which the internal jugular veins and the eighth pair of acceſſory nerves paſs.

Forceps. (*Forceps, ĭpis,* f. *raro, ſi unquam,* m. *quaſi ferriceps,* as being the iron with which we ſeize any thing hot, from *ferrum,* iron, and *capio,* to take). A ſurgical inſtrument with which extraneous bodies or other ſubſtances are extracted. Alſo an inſtru-

ment occaſionally by men-midwives to bring the head of the fœtus through the pelvis.

Foreskin. See *Præpuce.*

Formiats, (*Formias, tis*, m.). Salts produced by the union of the formic acid with different baſes: thus, *formiat of alumin, formiat of ammoniac*, &c.

Formĭca, (*Formica, æ.* f. *quod ferat micas*, becauſe of his diligence in collecting ſmall particles of proviſion together). The ant or piſmire. This induſtrious little inſect, *Formica rufa* of Linnæus, contains an acid juice and a groſs oil, which were ſuppoſed to poſſeſs aphrodiſiac virtues. The cryſalides of this animal are ſaid to be diuretic and carminative, and by ſome recommended in the cure of dropſy. See *Formic acid.*

Formic acid. *Acidum formĭcum.* The acid of ants was known to Tragus, Bauhin, Fiſher, Etmuller, Hoffman, and many others. It is obtained chiefly from the red ant, *Formica rufa* of Linnæus, by diſtilling them in a retort, and by waſhing them in boiling water. When rectified, and rather concentrated, it has a penetrating ſmell, and is corroſive; and its taſte is ſo agreeable when greatly diluted with water, that it has been propoſed to be uſed inſtead of vinegar.

Formŭla, (*Formula, æ.* f. dim. of *forma*, a form). A little form of preſcription, ſuch as phyſicians direct in extemporaneous practice, in diſtinction from the greater forms in pharmacopœias, &c.

Fornix, (*Fornix, ĭcis*, f. an arch or vault. A part of the corpus calloſum in the brain is ſo called, becauſe, if viewed in a particular direction, it has ſome reſemblance to the arch of an ancient vault). The medullary body, compoſed of two anterior and two poſterior crura, ſituated at the bottom and inſide of the lateral ventricle, over the third ventricle, and below the ſeptum lucidum.

Fossa, (*Foſſa, æ*, f. from *fodio*, to dig). *Fovea.* A little depreſſion or ſinus.

Fossa ovālis. The depreſſion in the right auricle of the human heart, which in the fœtus opened into the other auricle, forming the foramen ovale.

Fossil, (*Foſſilis*, from *fodio*, to dig). Any thing dug out of the earth.

Fovĕa, (*Fovea, æ*, f. from *fodio*, to dig). A little depreſſion.

Fox-glove. See *Digitalis.*

Fox-glove eastern. The ſeeds of this plant, *Seſamum orientale* of Linnæus, are in much eſteem in South Carolina, where they are called *oily grain*, they are made into ſoups and puddings after the manner of rice. Toaſted over the fire, they are mixed with other ingredients, and ſtewed into a delicious food. The freſh ſeed affords a conſiderable quantity of a warm pungent oil, otherwiſe not unpalatable. In a year or two the pungency leaves it, when the oil is uſed for ſallad, &c. The ſeed of the *Seſamum indicum* are uſed in the ſame manner.

Fracture, (*Fractura, æ*, f. from *frango*, to break). A fracture is a ſolution of a bone into two or more fragments. A *ſimple* fracture is when the bone only is divided. A *compound* fracture is a diviſion of the bone, with a laceration of the integuments, the bone moſtly protruding. A fracture is alſo termed tranſverſe, oblique, &c. according to its direction.

Frænŭlum, (*Frænulum, i*, n. dim. of *frænum*, a bridle). The cutaneous fold, under the apex of the tongue, that connects the tongue to the infralingual cavity. It is ſometimes, in infancy, ſo ſhort as to prevent the child from ſucking, when it is neceſſary to cut it, in order to give

more room for the motion of the tongue.

Frænum, (*Frænum, i*, n.). The membranous fold which connects the præpuce to the inferior part of the glans penis.

Fraga, (*Fraga, æ*, f. from *fragro*, to ſmell ſweet). The ſtrawberry. See *Fragaria*.

Fragaria, (*Fragaria, æ*, f. from *fragno*, to ſmell ſweet). *Fraga*. The ſtrawberry. The mature fruit of the *Fragaria veſca, fragellis reptantibus* of Linnæus, was formerly recommended in gouty and calculous affections, in conſequence, it would appear, of its efficacy in removing tartar from the teeth, which it does very effectually. See *Fructus horæi*.

Fragaria veſca. The ſyſtematic name of the ſtrawberry. See *Fragaria*.

Frambœſia, (*Frambœſia, æ*, f. from *framboiſe*, French for a raſpberry). The yaws. A genus of diſeaſe arranged by Cullen in the claſs *cachexiæ*, and order *impetigines*. It is ſomewhat ſimilar in its nature to the lues venerea, and is endemial to the Antilla iſlands. It appears with excreſcences, like mulberries, growing out of the ſkin in various parts of the body, which diſcharge an ichorous fluid.

Frankincense. See *Thus*.

Frangula, (*Frangula, æ*, f. from *frango*, to break, ſo called becauſe of the brittleneſs of its branches). Black alder. This officinal tree is the *Rhamnus frangula*; *inermis floribus monogynis hermaphroditis, foliis integerrimis* of Linnæus. The berries and bark are uſed medicinally as ſtrong purgatives. The former are often ſubſtituted for thoſe of the buckthorn; the latter, which is the internal bark, and of a yellow colour, is moſtly employed by the common people in dropſical and other diſorders.

Fraxinella, (*Fraxinella, æ*, f. from *fraximis*, the aſh, ſo called becauſe its leaves reſemble thoſe of the aſh). See *Dictamnus albus*.

Fraxinella, white. *Dictamnus albus*.

Fraxinus, (*Fraxinus, i*, f. *a fragore*, from the noiſe its ſeeds make when ſhaken by the wind; or from φραξις, a hedge, becauſe of its uſe in forming hedges). The aſh. The bark of this tree, *Fraxinus excelſior*; *foliis ſerratis floribus apetalis* of Linnæus, when freſh has a moderately ſtrong bitteriſh taſte. It poſſeſſes reſolvent and diuretic qualities, and has been ſucceſsfully exhibited in the cure of intermittents. The ſeeds are occaſionally exhibited medicinally as diuretics. In warm climates, a ſpecies of manna exudes from this ſpecies of fraxinus.

Fraxinus excelsior. The ſyſtematic name of the aſh tree. See *Fraxinus*.

Fraxinus ornus. The ſyſtematic name of the tree from which manna flows. See *Manna*.

Fraxinus rotundifolia. The ſyſtematic name of a tree which affords manna. See *Manna*.

Frons, (*Frons, tis*, f. & m.). The forehead. The part between the eyebrows and the hairy ſcalp.

Frontal bone. *Os frontis*. The cockleſhell-like bone which forms the forehead, and contains the two anterior lobes of the brain. Its principal proceſſes are the two ſuperciliary arches, and two external and internal orbital apophyſes. Its cavities are two orbital cavities, a notch for the trochlea of the ſuperior oblique muſcle, two large pituitary ſinuſſes, one on each ſide above the root of the noſe, called the frontal ſinuſſes; the ethmoid notch, and ſuperciliary foramen. In the fœtus it is compoſed of two bones. The union of the frontal bone with the parietal bones forms the coronal ſuture.

Frontalis. See *Occipito-frontalis*.

FRONTAL SINUS. See *Frontal bone.*

FRONTALIS VERUS. See *Corrugator ſupercilii.*

FRUCTUS HORÆI. See *Fruits, ſummer.*

FRUITS, SUMMER. *Fructus horæi.* Under this term phyſicians comprehend ſtrawberries, cherries, currants, mulberries, raſberries, and the like. They poſſeſs a ſweet ſub-acid taſte, and are exhibited as dietetic auxilliaries, as refrigerants, antiſeptics, attenuants, and aperients. Formerly they were exhibited medicinally in the cure of putrid affections, and to promote the alvine and urinary excretions. Conſidering them as an article of diet, they afford little nouriſhment, and are liable to produce flatulencies. To perſons of a bilious conſtitution and rigid fibres, and where the habit is diſpoſed naturally, or from extrinſic cauſes, to an inflammatory or putreſcent ſtate, their moderate, and even plentiful uſe, is ſalubrious; by thoſe of a cold inactive diſpoſition, where the veſſels are lax, the circulation languid, and the digeſtion weak, they ſhould be uſed very ſparingly. The juices extracted from theſe fruits by expreſſion, contain their active qualities freed from their groſſer indigeſtible matter. On ſtanding, the juice ferments and changes to a vinous or acetous ſtate. By the proper addition of ſugar, and by boiling, their fermentive power is ſuppreſſed, and their medicinal qualities preſerved. The juices of theſe fruits, when purified from their feculencies by ſettling and ſtraining, may be made into ſyrups, with a due proportion of ſugar in the uſual way.

FRUMENTACEOUS. A term applied to all ſuch plants as have a conformity with wheat, either with reſpect to their fruit, leaves, or ears.

FUCUS HELMINTOCHORTON. See *Corrallina corſicana.*

FUCUS VESICŬLŌSUS. The ſyſtematic name of the ſea oak. See *Quercus marina.*

FULĪGO, (*Fuligo, ginis*, f. *quaſi fumiligo*, from *fumus*, ſmoke). Soot. Wood ſoot, *fuligo ligni*, or the condenſed ſmoak from burning wood, has a pungent, bitter, and nauſeous taſte, and is reſolved by chemical analyſis into a volatile alkaline ſalt, an empyreumatic oil, a fixed alkali, and an inſipid earth. The tincture prepared from this ſubſtance, *tinctura fuliginis*, is recommended as a powerful antiſpaſmodic in hyſterical affections.

FULMINATION. A quick and lively exploſion of bodies, ſuch as takes place on fulminating gold, fulminating powder, and in the combuſtion of inflammable gaz and vital air.

FUMĀRĬA, (*Fumaria, æ*, f. from *fumus*, ſmoke, from its juice when dropped into the eye, producing the ſame ſenſations as ſmoke). Common fumitory. The leaves of this indiginous plant, *Fumaria officinalis pericarpiis monoſpermis racemoſis, caule diffuſo* of Linnæus, Claſs, *Diadelphia*, Order *Decandria*, are directed for medicinal uſe by the Edinburgh college; they are extremely ſucculent, and have no remarkable ſmell, but a bitter, ſomewhat ſaline taſte. The infuſion of the dried leaves, or the expreſſed juice of the freſh plant, is eſteemed for its property of clearing the ſkin of many diſorders of the leprous kind.

FUMARĬA BULBŌSA. See *Ariſtolochia fabacea.*

FUMARĬA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the fumitory. See *Fumaria.*

FUMIGATION. The application of fumes, either of metallic or other preparations to particular parts of the body, as thoſe of the mercurial kind to venereal ſores, &c.

FUMITORY. See *Fumaria.*

FUNCTION, (*Functio, onis*, f.). Action. The power or faculty by

which any action of an animated body is performed. The functions of our body are divided into *vital*, by which life is immediately supported, as the action of the heart and arteries, respiration and animal heat; *animal*, which are effected through the operation of the mind, as the external and internal senses, the voluntary action of the muscles, voice, watching, and sleep; *natural*, by which the body is preserved, as hunger, thirst, mastication, deglutition, digestion, chylification, sanguification, nutrition of the body, and the various secretions and excretions; and, lastly, into *sexual functions*, such as menstruation, conception, formation of the fœtus, and parturition.

Fungus, (*Fungus, i*, m.). Proud flesh. A term in surgery to express any luxuriant formation of flesh.

Fungus igniarius. See *Agaricus*.

Fungus laricis. See *Agaricus albus*.

Fungus melitensis. This is improperly called a fungus, it being the *Cinomorium coccineum* of Linnæus. A drachm of the powder is given for a dose in dysenteries and hæmorrhagies, and with remarkable success.

Fungus rosaceus. See *Bedaguar*.

Fungus salicis. The willow fungus. The species of fungus ordered in some pharmacopœias by this name is the *Boletus suavolens*; *acaulis superne lævis, salicibus*, of Linnæus, and the *Boletus albus* of Hudson. When fresh, it has a suburinous smell, and at first an acid taste, followed by a bitter. It is seldom used at present, but was formerly given in phthisical complaints.

Fungus sambucinus. See *Auricula Judæ*.

Fungus vinosus. The dark cobweb-like fungus, which vegetates in dry cellars, where wine, ale, and the like, are kept.

Funiculus umbilicalis, (*Funiculus, i*, m. dim. of *funis*, a cord). See *Umbilical cord*.

Furfur, (*Furfur, ŭris*, m.). Bran. A disease of the skin, in which the cuticle keeps falling off in small scales like bran.

Furfuraceous, (*Furfuraceus*, from *furfur*, bran). A term applied to the sediment deposited in the urine of persons afflicted with fever, of a reddish or whitish matter, which generally appears within an hour or two after the urine is passed, and only falls in part to the bottom, the urine remaining turbid.

Furnaces, (*Furnus, i*, m.). The furnaces employed in chemical operations are of three kinds: 1. *The evaporatory furnace*, which has received its name from its use; it is employed to reduce substances into vapour by means of heat, in order to separate the more fixed principles from those which are more ponderous, and were mixed, suspended, compounded, or dissolved in the fluid. 2. *The reverberatory furnace*, which name it has received from its construction, being appropriated to distillation. 3. *The forge furnace*, in which the current of air is determined by bellows.

Furor uterinus, (*Furor, ōris*, m.). See *Nymphomania*.

Furuncle, (*Furuncŭlis, i*, m. from *furo*, to rage; so named from its heat and inflammation before it suppurates). A boil. An inflammation of a subcutaneous gland, known by an inflammatory tumour that does not exceed the size of a pigeon's egg.

Fusion. A chemical process, by which bodies are made to pass from the solid to the fluid state, in consequence of the application of heat. The chief objects susceptible of this operation are salts, sulphur, and metals. Salts are liable to two kinds of fusion: the one, which is peculiar to saline matters, is owing to water, and is called *aqueous fusion*; the other, which arises from the application of fire, is known by the name of *igneous fusion*.

G.

GABĬANUM OLĔUM. See *Petroleum rubrum.*

GALACTOPHOROUS DUCTS, (*Ductus galactophorus*, from γαλα, milk, and φερω, to carry, because they bring the milk to the nipple). The excretory ducts of the glands of the breasts of women, which terminate in the papilla or nipple.

GALANGA, (*Galanga, æ*, f. perhaps its Indian name). Galangal. The roots of this plant are used medicinally; two kinds are mentioned in the pharmacopœias, which differ only in size, both being the produce of one plant, the *Marcuta galanga*; *caulino simplici foliis lanceolatis subsessilibus*, of Linnæus. The dried root is brought from China, in pieces from an inch to two in length, scarce half so thick, branched, full of knots and joints, with several circular rings, of a reddish brown colour on the outside, and browniſh within. It has an aromatic smell, not very grateful, and an unpleasant, bitterish, hot, biting taste. It was formerly much used as a warm stomachic bitter, and generally ordered in bitter infusions. It is now, however, seldom employed.

GALANGA MAJOR. See *Galanga.*

GALANGA MINOR. See *Galanga.*

GALANGAL. See *Galanga.*

GALANGAL, ENGLISH. See *Cyperus.*

GALBĂNUM, (*Galbanum, i*, n. Heb.). A gummi-resinous juice, obtained partly by its spontaneous exudation from the joints of the stem of the *Bubon galbanum*; *foliis rhombeis dentatis striatis glabris, umbellis paucis*, of Linnæus. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*; but more generally, and in greater abundance, by making an incision in the stalk, a few inches above the root, from which it immediately issues, and soon becomes sufficiently concrete to be gathered. It is imported into England from Turkey and the East Indies, in large, softish, ductile, pale-coloured masses, which, by age, acquire a browniſh yellow appearance: these are intermixed with distinct whitish tears, that are the most pure part of the mass. Galbanum holds a middle rank between assafœtida and ammoniacum, but its fœtidness is very inconsiderable, especially when compared with the former; it is therefore accounted less antispasmodic, nor are its expectorant qualities equal to those of the latter; it, however, is esteemed more efficacious than either in hysterical disorders. Externally it is often applied by surgeons to expedite the suppuration of inflammatory and indolent tumours, and by physicians as a warm stimulating plaster. It is an ingredient in the *pilulæ è gummi*, the *emplastrum lithargyri cum gummi* of the London Pharmacopœia, and in the *emplastrum ad clavos pedum* of the Edinburgh.

GALDA GUMMI. This is a gum-resin mentioned by old writers, but totally forgot in the present day. Externally, it is of a brown colour, but white within, of a hard lamellated structure, and smells and tastes somewhat like elemi. When burnt, it gives out an agreeable odour. It was formerly used as a warm, stimulating medicine, and applied in plasters as a strengthener.

GALEGA, (*Galega, æ*, f. γαλεγη, from γαλα, so named because it increases the milk of animals who eat

it, particularly of goats). Goats rue. From the little ſmell and taſte of this plant, *Galega officinalis leguminibus ſtrictis, erectis; foleolis lancelatis, ſtriatis, nudis*, of Linnæus, it may be ſuppoſed to poſſeſs little virtues. In Italy the leaves are eaten amongſt ſalads.

GALĔGA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the goats rue. See *Galega*.

GALĒNA, (*Galena, æ*, f. from γαλειν, to ſhine). The name of an ore formed by the combination of lead with ſulphur.

GALEOPSIS, (*Galeopſis, is*, f. καλεωψις, from καλος, good, and οψις, viſion, ſo called, becauſe it was thought good for the ſight; or from γαλη, a cat, and ὀψις, aſpect; the flowers gaping like the open mouth of an animal). See *Lamium album*.

GALERICŬLUM APONEUROTĬCUM. The tendinous expanſion which lies over the pericranium.

GALĬUM, (*Galium, i*, n. γαλιον, from γαλα, milk, ſome ſpecies having the property of coagulating milk). The herb cheeſe rennet.

GALĬUM ALBUM. The greater ladies bedſtraw. This herb *Galium mollugo; foliis octonis, ovato-linearibus, ſubſerratis, palentiſſimis, mucronatis; caule flaccido, ramis patentibus*, of Linnæus, with its flowers, are uſed medicinally. Five ounces, or more, of the expreſſed juice, taken every evening upon an empty ſtomach, is ſaid to cure epilepſy.

GALĬUM APERĪNE. The ſyſtematic name of the gooſe graſs. See *Aperine*.

GALĬUM LUTĔUM. The tops of this ſpecies, *Galium verum; foliis octonis, linearibus, ſulcatis; ramis floriferis, brevibus*, of Linnæus, were long uſed as an efficacious medicine in the cure of epilepſy, but, in the practice of the preſent day they are abandoned. Indeed from the ſenſible qualities of the plant little can be expected.

GALĬUM MULLŪGO. The ſyſtematic name of the greater ladies bedſtraw. See *Galium album*.

GALĬUM VERUM. The ſyſtematic name of the true ladies bedſtraw. See *Galeum luteum*.

GALL. The bitter fluid ſecreted by the liver. See *Bile*.

GALLA, (*Galla, æ*, f. from *Gallus*, the river in Bithynia, from whoſe banks they were brought). The gall. See *Quercus*.

GALLÆ TURCĬCÆ. See *Quercus*.

GALL-BLADDER. *Veſicula fellis*. An oblong membranous receptacle, ſituated under the liver, to which it is attached in the right hypochondrium. It is compoſed of three membranes: a common, fibrous, and villous. Its uſe is to retain the gall, which regurgitates from the hepatic duct, there to become thicker, more acrid, and bitter, and to ſend it through the cyſtic duct, which proceeds from its neck into the common ductus communis choledochus, to be ſent on to the duodenum.

GALL-STONES. Biliary concretions. Hard concrete bodies, in which there are great varieties, formed in the gall-bladder of animal bodies.

GAMANDRA. See *Gambogia*.

GAMBIENSE GUMMI. See *Kino*.

GAMBOGE. See *Gambogia*.

GAMBOGĬA, (*Gambogia, æ*. f. from *Cambogia*, where it is procured). *Gambogium. Gummi gutta. Gamandra*. Gamboge. The tree from which this gummi-reſinous juice is obtained conſtitutes, according to Kœnig, a phyſician who reſided many years at Tranquebar, a new genus, which is called *Stalagmitis*. Gamboge is brought from the Eaſt Indies, and is generally employed as a draſtic purgative medicine in conſtipation of the bowels, hydropical affections, and againſt the tænia or tape-worm.

GAMBOGĬUM. See *Gambogia*.

GANGLĬON, (*Ganglion, i*, n. γαγγλιον, a knot). In anatomy it is ap-

plied to a knot in the courſe of a nerve. In ſurgery it is an encyſted tumour, formed in the ſheath of a tendon, and containing a fluid like the the white of an egg. It moſt frequently occurs on the back of the hand or foot.

GANGRENE, (*Gangræna, æ*, f. γαγγραινα, from γαινω, to feed upon). A mortification of any part of the body, before endowed with vitality. It is known by the inſenſibility, coldneſs, lividneſs, and flaccidity of the part, and by the fœtor it exhales.

GARCINĬA MANGOSTĀNA. The ſyſtematic name of the mangoſteen tree. See *Mangoſteen.*

GARGLE, (*Gargariſmum, i*, n. *vel gargariſma, atis*, n.). A fluid medicine to waſh the throat.

GARLIC. See *Allium.*

GAROU BARK. See *Thymalæa.*

GAS. See *Gaz.*

GASTRIC ARTERY. *Arteria gaſtrica.* The right, or greater gaſtric artery, is a branch of the hepatic; the left, or leſſer, a branch of the ſplenic.

GASTRIC JUICE. *Succus gaſtricus.* A fluid ſeparated by the capillary exhaling arteries of the ſtomach, which open upon its internal tunic. The œſophagus alſo affords a ſmall quantity, eſpecially in the inferior part. Modern philoſophers have paid great attention to this fluid, and from their ſeveral experiments it is known to poſſeſs the following properties. It is the principal agent of digeſtion, and changes the aliments into a kind of uniform ſoft paſte: it acts on the ſtomach after the death of the animal. Its effects ſhow that it is a ſolvent, but of that peculiar nature that it diſſolves animal and vegetable ſubſtances uniformly, and without exhibiting a ſtronger affinity for the one than for the other. It is far from being of the nature of a ferment, as many ſuppoſe, for it is one of the moſt powerful antiſeptics with which we are acquainted; and, from the experiments of *Spallanzani, Scopoli, Carminati*, and others, its nature appears to be eſſentially different in the ſeveral claſſes of animals, as they have proved by analyſis. The gaſtric juice of the human ſubject, when healthy, is inodorous, of a ſaltiſh taſte, and limpid, like water, unleſs it be a little tinged with the yellow colour of ſome bile, that has regurgitared into the ſtomach. In quantity it is very conſiderable, as muſt be evident from the extent of the ſurface of the ſtomach, and its continual ſecretion; but it is the moſt copious when ſolicited by the ſtimulus of food. Beſides the properties of this fluid before mentioned, it has others which have induced phyſicians and ſurgeons to exhibit it medicinally. It cures dyſpepſia and intermittent fever. Applied externally, in form of fomentation or poultice, it cures putrid and ſcrofulous ulcers in a wonderful manner; and it is to be regretted that its utility is not more generally known.

GASTRĪTIS, (*Gaſtritis, ĭdis*, f. γαστριτις, from γαστηρ, the ſtomach). Inflammation of the ſtomach, A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ*, and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen. It is known by pyrexia, anxiety, heat, and pain in the epigaſtrium, increaſed when any thing is taken into the ſtomach, vomiting, hiccup, pulſe ſmall and hard, and proſtration of ſtrength. There are two ſpecies: 1. *Gaſtritis phlegmonoidea*, with an inflammatory tumour. 2. *Gaſtritis eryſipelatoſa*, when the inflammation is of a creeping or eryſipelatous nature.

GASTROCĒLE, (*Gaſtrocele, es*, f. γαστροκηλη, from γαστηρ, the ſtomach, and κηλη, a tumour). A hernia of the ſtomach, occaſioned by a protruſion of that viſcus through the abdominal parietes.

GASTROCNĒMĬUS, (*Gaſtrocnemius, i*, m. γαστροκνημιος, from γαστηρ, the ſtomach, and κνημη, the leg). The

muſcles of the foot which form the calf or belly of the leg.

GASTROCNEMĬUS EXTERNUS. *Gemellus*. This muſcle, which is ſituated immediately under the integuments at the back part of the leg, is ſometimes called *gemellus*: this latter name is adopted by Albinus. Winſlow deſcribes it as two muſcles, which he calls *gaſtrocnemii*; and Douglas conſiders this and the following as a *quadriceps*, or muſcle with four heads, to which he gives the name of *extenſor tarſi ſuralis*. The gaſtrocnemius externus ariſes by two diſtinct heads. The firſt, which is the thickeſt and longeſt of the two, ſprings by a ſtrong thick tendon from the upper and back part of the inner condyle of the os femoris, adhering ſtrongly to the capſular ligament of the joint, between which and the tendon is a conſiderable *burſa mucoſa*. The ſecond head ariſes by a thinner and ſhorter tendon from the back part of the outer condyle of the os femoris. A little below the joint their fleſhy bellies unite in a middle tendon, and below the middle of the tibia they ceaſe to be fleſhy, and terminate in a broad tendon, which, a little above the lower extremity of the tibia, unites with that of the gaſtrocnemius internus, to form one great round tendon, ſometimes called *chorda magna*, but more commonly *tendo Achillis*.

GASTROCNEMĬUS INTERNUS. This, which is ſituated immediately under the laſt deſcribed muſcle, is ſometimes named *ſoleus*, on account of its ſhape, which reſembles that of the ſole fiſh. It ariſes by two heads. The firſt ſprings by tendinous and fleſhy fibres from the poſterior part of the head of the fibula, and for ſome way below it. The ſecond ariſes from an oblique ridge at the upper and poſterior part of the tibia, which affords origin to the inferior edge of the popliteus, continuing to receive fleſhy fibres from the inner edge of the tibia for ſome way down. This muſcle, which is narrow at its origin, ſpreads wider as it deſcends, as far as its middle; after which it becomes narrower again, and begins to grow tendinous, but its fleſhy fibres do not entirely diſappear till it has almoſt reached the extremity of the tibia, a little above which it unites with the laſt deſcribed muſcle, to form the *tendo Achillis*. This thick round chord is inſerted into the lower and poſterior part of the os calcis, after ſliding over a cartilaginous ſurface on that bone, to which it is connected by a tendinous ſheath that is furniſhed with a large *burſa mucoſa*.

Both the gaſtrocnemii have the ſame uſe, viz. that of extending the foot, by drawing it backwards and downwards.

GASTRODYNĬA, (*Gaſtrodynia*, æ, f. γαστροδυνια, from γαστηρ, the ſtomach, and οδυνη, pain). Pain in the ſtomach.

GASTRO-EPIPLOIC ARTERY. *Arteria gaſtrico-epiploica*. The branch of the greater gaſtric artery that runs to the epiploon.

GASTRORAPHY, (*Gaſtroraphia*, æ, f. γαστροραφια, from γαστηρ, the ſtomach, and ραφη, a ſuture). The ſewing of wounds of the abdomen.

GAULE. See *Myrtus Brabantica*.

GAZ, (*Gaz*, *azis*, n. from *gaſcht*, German, an eruption of wind). *Gas*. Elaſtic fluid. Aeriform fluid. Elaſtic vapour. Modern chemiſts have given this name to bodies which have the appearance of air, though they do not poſſeſs all its properties. A gaz is a compound body, formed by the union of a baſis, more or leſs ſolid with caloric; thus, when the matter of heat enters into combination with certain bodies, it volatilizes them, and reduces them to the ſtate of gaz. It appears that all bodies do not require indiſcriminately the ſame quantity of caloric to aſſume the gazeous ſtate, and to reduce any ſubſtance to the

ſtate of gaz, the application of caloric may be made in various ways. The more ſimple method conſiſts in placing the body in contact with another body, which is heated. In this ſituation, the heat, on one hand, diminiſhes the affinity of aggregation, by ſeparating the conſtituent principles to a greater diſtance from each other; on the other hand, the heat unites to the principles with which it has the ſtrongeſt affinity, and volatilizes them. Another method is, when one body is cauſed to act upon another, to produce a combination, in which a diſengagement of ſome gazeous principles takes place: for example, the ſulphuric acid is poured upon the oxide of manganeſe; the acid combines with the metal, while its caloric ſeizes the oxygen and riſes with it. This principle takes place, not only in this inſtance, but on all occaſions wherein, an operation being performed without the application of heat, there is a production of vapour or gaz.

GAZ, CARBONIC ACID. This may be obtained by pouring any acid upon calcareous earth, which thereby becomes decompoſed; the effuſed acid combines with the lime and forms a new neutral ſalt, and the carbonic acid is diſengaged and eſcapes in the form of a colourleſs gaz, viz. carbonic acid gaz. See *Carbonic acid.*

GAZ-HEPATIC. See *Sulphurated hydrogen gaz.*

GAZ-HYDROGEN. Inflammable air. See *Hydrogen.*

GEMELLUS, (*Gamellus, i*, m. from *geminus*, double, having a fellow). See *Gaſtrocnemius* and *Gemini.*

GEMINI. *Gemelli* of Winſlow. This muſcle has been a ſubject of diſpute among anatomiſts ſince the days of Veſalius. Some deſcribe it as two diſtinct muſcles, and hence the name it has gotten of *gemini.* Others contend that it ought to be conſidered as a ſingle muſcle. The truth is, that it conſiſts of two portions, which are united together by a tendinous and fleſhy membrane, and afford a paſſage between them to the tendon of the obturator internus, which they incloſe as it were in a purſe. Theſe two portions are placed under the glutæus maximus, between the iſchium and the great trochanter.

The ſuperior portion, which is the ſhorteſt and thickeſt of the two, ariſes fleſhy from the external ſurface of the ſpine of the iſchium; and the inferior, from the tuberoſity of that bone, and likewiſe from the poſterior ſacro-iſchiatic ligament. They are inſerted, tendinous and fleſhy, into the cavity at the root of the great trochanter. Between the two portions of this muſcle, and the termination of the obturator internus, there is a ſmall *burſa mucoſa*, connected to both, and to that part of the capſula of the joint which lies under the gemini.

This muſcle aſſiſts in rolling the os femoris outwards, and prevents the tendon of the obturator internus from ſlipping out of its place while that muſcle is in action.

GENERATION. Many ingenious hypotheſes have been inſtituted by phyſiologiſts to explain the myſtery of generation, but the whole of our knowledge concerning it appears to be built upon the phenomena it affords; as may be ſeen in the works of *Haller*, *Buffon*, *Cruickſhanks*, and *Haighton.* It is a ſexual action, performed in different ways in moſt animals; many of them have different ſexes, and require conjunction: ſuch are the human ſpecies, quadrupeds, and others. The females of quadrupeds have a matrix, ſeparated into two cavities, *uterus bicornis*, and a conſiderable number of teats; they have no menſtrual flux; moſt of them bear ſeveral young at a time, and the period of their geſtation is generally ſhort. The generation of birds is very different. The males have a ſtrong genital organ, which is often double. The

vulva in females is placed behind the anus; the ovaries have no matrices, and there is a duct for the purpose of conveying the egg from the ovarium into the intestines: this passage is called the oviduct. The eggs of pullets have exhibited unexpected facts to physiologists, who examined the phenomena of incubation. The most important discoveries are those of the immortal HALLER, who found the chicken, perfectly formed, in eggs which were not fecundated. There is no determinate conjunction between fishes; the female deposits her eggs on the sand, over which the male passes, and emits its seminal fluid, doubtless for the purpose of fecundating them; these eggs are hatched after a certain time. The males of several oviparous quadrupeds have a double or forked organ. Insects exhibit all the varieties which are observed in other animals: there are some, indeed the greater number, which have the sexes in two separate individuals; among others, the reproduction is made either with or without conjunction, as in the vine-fretter; one of these insects, confined alone beneath a glass, produces a great number of others. The organ of the male, in insects, is usually armed with two hooks, to seize the female: the place of these organs is greatly varied; with some it is at the upper part of the belly, near the chest, as in the female dragon fly; in others, it is at the extremity of the *antenna*, as in the male spider. Most worms are hermaphrodite; each individual has both sexes. Polypi, with respect to generation, are singular animals: they are reproduced by buds or offsets: a bud is separated from each vigorous polypus, which is fixed to some neighbouring body, and grows: polypi are likewise found on their surface, in the same manner as branches issue from plants. These are the principal modes of generation in animals. In the human species, which engages our attention more particularly, the phenomena are as follow: the mode of congress of the man with the woman requires no description; but generation does not consist in that alone; there are certain states or conditions requisite for conception to take place. The ovum must have arrived at a state of maturity. There must be such a determination of blood to the uterus, that, together with the venereal stimulus, shall induce an action in the Fallopian tubes, by which the fimbriæ grasp the ovum that is to be impregnated. During this state of the parts the semen virile must be propelled into the uterus, in order that its subtle and vivifying portion shall pass along the tube to the ovum. Fecundation having thus taken place, a motion is induced in the vivified ovum, which ruptures the tender vesicle that contains it; the fimbriæ of the Fallopian tube then grasp and convey it into the tube, which, by its peristaltic motion, conducts it into the cavity of the uterus, there to be evolved and brought to maturity, and, at the expiration of nine months, to be sent into the world.

GENERATION, FEMALE ORGANS OF. The parts subservient to generation in a woman are divided into external and internal. The external parts are the mons veneris, the labia, the perinœum, the clitoris, and the nymphæ. To these may be added the meatus urinarius, or orifice of the urethra. The hymen may be esteemed the barrier between the external and internal parts. That soft fatty prominence which is situated upon the ossa pubis, extending towards the groins and abdomen, is called the mons veneris; its use seems to be chiefly that of preventing inconvenience or injury in the act of coition. If a line be drawn across the anterior angle of the pudendum, all that part

above it which is covered with hair may be called mons veneris, below it the labia commence, which being of a similar, though looser texture, appear like a continuance of the mons veneris, passing on each side of the pudendum, which they chiefly compose. Proceeding downwards and backwards the labia again unite, and the perinæum is formed. All that space between the posterior angle of the pudendum and the anus is called the perinæum; the external covering of which is the skin, as the vagina is the internal; including between them cellular and adipose membrane, and the lower part of the sphincter ani. The extent of the perinæum is generally about an inch and a half, though in some subjects it is not more than one, and in others is equal to three inches. The thin anterior edge is called the frænum labiorum. Below the anterior angle of the pudendum the clitoris is placed, which arises by two crura or branches, from the upper part of the rami of the ischia. The external part or extremity of the clitoris is called the glands, which has a prepuce or thin covering to which the nymphæ are joined. The clitoris, is supposed to be the principal seat of pleasure, and to be capable of some degree of erection in the act of coition. The nymphæ are two small spongy bodies, or doublings of the skin, rising from the extremities of the prepuce of the clitoris, less in size, but resembling in their form the labia. They pass on each side of the pudendum, within the labia, to half its length, when they are gradually diminished till they disappear. Immediately below the inferior edge of the symphysis of the ossa pubis, between the nymphæ, is the meatus urinarius, or termination of the urethra, which is about one inch and a half in length, and runs to the bladder in a straight direction, along the internal surface of symphysis, to which, and to the vagina, it is connected by cellular membrane. On each side of the meatus are small orifices, which discharge a mucus for the purpose of preserving the external part from any injury, to which they might be liable from the acrimony of the urine. There is a very great difference in the appearance of all these parts in different women, especially in those who have had many children, and at various periods of life. In young women they are firm and vegete, but in the old, these, together with the internal, become flaccid and withered. The labia and nymphæ are liable to elongation, to excrescences, and to the production of schirrhous tumours, which, in some instances, have grown to an enormous size, especially in hot climates. It is not unusual for one of the labia or of the nymphæ to be larger or more pendulous than the other: but the enlargement or elongation are not regarded as diseases, till some inconvenience is produced by them.—The internal parts of generation are the *vagina* and *uterus* and its appendages. See *Vagina*, *Uterus*, &c.

GENERATION, MALE ORGANS OF. The parts which constitute the organs of generation in men are the *penis*, *testicles*, and *vesiculæ seminales*. See *Penis*, &c.

GENIO, (from γενειον, the chin). Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached to the chin.

GENIO-HYO-GLOSSUS, (*Musculus genio-hyo-glossus*, γενειογλωσσος from γενειον, the chin, and γλωσσα, the tongue, so called from its origin in the chin, and insertion in the tongue). This muscle forms the fourth layer between the lower jaw and os hyoides. It arises from a rough protuberance in the inside of the middle of the lower jaw; its fibres run like a fan, forwards, upwards, and backwards, and are inserted into the top, middle, and root of

the tongue, and base of the os hyoides, near its cornu. Its use is to draw the tip of the tongue backwards into the mouth, the middle downwards, and to render its back concave. It also draws its root and the os hyoides forwards, and thrusts the tongue out of the mouth.

GENIO-HYOIDĒUS, (*Musculus genio-hyoideus*, γενειουοειδαιος, from γενειον, the chin, and υοειδης, the os hyoides, so called from its origin in the chin, and its insertion in the os hyoides). This muscle constitutes the third layer between the lower jaw and os hyoides. It is a long, thin, and fleshy muscle, arising tendinous from a rough protuberance at the inside of the chin, and growing somewhat broader and thicker as it descends backward to be inserted by very short tendinous fibres into both the edges of the base of the os hyoides. It draws the os hyoides forwards to the chin.

GENIPI ALBUM. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Artemisia rupestris*; *foliis pinnatis, caulibus adscendentibus*; *floribus globosis, cernuis*; *receptaculo papposo*, of Linnæus. It has a grateful smell, and is used in some countries in the cure of intermittents and obstructed catamenia.

GENIPI VERUM. The plant directed for medicinal purposes under this title is the *Achillea*; *foliis pinnatis, pinnis simplicibus, glabris, punctalis*, of Haller. It has a very grateful smell, and a very bitter taste, and is exhibited in Switzerland in epilepsy, diarrhæa, and debility of the stomach.

GENISTA, (*Genista, æ*, f. from *genu*, a knee; so called from the inflection and angularity of its twigs). The common broom. The tops and leaves of this indigenous plant, *Spartium scoparium; foliis ternatis solitariisque, ramis inermibus angulatis*, of Linnæus. Class *Diadelphia*. Order *Decandria*, are the parts that are employed medicinally; they have a bitter taste, and are recommended for their purgative and diuretic qualities, in hydropic cases.

GENISTA CANARIENSIS. The systematic name of the tree whose wood is called rhodium. See *Rhodium lignum*.

GENTIĀNA, (*Gentiana, æ*, f. from *Gentius*, king of Illyria, who first used it). *Gentiana rubra*. Gentian. Felwort. The gentian that is met with in the shops is the root of the *Gentiana lutea*; *corollis subquinquefidis rotatis verticillatis, calicybus spathaceis*, of Linnæus. Class *Petandria*. Order *Digynia*; and is imported from Switzerland and Germany. It is the only medicinal part of the plant, has little or no smell, but to the taste manifests great bitterness, on which account it is in general use as a tonic, stomachic, anthelmintic, antiseptic, emmenagogue, and febrifuge. The officinal preparations of this root are the *infusum gentianæ compositum*, and *tinctura gentiana composita*, Lond. Pharm. and the *infusum amarum, vinum amarum, tinctura amara*, Edinb. Pharm.; and the *extractum gentianæ* is ordered by both.

GENTIĀNA ALBA. The root of this plant, *Laserpitium latifolium*; *foliis cordatis, inciso-serratis*, of Linnæus, possesses stomachic, corroborant, and deobstruent virtues. It is seldom used.

GENTIĀNA CENTAURĪUM. The systematic name of the lesser centaury. See *Centaurium*.

GENTIĀNA LUTĔA. The systematic name of the officinal gentian. See *Gentiana*.

GENTIĀNA RUBRA. See *Gentiana*.

GENU, (*Genu, ind. in sing.* n. γονυ, παρα το εις γην νευειν, because by it the body is bent towards the earth). The knee.

GEOFFRÆA, (*Geoffræa, æ*, f. named in honour of Dr. Geoffrey). The bark so called is the produce of the

Geoffroya inermis, of Swatz. *Geoffroya inermis, foliolis lanceolatis*. Claſs *Diadelphia*. Order *Decandria*. A native of Jamaica, where it is diſtinguiſhed by the name of cabbage-bark tree, or worm-bark tree. It has a mucilaginous and ſweetiſh taſte, and a diſagreeable ſmell. According to Dr. Wright of Jamaica, it is powerfully medicinal as an anthelmintic.

GEOFFROYA JAMAICENSIS. The ſyſtematic name of the baſtard cabbage tree. See *Cortex Geoffroyæ Jamaicenſis*.

GEOFFROYA SURINAMENSIS. The ſyſtematic name of the tree whoſe bark is eſteemed as an anthelmintic. See *Cortex Geoffroyæ ſurinamenſis*.

GERANĬUM, (*Geranium, i*, n. γεϱανιον, from γεϱανος, a crane, ſo called becauſe its piſtil is long like the bill of a crane). The herb cranesbill.

GERANĬUM BATRACHIOIDES. Crowfoot cranes-bill. This is the *Geranium pratenſe* of Linnæus; it alſo poſſeſſes adſtringent virtues, but in a ſlight degree.

GERANĬUM COLUMBĪNUM. Doves foot. *Geranium rotundifolium* of Linnæus. This plant poſſeſſes ſlightly adſtringent virtues.

GERANĬUM MOSCHĀTUM. The adſtringent property of this plant has induced practitioners to exhibit it in caſes of debility and profluvias.

GERANĬUM PRATENSE. The ſyſtematic name of the crowfoot cranesbill. See *Geranium batrachioides*.

GERANĬUM ROBERTIĀNUM. Stinking cranes-bill. Herb robert. This common plant has been much eſteemed as an external application in eryſipelatous inflammations, cancer, maſtodynia, and old ulcers, but is now deſervedly fallen into diſuſe.

GERANĬUM ROTUNDĬFOLĬUM. The ſyſtematic name of the dovesfoot. See *Geranium columbinum*.

GERANĬUM SANGUINARĬUM. Bloody craneſbill. *Geranium ſanguineum* of Linnæus. The adſtringent virtues aſcribed to this plant do not appear to be conſiderable.

GERANĬUM SANGUINEUM. The ſyſtematic name of the *Geranium ſanguinarium*.

GERMANDER. See *Chamædris*.

GERMANDER WATER. See *Scordium*.

GĔUM RIVĀLE. The *radix gei rivalis*, is the part directed for medicinal uſes. It is inodorous, and imparts an auſtere taſte. In America it is in high eſtimation in the cure of intermittents, and is ſaid to be more efficacious than the peruvian bark. Diarrhæas and hæmorrhages are alſo ſtopped by its exhibition.

GĔUM URBĀNUM. See *Caryophyllata*.

GILEAD, BALSAM. See *Balſamum Gileadenſe*.

GILL-GO-BY-GROUND. See *Hederacea*.

GILLIFLOWER. See *Caryophyllus ruber*.

GINGER. See *Zinziber*.

GINGIDĬUM. See *Chærefolium*.

GINGĪVÆ, (*Gingivæ, arum*, f. from *gigno*, to beget, becauſe the teeth are, as it were, born in them). The gums. See *Gums*.

GINGLŸMUS, (*Ginglymus, i*, m. from γιγγλυμος, a hinge). The hinge-like joint. A ſpecies of diarthroſis or moveable connexion of bones, which admits of flexion and extenſion, as the knee-joint, &c.

GINSENG, (*Ginſeng*, Indian). The plant from which this root is obtained is the *Panax quinquefolium*; *foliis ternis quinatis*, of Linnæus. Claſs *Polygamia*. Order *Dioecia*. It is imported into this country ſcarcely the thickneſs of the little finger, about three or four inches long, frequently forked, tranſverſely wrinkled, of a horny texture, and both internally and externally of a yellowiſh white colour. To the taſte it diſcovers a mucilaginous ſweetneſs, approaching

to that of liquorice, accompanied with ſome degree of bitterneſs, and a ſlight aromatic warmth. The Chineſe aſcribe extraordinary virtues to the root of ginſeng, and have no confidence in any medicine unleſs in combination with it. In Europe, however, it is very ſeldom employed.

GINSENG ROOT. See *Ginſeng*.

GLADIOLUS, (*Gladiolus*, *i*, dim. of *gladius*, a ſword, ſo named from the ſword-like ſhape of its leaf). The herb-corn-flag.

GLADIOLUS LUTĔUS. See *Iris paluſtris*.

GLAND, (*Glandula*, *æ*, f. dim. of *glans*, a gland). A gland is an organic part of the body, compoſed of blood-veſſels, nerves, and abſorbents, and deſtined for the ſecretion or alteration of ſome peculiar fluid. The glands of the human body are divided by anatomiſts into different claſſes, either according to their ſtructure, or the fluid they contain. According to their fabric they are diſtinguiſhed into four claſſes. 1. Simple glands. 2. Compounds of ſimple glands. 3. Conglobate glands. 4. Conglomerate glands. According to their fluid contents they are more properly divided into, 1. Mucous glands. 2. Sebaceous glands. 3. Lymphatic glands. 4. Salival glands. 5. Lachrymal glands. Simple glands are ſmall hollow follicles, covered with a peculiar membrane, and having a proper excretory duct, through which they evacuate the liquor contained in their cavity. Such are the mucous glands of the noſe, tongue, fauces, trachea, ſtomach, inteſtines, and urinary bladder, the ſebaceous glands about the anus, and thoſe of the ear. Theſe ſimple glands are either diſperſed here and there, or are contiguous to one another, forming a heap in ſuch a manner that they are not covered by a common membrane, but each hath its own excretory duct, which is never joined to the excretory duct of another gland. The former are termed ſolitary ſimple glands, the latter adgregate or congregate ſimple glands. The compound glands conſiſt of many ſimple glands, the excretory ducts of which are joined in one common excretory duct; as the ſebacious glands of the face, lips, palate, and various parts of the ſkin, eſpecially about the pubes. Conglobate, or, as they are alſo called, lymphatic glands, are thoſe into which lymphatic veſſels enter, and from which they go out again: as the meſenteric, lumbar, &c. They are compoſed of a texture of lymphatic veſſels, connected together by cellular membrane—have no excretory duct—they are largeſt in the fœtus. Conglomerate glands are compoſed of a congeries of many ſimple glands, whoſe excretory ducts open into one common trunk; as the parotid gland, thyroid gland, pancreas, and all the ſalival glands. Conglomerate glands differ but little from the compound glands, yet they are compoſed of more ſimple glands than the compound. The excretory duct of a gland is the duct through which the fluid of the gland is excreted. The veſſels and nerves of glands always come from the neighbouring parts, and the arteries appear to poſſeſs a higher degree of irritability. The uſe of the glands is to ſeparate a peculiar liquor, or to change it. The uſe of the conglobate glands is unknown.

GLANDŬLA LACHRYMĂLIS. See *Lachrymal gland*.

GLANDŬLÆ MYRTĬFORMES. *Caruncułæ myrtiformes*. The ſmall glandiform bodies at the entrance of the vagina of women. They are the remains of the hymen, which is cleft in ſeveral parts during the firſt coition.

GLANDŬLÆ PACCHĬONIÆ, (*Pacchioni*, the name of the diſcoverer). A number of ſmall, oval, fatty ſubſtances, not yet aſcertained to be

glandular, situated under the dura mater, about the sides of the longitudinal sinus. Their use is not known.

Glans penis, (*Glans, dis.* f.). The very vascular body that forms the apex of the penis. The posterior circle is termed the *corona glandis*. See *Corpus spongiosum urethræ*.

Glans unguentaria. See *Bennux*.

Glass. This substance is sometimes employed by Surgeons when roughly powdered, as an eschurotic to opacities of the cornea.

Glass of antimony. See *Oxidum stibii vitreum*.

Glass-wort, snail-seeded. See *Kali*.

Glaubers salt. See *Natron vitriolatum*.

Glaucōma, (*Glaucoma, atis.* n. γλαυκωμα, γλαυκος, blue, because of the eye becoming of a blue or sea-green colour.) An opacity of the vitreous humour. It is difficult to ascertain, and is only to be known by a very attentive examination of the eye.

Glecōma, (*Glecoma*, γληχωμα; from γληχων, the name of a plant in Dioscorides.) Ground Ivy.

Glecōma hederacĕa. The systematic name of the Ground ivy. See *Hedera terrestris*.

Gleet. See *Blennorrhagia*.

Glenoid cavity. (*Cavitas Glenoides*; γληνοειδης, from γληνη, a cavity, and ειδος, resemblance). The articular cavity of the scapula.

Globate gland. A lymphatic gland. See *Gland*.

Globulăria alyphum. The leaves of this plant are used in some parts of Spain in the cure of the venereal disease. It is said to act also as a powerful but safe cathartic.

Globules of the blood. *Red Globules*. The very small globules that are seen through the microscope swimming in the serum of the blood, and which give the red colour to the blood.

Globus hystĕricus. The air rising in the œsophagus, and prevented by spasm from reaching the mouth, is so called by authors, because it mostly attends hysteria, and gives the sensation of a ball ascending in the throat.

Glomer, (*Glomer, ĕris*, m. a clue of thread). Mostly applied to glands.

Glomerate gland. A gland formed of a glomer of sanguineous vessels, having no cavity, but furnished with an excretory duct; as the lachrymal and mammary glands.

Glosso, (from γλωσσα, the tongue). Names compounded with this word belong to muscles, nerves, or vessels, from their being attached, or going to the tongue.

Glosso-pharyngeal nerves. The ninth pair of nerves. They arise from the processes of the cerebellum, which run to the medulla spinalis, and terminate by numerous branches in the muscles of the tongue and pharynx.

Glosso-pharyngĕus. (*Musculus glossopharyngæus*, γλωσσοφαρυγγαιος from γλωσσα the tongue, and φαρυγξ the pharynx: so named from its origin in the tongue, and its insertion in the pharynx). See *Constrictor pharyngis superior*.

Glosso-staphilīnus. (*Musculus glossostaphylinus*, γλωσσοσταφυλινος from γλωσσα the tongue, and σταφυλινος the staphylinus; so named because it is fixed in the tongue, and terminates in the staphylinus). See *Constrictor isthmi faucium*.

Glottis. (*Glottis, ĭdis.* f. γλωτις from γλωττα, the tongue). The superior opening of the larynx at the bottom of the tongue.

Gluteal artery. A branch of the internal iliac artery.

Gluten, animal. This substance constitutes the basis of the fibres of all the solid parts. It resem-

bles in its properties the gluten of vegetables.

GLUTEN, VEGETABLE. A glutinous ſubſtance obtained from ſeveral vegetables in great abundance, which when dried becomes a horny maſs. It is inſoluble both in water and ſpirit of wine, and if boiled with the former it coagulates like the white of an egg. It burns like horn, and affords the ſame products by diſtillation in the dry way. It readily putrifies when kept in a cold and moiſt place.

GLUTĒUS MAXĬMUS. (*Gluteus*, *i.* m. from γλουτος, the buttocks). *Gluteus magnus* of Albinus. *Glutæus major* of Cowper. This broad radiated muſcle, which is divided into a number of ſtrong faſciculi, is covered by a pretty thick aponeuroſis derived from the *faſcia lata*, and is ſituated immediately under the integuments. It ariſes fleſhy from the outer lip of ſomewhat more than the poſterior half of the ſpine of the ilium, from the ligaments that cover the two poſterior ſpinous proceſſes; from the poſterior ſacro-iſchiatic ligament; and from the outer ſides of the os ſacrum and os coccygis. From theſe origins the fibres of the muſcle run towards the great trochanter of the os femoris, where they form a broad and thick tendon, between which and the trochanter there is a conſiderable *burſa mucoſa*. This tendon is inſerted into the upper part of the *linea aſpera*, for the ſpace of two or three inches downwards; and ſends off fibres to the faſcia lata, and to the upper extremity of the vaſtus externus. This muſcle ſerves to extend the thigh, by pulling it directly backwards; at the ſame time it draws it a little outwards, and thus aſſiſts in its rotatory motion. Its origin from the coccyx ſeems to prevent that bone from being forced too far backwards.

GLUTĒUS MEDĬUS. The poſterior half of this muſcle is covered by the gluteus maximus, which it greatly reſembles in ſhape; but the anterior and upper part of it is covered only by the integuments, and by a tendinous membrane which belongs to the faſcia lata. It ariſes fleſhy from the outer lip of the anterior part of the ſpine of the ilium, from part of the poſterior ſurface of that bone, and likewiſe from the faſcia that covers it. From theſe origins its fibres run towards the great trochanter, into the outer and poſterior part of which it is inſerted by a broad tendon. Between this tendon and the trochanter there is a ſmall thin *burſa mucoſa*. The uſes of this muſcle are nearly the ſame as thoſe of the gluteus maximus; but it is not confined like that muſcle, to rolling the os femoris outwards, its anterior portion being capable of turning that bone a little inwards. As it has no origin from the coccyx, it can have no effect on that bone.

GLUTEUS MĬNĬMUS. *Glutæus minor* of Albinus. This, which is likewiſe a radiated muſcle, is ſituated under the gluteus medius. In adults, and eſpecially in old ſubjects, its outer ſurface is uſually tendinous. It ariſes fleſhy betwen the two ſemicircular ridges we obſerve on the outer ſurface of the ilium, and likewiſe from the edge of its great niche. Its fibres run in different directions towards a thick flat tendon, which adheres to the capſular ligament of the joint, and is inſerted into the fore and upper part of the great trochanter. A ſmall *burſa mucoſa* may be obſerved between the tendon of this muſcle and the trochanter. This muſcle aſſiſts the two former in drawing the thigh backwards and outwards, and in rolling it. It may likewiſe ſerve to prevent the capſular ligament from being pinched in the motions of the joint.

GLYCYPICROS. (γλυκυπικρος from γλυκυς, ſweet, and πικρος, bitter, ſo

called from its bitterish sweet taste.) The woody nightshade. See *Dulcamara.*

GLYCYRRĪZA. (*Glycirrhiza, æ.* f. γλυκυρριζα; from γλυκυς, sweet, and ῥιζα, a root). Liquorice. The sweet root of the *Glycyrrhiza glabra leguminibus glabris, stipulis nullis, foliolo impari petiolato* of Linnæus. Class *Diadelphia.* Order *Decandria*; a native of the south of Europe, but cultivated in Britain. The root contains a great quantity of saccharine matter, joined with some proportion of mucilage, and hence it has a viscid sweet taste. It is in common use as a pectoral or emollient, in catarrhal defluxions on the breast, coughs, hoarsenesses, &c. Infusions, or the extract made from it, which is called *Spanish liquorice*, afford likewise very commodious vehicles for the exhibition of other medicines; the liquorice taste concealing that of unpalatable drugs more effectually than syrups or any of the sweets of the saccharine kind.

GLYCYRRHĪZA ECHINĀTA. This species of liquorice is substituted in some places for the root of the *glabra.*

GLYCYRRĪZA GLABRA. The systematic name of the officinal liquorice. See *Glycyrrhiza.*

GLYSSONS CAPSULE. See *Capsule of Glysson.*

GNAPHALĬUM. (*Gnaphalium, i.* n. γναφαλιον from γναφαλον cotton, so named from its soft downy surface). The herb cotton weed. The flores gnaphalii of the pharmacopœias, called also *flores hippedulæ*; *seu pedes cati* are the produce of the *Gnaphalium dioicum* of Linnæus. They are now quite obsolete, but were formerly used as adstringents, and recommended in the cure of hooping cough, phthisis pulmonalis, and hæmoptysis.

GNAPHALĬUM ARENARĬUM. The flowers of this plant are, as well as those of the gnaphalium stœchas, called in the pharmacopeias *flores elichrysi.* See *Elichrysum.*

GNAPHALĬUM DIOICUM. The systematic name of the *pes cati.* See *Gnaphalium.*

GNAPHALĬUM STŒCHAS. The systematic name of Goldilocks. See *Elichrysum.*

GOAT'S RUE. See *Galiga.*

GOLD. *Aurum.* A noble metal, too precious for medicinal purposes.

GOLD-CUP. A vulgar name for many species of *Ranunculi.*

GOLDEN-ROD. See *Virga aurea.*

GOLDILOCKS. See *Elichrysum.*

GOMPHŌSIS, (*Gomphosis, is,* f. γομφωσις; from γομφοω, to drive in a nail). A species of synarthrosis, or immoveable connexion of bones, in which one bone is fixed in another, like a nail in a board, as the teeth in the alveoli of the jaws.

GONORRHŒA, (*Gonorrhœa, æ,* f. γωνορροια; from γονη, semen, and ῥεω, to flow; from an erroneous supposition of the ancients that it was a seminal flux). A preternatural flux from the urethra or vagina. It arises from the action of the venereal virus on those parts, producing first an itching, afterwards a discharge like pus, attended with heat on making water; and in men occasionally with *phymosis*, and sometimes *paraphymosis.*

GOOSE-FOOT STINKING. See *Atriplex fœtida.*

GOOSEGRASS. See *Aperine.*

GOSSYPĬUM, (*Gossypium, i.* n. γοσσυπιον; from *gotne*, whence *gottipium*, Egypt). Cotton. *Bombax.* The seeds of this herb, *Gossypium herbaceum; foliis quenquelobis subtus eglandulosis, caule herbaceo* of Linnæus, afford a small quantity of oil by pressure. They are used by the Egyptians in cough and fevers, in the form of mucilage. The utility of cotton for œconomical purposes is well known.

GOSSYPĬUM HERBACĔUM. The syſtematic name of the cotton plant. See *Goſſypium*.

GOURD. See *Cucurbita*.

GOURD BITTER. See *Colocynthis*.

GOUT. See *Arthritis*.

GRACILIS, (*Gracilis*, from its ſmallneſs.) *Rectus internus femoris* of Winſlow. This long, ſtraight, and ſlender muſcle, is ſituated immediately under the integuments at the inner part of the thigh. It ariſes by a broad and thin tendon, from the anterior part of the iſchium and pubis, and ſoon becoming fleſhy, deſcends nearly in a ſtraight direction along the inſide of the thigh. A little above the knee it terminates in a ſlender and roundiſh tendon, which afterwards becomes flatter, and is inſerted into the middle of the tibia behind and under the ſartorius. Under the tendons of this and the rectus there is a conſiderable *burſa mucoſa*, which on one ſide adheres to them and to the tendon of the ſemi tendinoſus, and on the other to the capſular ligament of the knee. This muſcle aſſiſts in bending the thigh and leg inwards.

GRAMEN CANĪNUM, (*Gramen, inis*, n.). Dog's Graſs. Couch Graſs. *Triticum repens* of Linnæus. The roots are agreeably ſweet, and poſſeſs aperient properties. The expreſſed juice is recommended to be given largely.

GRANA CNIDŬ. See *Coccognidia*.

GRANA PARĂDĪSI. *Cardamomum majus, Meleguetta maniguetta, Cardamomum piperatium*. The grains of paradiſe are the ſeeds of the *Amomum grana paradiſi* of Linnæus. They are angular reddiſh brown ſeeds, ſmaller than pepper, and reſembling very much the ſeeds of the cardamomum minus. They are extremely hot, and ſimilar in virtue to pepper. See *Piper nigrum*.

GRANA TINCTORĬA. See *Kermes*.

GRANA TIGLĬA. See *Tiglia Grana*.

GRANĀTUM, (*Granatum*, *i*. n. from *granum*, a grain, becauſe it is full of ſeed). The pomegranate. The fruit of the *Punica granatum* of Linnæus. *Punica foliis lanceolatis, caule arboreo*. Claſs *Icoſandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The rind of the fruit, and the flowers called *Balauſtine flowers*), are the parts directed for medicinal uſe. In their ſmell there is nothing remarkable, but to the taſte they are very adſtringent, and have ſucceſsfully been employed as ſuch in diſeaſes both internal and external.

GRANUM MOSCHI. See *Abelmoſchus*.

GRATĬOLA, (*Gratiola*, *æ*, f. dim. of *gratia*; ſo named from its ſuppoſed admirable qualities). Hedge-hyſſop. This exotic plant, the *Gratiola officinalis, foliis lanceolatis ſerratis, floribus pedunculatis* of Linnæus, Claſs *Diandria*. Order *Monogynia*, is a powerful and active cathartic, and operates with ſuch violence upon the ſtomach as generally to induce vomiting. It has been commonly employed as a cathartic and diuretic in hydropical diſeaſes, and inſtances of its good effects in aſcites and anaſarca are recorded by many reſpectable practitioners. German phyſicians alſo relate its efficacy in maniacal and venereal caſes.

GRATĬOLA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the hedge hyſſop. See *Gratiola*.

GROMWELL COMMON. See *Lithoſpermum*.

GROUND AVERWORT. See *Lichen cinereus terreſtris*.

GROUNDPINE. See *Chamæpitys*.

GROUND-NUT. See *Pignut*.

GROUNDSEL. See *Erigerum*.

GRUTUM, (*Grutum*, *i*. n.). *Milium*. A hard white tubercle of the ſkin, reſembling in ſize and appearance a millet-ſeed.

GRYPHŌSIS, (*Gryphoſis, is.* f. γρυφωσις; from γρυπτω, to incurvate). A diſeaſe of the nails, which turn inwards, and irritate the ſoft parts below.

GUĀĬĂCUM, (*Guaiacum, i.* n. from the Spaniſh *Guayacan*, which is formed from the Indian *Hoaxacan*). Officinal guaiacum. This tree, *Guaiacum officinale foliis bijugis obtuſis* of Linnæus, Claſs *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*, is a native of the Weſt India Iſlands. The wood, gum, bark, fruit, and even the flowers, have been found to poſſeſs medicinal qualities. The wood is brought principally from Jamaica, in large pieces of four or five hundred weight each, and from its hardneſs and beauty is uſed for various articles of turnery ware. It ſcarcely diſcovers any ſmell, unleſs heated, or while raſping, in which circumſtances it yields a light aromatic one: chewed, it impreſſes a ſlight acrimony, biting the palate and fauces. The gum, or rather reſin, is obtained by wounding the bark in different parts of the body of the tree, or by what has been called jagging. It exudes copiouſly from the wounds, though gradually; and when a quantity is found accumulated upon the ſeveral wounded trees, hardened by expoſure to the ſun, it is gathered and packed up in ſmall kegs for exportation: it is of a friable texture, of a deep greeniſh colour, and ſometimes of a reddiſh hue; it has a pungent acrid taſte, but little or no ſmell, unleſs heated. The bark contains leſs reſinous matter than the wood, and is conſequently a leſs powerful medicine, though in a recent ſtate it is ſtrongly cathartic. The flowers, or bloſſoms, are laxative, and in Jamaica, are commonly given to children in the form of ſyrup. It is only the wood and reſin of guaiacum which are now in general medicinal uſe in Europe; and as the efficacy of the former is ſuppoſed to be derived merely from the quantity of reſinous matter which it contains, they may be conſidered indiſcriminately as the ſame medicine. Guaiacum was firſt introduced into the materia medica ſoon after the diſcovery of America; and previous to the uſe of mercury in the luēs venerea, it was the principal remedy employed in the cure of that diſeaſe; its great ſucceſs brought it into ſuch repute, that it is ſaid to have been ſold for ſeven gold crowns a pound: yet, notwithſtanding this, its failure was ſuch as let it be quite ſuperſeded by mercury; and though it be ſtill occaſionally employed in ſyphilis, yet it is rather with a view to correct other diſeaſes in the habit, than for its effects as an antivenereal. It is now more generally employed for its virtues in curing gouty and rheumatic pains, and ſome cutaneous diſeaſes.

GUILANDINA MORINGA. This tree affords the *lignum nephriticum*, and the ben nut. See *Lignum nephriticum* and *Ben nut*.

GUINEA PEPPER. See *Piper indicum*.

GUM, (*Gummi*, n. *ind.*) Mucilage. This ſubſtance is very abundant in the vegetable kingdom; it is found in a great number of roots; and the ſhoots of plants and new leaves contain it in great abundance. It may be known by its viſcous and adheſive quality when preſſed between the fingers. At the time of the year when the juices of plants are the moſt abundant, it naturally exudes through the barks of trees, and thickens on the ſurface into gum. The characters of gum are, 1. Solubility in water, to which it gives a thick and viſcous conſiſtence. This ſolution, known by the name of mucilage, becomes dry, tranſparent, and brittle, by evaporation. 2. Inſolubility in alcohol. 3. Coagulation by the action of weak acids. There are only two gums in uſe in medicine,

viz. gummi Arabicum, and tragacantha. Mucilages, of the same nature as gums, are obtained also from many plants, as mallows, quince-seeds, linseed, &c.

Gum boil. See *Parulis*.

Gummi acanthium. An obsolete name of the gum arabic.

Gummi adstringens. See *Kino*.

Gummi ammoniacum. See *Ammoniacum*.

Gummi anime. See *Anime*.

Gummi arabicum. See *Arabicum gummi*.

Gummi bdellium. See *Bdellium*.

Gumm carannæ. See *Caranna*.

Gummi cerasorum. The juice which exudes from cherry trees. It is very similar to gum arabic, for which it may be substituted.

Gummi chibou. A spurious kind of gum elemi.

Gummi courbaril. An epithet sometimes applied to the juice of the *Hymenæa courbaril*. See *Anime*.

Gummi euphorbii. See *Euphorbium*.

Gummi galda. See *Galda*.

Gummi gambiense. See *Kino*.

Gummi guttæ. See *Gambogia*.

Gummi hederæ. Ivy gum. The resinous juice of the *Hedera helix* of Linnæus, or Ivy. It is imported from the East Indies, though it may be collected from trees in this country. It is brought over in hard compact masses, externally of a reddish brown colour, internally of a bright browniſh yellow, with reddish specks or veins. It has a strong, resinous, agreeable smell, and an adstringent taste. Though never used in the practice of the present day, it possesses corroborant, adstringent and antispasmodic virtues.

Gummi juniperinum. See *Sandarack*.

Gummi kikekunemalo. See *Kikekunemalo*.

Gummi kino. See *Kino*.

Gummi laccæ. See *Lacca*.

Gummi myrrhæ. See *Myrrha*.

Gummi sagapenum. See *Sagapenum*.

Gummi senegalense. This is a true gum, brought from the island of Senegal on the coast of Africa, where it exudes in large pieces from the *Mimosa senegal* of Linnæus. It is similar in virtue and quality to the gum arabic, and the gum which exudes in this climate from the cherry trees.

Gummi tragacanthæ. See *Tragacantha*.

Gum-resin, (*Gum-resina, æ*, f.). Gum-resins are the juices of plants that are mixed with resin, and an extractive matter, which has been taken for a gummy substance. They seldom flow naturally from plants, but are mostly extracted by incision, in the form of white, yellow, or red fluids, which dry more or less quickly. Water, spirit of wine, wine or vinegar, dissolve them only in part, according to the proportion they contain of resin or extract. Gum-resins may also be formed by art, by digesting the parts of vegetables containing the gum-resin in diluted alkohol, and then evaporating it. For this reason most tinctures contain gum-resin. The principal gum-resins employed medicinally are aloes, ammoniacum, asafœtida, galbanum, gambogia, guaiacum, myrrha, olibanum, opoponax, sagapenum, sarcocolla, scammonium, and styrax.

Gums. *Gingivæ*. The very vascular and elastic substance that covers the alveolar arches of the upper and under jaws, and embraces the necks of the teeth.

Gutta gamba. See *Gambogia*.

Gutta serena. See *Amaurosis*.

Guttæ rosaceæ. Red spots upon the face and nose.

Guttural artery. The superior thyroideal artery. The first branch of the external carotid.

HÆMATĔMĒSIS, (*Hæmatemeſis, is.* f. from αιμα, blood, and εμεω, to vomit). *Vomitus cruentus.* A vomiting of blood. This diſeaſe is moſtly ſymptomatic of ſome other, and generally ariſes from plethora, obſtructed catamenia, or ſcurvy.

HÆMATITES, (*Hæmatites, is.* f. αιματιτης; from αιμα, blood, ſo named from its property of ſtopping blood, or from its colour). *Lapis hæmatites.* Bloodſtone. An elegant iron ore called bloodſtone. Finely levigated, and freed from the groſſer parts by frequent waſhings with water, it has been long recommended in hæmorrhages, fluxes, uterine obſtructions, &c. in doſes of from one ſcruple to three or four.

HÆMATOCĒLE, (*Hæmatocele, es.* f. from αιμα, blood, and κηλη, a tumour). A collection of blood in the tunica vaginalis teſtis, or in the cellular membrane of the ſcrotum. It generally takes place from puncturing a blood-veſſel in the operation for removing the water of hydrocele. If the quantity be great, and the efflux be not ſtopped by cold applications, the bleeding veſſel ſhould be ſecured.

HÆMATŌDES, (*Hæmatodes, is.* f. αιματωδης; from αιμα, blood; ſo called from the red colour of its flowers). An old name for the bloody craneſbill. See *Geranium ſanguineum.*

HÆMATOLOGY, (*Hæmatologia, æ,* f. αιματολογια; from αιμα, blood, and λογος, a diſcourſe). The doctrine of the blood.

HÆMATOMPHALOCĒLE, (*Hæmatomphalocele, es,* f. αιματομφαλοκηλη; from αιμα blood, ομφαλος, the navel, and κηλη, a tumour). A ſpecies of ecchymoſis. A tumor about the navel from an extravaſation of blood. It is moſtly abſorbed, but, if too conſiderable, a puncture may be made to evacuate the blood, as in ecchymoſis. See *Ecchymoſis.*

HÆMATOXŸLUM, (*Hæmatoxylum, i,* n. αιματοξυλον; from αιμα, blood, or αιματικος, bloody, and ξυλον, wood). Logwood; ſo called from its red colour. See *Lignum campechenſe.*

HÆMATOXŸLUM CAMPECHĬANUM. The ſyſtematic name of the logwood-tree. See *Lignum campechianum.*

HÆMATŪRĬA, (*Hæmaturia, æ,* f. αιματουρια: from αιμα, blood, and ουρον, urine). Bloody urine; moſtly ſymptomatic of ſome other diſeaſe.

HÆMOPTŸSIS, (*Hæmoptyſis, is.* f. αιμοπτυσις; from αιμα, blood, and πτυω, to ſpit). *Hæmoptoe.* A ſpitting of blood. A genus of diſeaſe arranged by Cullen in the claſs *pyrexiæ*, and order *hæmorrhagiæ.* It is characterized by coughing up florid or frothy blood, heat or pain in the cheſt, irritation in the larynx, and a ſaltiſh taſte in the mouth. There are five ſpecies of this diſeaſe: 1. *Hæmoptyſis plethorica*, from fullneſs of the veſſels. 2. *Hæmoptyſis violenta*, from ſome external violence. 3. *Hæmoptyſis phthiſica*, from ulcers corroding the ſmall veſſels. 4. *Hæmoptyſis calculoſa*, from calculous matter in the lungs. 5. *Hæmoptyſis vicaria*, from the ſuppreſſion of ſome cuſtomary evacuation.

HÆMORRHAGĬA, (*Hæmorrhagiæ, arum,* f. αιμορραγια; from αιμα, blood, and ῥηγνυμι, to break out). Hæmorrhages, or affluxes of blood. An order in the claſs *pyrexiæ* of Cullen's noſology is ſo called. It is characterized by pyrexia with a diſcharge of blood, without any external injury; the blood on venæſection exhibiting the buffy coat. The order *hæmorrhagiæ* contains the following genera of diſeaſes, viz. epiſtaxis, hæmoptyſis, phthiſis, hæmorrhois, and menorrhagia.

HÆMORRHOIDAL ARTERIES. *Arteriæ hæmorrhoidales.* The arteries of the rectum are ſo called: they are

sometimes two, and at other times three in number. 1. The upper hæmorrhoidal artery, which is the great branch of the lower mesenteric continued into the pelvis. 2. The middle hæmorrhoidal, which sometimes comes off from the hypogastric artery, and very often from the pudical artery. It is sometimes wanting. 3. The lower or external hæmorrhoidal is almost always a branch of the pudical artery, or that artery which goes to the penis.

HÆMORRHOIDAL VEINS. *Venæ Hæmorrhoidales.* These are two. 1. The external, which evacuates itself into the vena iliaca interna. 2. The internal, which conveys its blood into the vena portæ.

HÆMORRHOIS, (*Hæmorrhois, ĭdis*, f. αἱμορροΐς; from αἷμα, blood, and ῥέω to flow). *Aimorrhois.* The Piles. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *hæmorrhagiæ* of Cullen. They are certain excrescences arising about the verge of the anus, or the inferior part of the intestinum rectum. The rectum, as well as the colon, is composed of several muscular membranes, connected to each other by an intervening cellular substance; and as the muscular fibres of this intestine always tend by their contraction, to lessen its cavity, the internal membrane, which is very lax, forms itself into several rugæ or folds. In this construction nature respects the use of the part, which occasionally gives passage to, or allows the retention of the excrements, the hardness and bulk of which might produce considerable lacerations, if this intestine was not capable of dilatation. The arteries and veins subservient to this part are called hæmorrhoidal, and the blood that returns from hence is carried to the meseraic veins. The intestinum rectum is particularly subject to the hæmorrhoids, from its situation, structure, and use; for whilst the course of the blood is assisted in almost all the other veins of the body, by the distention of the adjacent muscles, and the pressure of the neighbouring parts, the blood in the hæmorrhoidal veins which is to ascend against the natural tendency of its own weight, is not only destitute of these assistances, but is impeded in its passage: for, first, the large excrements which lodge in this intestine dilate its sides, and the different resistances which they form there are so many impediments obstructing the return of the blood; not in the large veins, for they are placed along the external surface of the intestine, but in all the capillaries which enter into its composition. Secondly, as often as these large excrements, protruded by others, approach near the anus, their successive pressure upon the internal coats of the intestine, which they dilate, drives back the blood into the veins, and for so long suspends its course; the necessary consequence of which is, a distention of the veins in proportion to the quantity of blood that fills them. Thirdly, in every effort we make, either in going to stool, or upon any other occasion, the contraction of the abdominal muscles, and the diaphragm pressing the contents of the abdomen downwards, and these pressing upon the parts contained in the pelvis, another obstruction is thereby opposed to the return of the blood, not only in the large veins, but also in the capillaries, which being of too weak a texture to resist the impulse of the blood, that always tends to dilate them, may thereby become varicose.

The dilatation of all these vessels is the *primary cause* of the hæmorrhoids; for the internal coat of the intestine, and the cellular membrane which connects that to the muscular coat, are enlarged in proportion to the distention of the vessels of which they are composed. This distention not being equal in every part, produces separate tumours in the gut, or at the verge of the anus, which in

creaſes according as the venal blood is obſtructed in them, or circulates there more ſlowly.

Whatever, then, is capable of retarding the courſe of the blood in the hæmorrhoidal veins, may occaſion this diſeaſe. Thus, perſons that are generally coſtive, who are accuſtomed to ſit long at ſtool, and ſtrain hard; pregnant women, or ſuch as have had difficult labours; and likewiſe perſons who have an obſtruction in their liver, are for the moſt part afflicted with the piles; yet every one has not the hæmorrhoids, the different cauſes which are mentioned above being not common to all, or at leaſt not having in all the ſame effects. When the hæmorrhoids are once formed, they ſeldom diſappear entirely, and we may judge of thoſe within the rectum by thoſe which, being at the verge of the anus, are plainly to be ſeen. A ſmall pile, that has been painful for ſome days, may ceaſe to be ſo, and dry up; but the ſkin does not afterwards retain its former firmneſs, being more lax and wrinkled, like the empty ſkin of a grape. If this external pile ſwells and ſinks again ſeveral times, we may perceive, after each return, the remains of each pile, though ſhrivelled and decayed, yet ſtill left larger than before. The caſe is the ſame with thoſe that are ſituated within the rectum; they may happen indeed never to return again, if the cauſe that produced them is removed; but it is probable that the excrements in paſſing out occaſion a return of the ſwelling, to which the external ones are leſs liable: for the internal piles make a ſort of knots or tumours in the inteſtine, which ſtraightening the paſſage, the excrements in paſſing out occaſion irritations there that are more or leſs painful in proportion to the efforts which the perſon makes in going to ſtool; and it is thus theſe tumours become gradually larger. The hæmorrhoids are ſubject to many variations; they may become inflamed from the above irritations to which they are expoſed, and this inflammation cannot always be removed by art. In ſome, the inflammation terminates in an abſceſs, which ariſes in the middle of the tumour, and degenerates into a fiſtula. Theſe piles are very painful till the abſceſs is formed. In others, the inflammation terminates by induration of the hæmorrhoid, which remains in a manner ſchirrous. Theſe never leſſen, but muſt neceſſarily grow larger. This ſchirrous ſometimes ulcerates, and continually diſcharges a ſanies, which the patient perceives by ſtains on his ſhirt, and by its occaſioning a very troubleſome itching about the verge of the anus. Theſe kinds of hæmorrhoids ſometimes turn cancerous. There are ſome hæmorrhoids, and thoſe of different ſizes, which are covered with ſo fine a ſkin as frequently to admit blood to paſs through. This fine ſkin is only the internal coat of the rectum, greatly attenuated by the varicoſe diſtention of its veſſels. The hæmorrhage may proceed from two cauſes, namely, either from an excoriation produced by the hardneſs of the excrements, or from the rupture of the tumefied veſſels, which break by their too great diſtention. In ſome of theſe, the patient voids blood almoſt every time he goes to ſtool; in others not ſo conſtantly. We ſometimes meet with men who have a periodical bleeding by the piles, not unlike the menſes in women; and as this evacuation, if moderate, does not weaken the conſtitution, we may infer that it ſupplies ſome other evacuation which nature either ceaſes to carry on, or does not furniſh in due quantity; and hence alſo we may explain why the ſuppreſſion of this diſcharge, to which nature had been accuſtomed, is frequently attended with dangerous diſeaſes. The hæmorrhoids are ſometimes diſtended to that degree as to

fill the rectum, so that if the excrements are at all hard they cannot pass. In this case the excrements force the hæmorrhoids out of the anus to procure a free passage, consequently the internal coat of the rectum, to which they are connected, yields to extension, and upon examining these patients immediately after having been at stool, a part of the internal coat of that gut is perceived forming a sort of ligature or stricture round the hæmorrhoids. A difficulty will occur in the return of these, in proportion to their size, and as the verge of the anus is more or less contracted. If the bleeding piles come out in the same manner upon going to stool, it is then they void most blood, because the verge of the anus forms a kind of ligature above them.

HAIR. *Pili. Capilli.* The hairs of the human body are thin, elastic, dry filaments, arising from the skin. They consist of the *bulb*, situated under the skin, which is a vascular and nervous vesicle; and a *trunk*, which perforates the skin and cuticle, and is covered with a peculiar vagina. The colour of hair varies; its seat, however, is in the medullary juice. The hair, according to its situation, is differently named; thus, on the head it is called *capilli*; over the eyes, *supercilia*; *cilia*, on the margin of the eyelids; *vibrissæ*, in the foramina of the nostrils; *pili auriculares*, in the external auditory passage; *mystax*, on the upper lip; and *barba*, on the lower jaw.

HALĬTUS, (*Halitus, ûs*, m.). A vapour, or gaz. See *Gaz.*

HALICABACUM, (*Halicabacum, i*, n. αλικακαβος, from αλ, the sea, and κακαβος, night-shade; so called because it grows upon the banks of the sea). See *Alkekengi.*

HALO, (*Halo, ōnis*, m. αλως, from αλος, an area or circle). The red circle surrounding the nipple, which becomes somewhat brown in old people, and is beset with many sebaceous glands.

HALLŪCĬNĀTIO, (*Hallucinatio, onis*, f. from *hallucinor*, to err). A depraved or erroneous imagination.

HAMŬLUS, (*Hamulus, i*, m. dim. of *hamus*, a hook). A term in anatomy, applied to any hooklike process, as the hamulus of the pterygoid process of the sphænoid bone.

HAND, (*Manus, us*, f.). The hand is composed of the carpus or wrist, metacarpus, and fingers. The arteries of the hand are the *palmary arch* and the *digital arteries*. The veins are the *digital*, the *cephalic of the thumb*, and the *salvatella*. The nerves are the *cutaneus externus* and *internus*.

HARDESIA. See *Lapis Hibernicus.*

HARE LIP, (λαγοχειλος, *Lagocheilus* seu *labia leporina*). A natural defect in some part of the upper or under lip, so named from some fancied resemblance in the diseased lip to that of an hare. In some the division is large, and a great part of the lip appears to be defective. The fissure is single, double, or complicated; the single has an angular point somewhat like the Roman letter Λ reversed, except that the sides and points are not regular; the double is more inclined to the form of the letter M; the complicated, is when either of the former is attended with a division of the palate on each side, in part, or extending to the back nostrils and uvula, in which case the latter often proves defective.

HARMŌNĬA, (*Harmonia, æ*, f. αρμονια, from αρω, to fit together). Harmony. A species of synarthrosis, or immoveable connexion of bones, in which bones are connected together by means of rough margins, not dentiform: in this manner most of the bones of the face are connected together.

HARROGATE WATER. A cold sulphureous water, considerable compound in its constitution, containing about a twelfth of its bulk of hepatic gaz, and a number of purgative salts.

which in moſt perſons produces a very ſenſible determination to the bowels. It is uſed in obſtinate coſtive habits that accompany hypochondriaſis, in ſcrophula, and particularly in cutaneous diſeaſes, elephantiaſis, lepra, and alſo in hæmorrhoids, and in the cure of inteſtinal worms, when taken in ſuch a doſe as to prove a briſk purgative.

HARTFELL WATER. A chalybeate water. It has been found particularly ſerviceable in diſorders of the ſtomach and bowels, bloody flux, bloody urine, immoderate flow of the menſes, or their ſuppreſſion, fluor albus, gleets, &c. It has alſo been applied externally to old and languid ulcers.

HARTSHORN. See *Cornu cervi.*

HARTSHORN SHAVINGS. *Raſura cornu cervi.* See *Cornu cervi.*

HARTS TONGUE. See *Scolopendrium.*

HART-WORT. See *Seſeli.*

HART-WORT OF MARSEILLES. See *Seſeli Marſilienſe.*

HAY-CAMELS. See *Juncus odoratus.*

HEAD, (*Caput, itis,* n.). The ſuperior part of the body placed upon the neck, containing the cerebrum, cerebellum, and medulla oblongata. It is divided into the *face* and *hairy* part. On the latter is obſerved the *vertex*, or crown of the head; the *ſinciput*, or fore part; the *occiput*, or hinder part. For the former, ſee *Face.* For the bones and muſcles of the head, ſee *Cranium.* The common integuments of the head are called the ſcalp.

HEARING, (*Auditus, us,* m.). This ſenſe is placed by phyſiologiſts among the animal actions. It is a ſenſation by which we hear the ſound of ſonorous bodies. The organ of hearing is the ſoft portion of the auditory nerve which is diſtributed on the veſtibule, ſemicircular canals, and cochlea.

HEART, (*Cor, dis,* n.). A hollow muſcular viſcus, ſituated in the cavity of the pericardium for the circulation of the blood. It is divided externally into a *baſe*, or its broad part; a *ſuperior*, and an *inferior ſurface*, and an *anterior* and *poſterior* margin. Internally it is divided into a *right* and *left ventricle.* The ſituation of the heart is oblique, not tranſverſe; its baſe being placed on the right of the bodies of the vertebræ, and its apex obliquely to the ſixth rib on the left ſide; ſo that the left ventricle is almoſt poſterior, and the right anterior. Its inferior ſurface lies upon the diaphragm. There are two cavities adhering to the baſe of the heart, from their reſemblance called *auricles.* The right auricle is a muſcular ſac, in which are four *apertures*, two of the venæ cavæ, an opening into the right ventricle, and the opening of the coronary vein. The left is a ſimilar ſac, in which there are five *apertures*, viz. thoſe of the four pulmonary veins, and an opening into the left ventricle. The cavities in the baſe of the heart are called *ventricles:* theſe are divided by a fleſhy ſeptum, called *ſeptum cordis*, into a right and left. Each ventricle has two *orifices*; the one auricular, through which the blood enters, the other arterious, through which the blood paſſes out. Theſe four orifices are ſupplied with *valves*, which are named from their reſemblance; thoſe at the arterious orifices are called the *ſemilunar*; thoſe at the orifice of the right auricle, *mitral*; and thoſe at the orifice of the left auricle, *tricuſpid. The valve of Euſtachius* is ſituated at the termination of the vena cava inferior, juſt within the auricle. The ſubſtance of the heart is muſcular, its exterior fibres are longitudinal, its middle tranſverſe, and its interior oblique. The internal ſuperficies of the ventricles and auricles of the heart is inveſted with a ſtrong and ſmooth membrane, which

is extremely irritable. The veſſels of the heart are divided into *common* and *proper*. The *common* are, 1. The *aorta*, which ariſes from the left ventricle. 2. The *pulmonary artery*, which originates from the right ventricle. 3. The four pulmonary veins, which terminate in the left auricle. 4. The *venæ cavæ*, which evacuate themſelves into the right auricle. The *proper veſſels* are, 1. The *coronary arteries*, which ariſe from the aorta, and are diſtributed on the heart. 2. The *coronary veins*, which return the blood into the right auricle. The *nerves* of the heart are branches of the eighth and great intercoſtal pairs. The heart of the fœtus differs from that of the adult in having a *foramen ovale*, through which the blood paſſes from the right auricle to the left.

HEARTS EASE. See *Viola tricolor*.

HEAT. See *Caloric*, *Animal heat*, and *Fire*.

HEAT, ABSOLUTE. This term is applied to the whole quantity of caloric exiſting in a body in chemical union.

HEAT, ANIMAL. See *Animal heat*.

HEAT, FREE. If the heat which exiſts in any ſubſtance be from any cauſe forced in ſome degree to quit that ſubſtance, and to combine with thoſe that ſurround it, then ſuch heat is ſaid to be free or ſenſible, until the equilibrium is reſtored.

HEAT, LATENT. When any body is in equilibrium with the bodies which ſurround it with reſpect to its heat, that quantity which it contains is not perceptible by any external ſign or organ of ſenſe, and is termed combined caloric, or latent heat.

HEAT, SENSIBLE. See *Heat, free*.

HEAT, SPECIFIC. The property of bodies to acquire different quantities of caloric, to indicate the ſame temperature to the thermometer, was termed by Dr. Black the capacity of a body for heat, and the quantity of caloric itſelf he called ſpecific heat.

HECTIC, (from ἕξις, habit). See *Febris hectica*.

HEDĔRA, (*hedera, æ*, f. from *hæreo*, to ſtick, becauſe it attaches itſelf to trees and old walls). The ivy.

HEDĔRA ARBORĔA. The ivy. The leaves of this tree, *Hedera helix* of Linnæus, have little or no ſmell, but a very nauſeous taſte. Haller informs us, that they are recommended in Germany againſt the atrophy of children. By the common people in this country they are ſometimes applied to running ſores, and to keep iſſues open. The berries were ſuppoſed by the antients to have a purgative and emetic quality; and an extract was made from them by water, called by Quercetanius *extractum purgans*. Later writers have recommended them in ſmall doſes as alexepharmic and ſudorific: it is ſaid, that in the plague at London, the powder of them was given in vinegar or white wine with good ſucceſs. It is from the ſtalk of this tree that a reſinous juice exudes very plentifully in warm climates. See *Gummi hederæ*.

HEDĔRA HELIX. The ſyſtematic name of the ivy tree. See *Hedera arborea*.

HĔDĔRA TERRESTRIS. Ground-ivy, or gill. *Glecoma hederacea*; *foliis reniformibus crenatis*, of Linnæus. Claſs *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnoſpermia*. This indigenous plant has a peculiar ſtrong ſmell, and a bitteriſh ſomewhat aromatic taſte. It is one of thoſe plants which was formerly much eſteemed for poſſeſſing virtues that, in the preſent age, cannot be detected. In obſtinate coughs it is a favourite remedy with the poor.

HEDGE HYSSOP. See *Gratiola*.

HEDGE MUSTARD. See *Eryſimum*.

HEDGE MUSTARD, STINKING. See *Alliaria*.

HELCŌNĬA, (*Helconia, æ*, f. from ελκος, an ulcer). An ulcer in the external or internal ſuperficies of the cornea, known by an excavation and ouzing of purulent matter from the cornea.

HELENĬUM, (*Helenium, i*, n. ελενιον, from *Helene*, the iſland where they grew). See *Enula campana*.

HELĬCIS MAJOR, (*Helix, ĭcis*, m.). A proper muſcle of the ear, which depreſſes the part of the cartilage of the ear into which it is inſerted; it lies upon the upper or ſharp point of the helix or outward ring, ariſing from the upper and acute part of the helix anteriorly, and paſſing to be inſerted into its cartilage a little above the tragus.

HELĬCIS MINOR. A proper muſcle of the ear, which contracts the fiſſure of the ear: it is ſituated below the helicis major, upon part of the helix. It ariſes from the inferior and anterior part of the helix, and is inſerted into the crus of the helix, near the fiſſure in the cartilage oppoſite to the concha.

HELĬOTROPĬI SUCCUS. See *Bezetta cærulea*.

HELIX, (*Helix, ĭcis*, m. ελιξ, from ειλω, to turn about). The external circle or border of the outer ear, that curls inwards.

HELLĔBŌRĀSTER, (*Helleboraſtrum, i*, n. from ελλεβορος, hellebore). Fetid hellebore, or bear's foot. *Helleborus fœtidus*, of Linnæus. *Helleborus caule multifloro folioſo; foliis pedatis*. Claſs *Polyandria*. Order *Polygynia*. The leaves of this indigenous plant are recommended by many as poſſeſſing extraordinary anthelmintic powers. The ſmell of the recent plant is extremely fetid, and the taſte is bitter and remarkably acrid, inſomuch that, when chewed, it excoriates the mouth and fauces. It commonly operates as a cathartic, ſometimes as an emetic, and in large doſes proves highly deleterious.

HELLEBORE, BLACK. See *Helleborus niger*.

HELLEBORE, WHITE. See *Helleborus albus*.

HELLĔBŌRUS ALBUS, (*Helleborus, i*, m. from ελλεβορος; παρα το τη βορα ελειν, becauſe it deſtroys if eaten). *Veratrum album. Elleborum album.* White hellebore or veratrum. *Veratrum album racemo ſupradecompoſito, corollis erectis*, of Linnæus. Claſs *Polygamia*. Order *Monoecia*. This plant is a native of Italy, Switzerland, Auſtria, and Ruſſia. Every part of the plant is extremely acrid and poiſonous. The dried root has no particular ſmell, but a durable, nauſeous, and bitter taſte, burning the mouth and fauces: when powdered and applied to iſſues or ulcers, it produces griping and purging; if ſnuffed up the noſe, it proves a violent ſternutatory. Geſner made an infuſion of half an ounce of this root with two ounces of water; of this he took two drachms, which produced great heat about the ſcapulæ and in the face and head, as well as the tongue and throat, followed by ſingultus, which continued till vomiting was excited. Bergius alſo experienced very diſtreſſing ſymptoms upon taſting this infuſion. The root, taken in large doſes, diſcovers ſuch acrimony, and operates by the ſtomach and rectum with ſuch violence, that blood is uſually diſcharged: it likewiſe acts very powerfully upon the nervous ſyſtem, producing great anxiety, tremors, vertigo, ſyncope, aphonia, interrupted reſpiration, ſinking of the pulſe, convulſions, ſpaſms, and death. Upon opening thoſe who have died of the effects of this poiſon, the ſtomach diſcovered marks of inflammation, with corroſions of its internal coat. The ancients exhibited this active medicine in maniacal caſes, and it is ſaid with ſucceſs. The experience of Greding is ſomewhat ſimilar:

out of twenty-eight cases in which he exhibited the bark of the root collected in the spring, five were cured. In almost every case that he relates, the medicine acted more or less upon all the excretions; vomiting and purging were very generally produced, and the matter thrown off the stomach was constantly mixed with bile; a florid redness frequently appeared on the face, and various cutaneous efflorescences upon the body; and, in some, pleuritic symptoms, with fever, supervened, so as to require bleeding; nor were the more alarming affections of spasms and convulsions unfrequent. Critical evacuations were also very evident; many sweated profusely, in some the urine was considerably increased, in others the saliva and mucous discharges: and uterine obstructions, of long duration, were often removed by its use. Veratrum has likewise been found useful in epilepsy and other convulsive complaints: but the diseases in which its efficacy seems least equivocal are those of the skin, as itch, and different prurient eruptions, herpes, morbus pediculosus, lepra, scrofula, &c. and in many of these it has been successfully employed both internally and externally. As a powerful stimulant and irritating medicine, its use has been resorted to in desperate cases only, and even then it ought first to be exhibited in very small doses, as a grain, and in a diluted state, and to be gradually increased, according to the effects, which are generally of an alarming nature.

HELLĔBŎRUS FŒTĬDUS. The systematic name of the fœtid hellebore. See *Helleboraster*.

HELLĔBŎRUS NIGER. *Melampodĭum*. Black hellebore, or Christmas rose. *Helleborus niger* of Linnæus. *Helleborus foapo subbiflore subnudo; foliis pedatis*. Class *Polyandria*. Order *Potygynia*. The root of this exotic plant is the part employed medicinally: its taste, when fresh, is bitterish and somewhat acrid: it also emits a nauseous acrid smell, but being long kept, both its sensible qualities and medicinal activity suffer very considerable diminution. The ancients esteemed it as a powerful remedy in maniacal cases. At present it is exhibited principally as an alterative, or, when given in a large dose, as a purgative. It often proves a very powerful emmenagogue in plethoric habits, where steel is ineffectual or improper. It is also recommended in dropsies, and some cutaneous diseases.

HELMET-FLOWER, YELLOW. See *Anthora*.

HELMINTHAGOGUES, (*Helminthagoga*, ελμινθαγωγα, from ελμινς, a worm, and αγω, to drive out). Medicines which destroy and expel worms. See *Anthelmintics*.

HELMINTHĪASIS, (*Helminthiasis, is*, f. ελμινθιασις, from ελμινθις, which signifies any species of worm). A disease in which worms, or the larvæ of worms, are bred under the skin, or some external part of the body. It is endemial to Martinique, Westphalia, Transylvania, and some other places.

HELMINTHOCHORTON, (*Helminthochorton, i*). See *Carolina corsicana*.

HEMĔRALŌPĬA, (*Hemeralopia, æ*, f. ημεραλωπια, from ημερα, a day, and οπω, to see). Crepusculary blindness. A defect of vision, in which the patient sees perfectly well all day, but in the crepuscular light, as in the evening, perceives little or nothing. It is often endemic to China, Barbadoes, the Brazils, and Poland.

HEMERALOPS, (*Hemeralops ōpis*, f. ημεραλωψ, from ημερα, the day, and ωψ, an eye). One who can see but in the day time.

HEMICRANĬA, (*Hemicrania, æ*, f. ημικρανια, from ημισυς, half, and κρανιον, the head). A pain that affects only one side of the head.

HEMIOPSĬA, (*Hemiopsia, æ*, f. ημιοψια, from ημισυς, half, and ωψ, an eye). A defect of vision, in which the person sees the half, but not the whole of an object.

HEMIPLĒGĬA, (*Hemiplegia, æ*, f. ημιπληγια, from ημισυς, half, and πλησσω, to strike). A paralytic affection of one side of the body. See *Paralysis*.

HEMLOCK. See *Cicuta*.

HEMLOCK, DROPWORT. See *Oenanthe*.

HEMLOCK, WATER. See *Cicuta aquatica*.

HEMP. See *Cannabis*.

HEMP-AGRIMONY. See *Eupatorium*.

HEMP, WATER. See *Eupatorium*.

HENBANE. See *Hyoscíamus*.

HEPAR, (*Hepar, ătis*, n. ηπαρ, the liver). See *Liver*.

HEPAR ANTIMONII. See *Oxydum stibii sulphuratum*.

HEPAR SULPHŬRIS. Liver of sulphur. This is a *sulphuret* made either with potash or soda. It has a disagreeable fœtid smell, but is in high esteem as a medicine to decompose corrosive sublimate when taken into the stomach.

HEPATALGĬA, (*Hepatalgia, æ*, f. ηπαταλγια, from ηπαρ, the liver, and αλγος, pain). Pain in the liver.

HEPATIC. Any thing belonging to the liver.

HEPATIC AIR. Hepatic airs consist of inflammable air combined with sulphur, which exists in very different proportions. Where each ingredient is combined merely to saturation, it is called simply *sulphurated hydrogen*, but where the sulphur is in excess, it is termed *super-sulphurated hydrogen*. Sulphurated hydrogen, combined with any base, forms a *hydrosulphuret*, and may be also called an *hepatule*, to distinguish it from an *hepar*, which is the union of sulphur singly with a basis.

HEPATIC ARTERY. *Arteria hepatica*. The artery which nourishes the substance of the liver. It arises from the cœliac, where it almost touches the point of the *lobulus Spigelii*. Its root is covered by the pancreas; it then turns a little forwards, and passes under the pylorus to the porta of the liver, and runs betwixt the biliary ducts and the vena portæ, where it divides into two large branches, one of which enters the right, and the other the left lobe of the liver. In this place it is enclosed along with all the other vessels in the capsule of Glisson.

HEPATIC DUCT. *Ductus hepaticus*. The trunk of the biliary pores. It runs from the sinus of the liver towards the duodenum, and is joined by the cystic duct, to form the ductus communis choledochus. See *Biliary Ducts*.

HEPATIC VEINS. See *Cavæ hepaticæ, and Vena portæ*.

HEPATĬCA, (*Hepatica, æ*, f. from ηπαρ, the liver, so called because it was thought to be useful in diseases of the liver). The herb liver-wort.

HEPATĬCA NOBĬLIS. *Herba trinitatis*. Hepatica or herb trinity. This plant, *Anemone hepatica* of Linnæus, possesses mildly adstringent and corroborant virtues, with which intentions infusions of it have been drank as tea, or the powder of the dry leaves given, to the quantity of half a spoonful at a time.

HEPATĬCA TERRESTRIS. *Jecoraria*. Liver-wort. This is a species of *Marchantia*, the *polymaphia*, which is very common in this country. It has a penetrating though mild pungency, and bitter taste, sinking, as it were, into the tongue. It is recommended as an aperient, resolvent, and antiscorbutic, and, though seldom used in this country, appears to be a plant of no inconsiderable virtue.

HEPATĪTIS, (*Hepatitis, ĭdis*, f. ηπατιτις, from ηπαρ, the liver). Inflammation of the liver. A genus of

diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ*, and order *phlegmaſiæ*, of Cullen. It is characterized by pyrexia, tenſion, and more or leſs of acute pain in the right hypochondrium, which is frequently referred to the top of the right ſhoulder, which is increaſed by lying on the left ſide, the urine is high-coloured.

HEPATIRRHŒA, (*Hepatirrhœa, æ*, f. ηπατιρροια, from ηπαρ, the liver, and ῥεω, to flow). A ſpecies of diarrhœa. See *Diarrhœa*.

HEPATOCELE, (*Hepatocele, es*, f. ηπατοκηλη, from ηπαρ, the liver, and κηλη, a tumour). An hernia, in which a portion of the liver protrudes through the abdominal parietes.

HEPATORĬUM. The ſame as *Eupatorium*.

HEPATULE. See *Hepatic air*.

HEPTAPHYLLUM, (*Heptaphyllum, i*, n. from επτα, ſeven, and φυλλον, a leaf). See *Tormentilla*.

HERACĒLUM SPHONDYLĬUM. The ſyſtematic name of the Spondylium of the ſhops. See *Spondylium*.

HERBA BRITANNĬCA. See *Hydrolapathum*.

HERBA SACRA. See *Verbena*.

HERB-BENITET. See *Caryophyllata*.

HERB-MASTICH. See *Marum vulgare*.

HERB-OF-GRACE. See *Gratiola*.

HERB-TRINITY. See *Hepatica nobilis*.

HERCULES'S ALLHEAL. See *Panax*.

HEREDITARY DISEASE, (from *hæres*, an heir). A diſeaſe which is continued from parents to their children.

HERMAPHRODITE, (*Hermaphrodītus, i*, m. ερμαφροδιτος, from Ἑρμης, Mercury, and Ἀφροδιτη, Venus, *i. e.* partaking of both ſexes). The true hermaphrodite of the ancients was, the man with male organs of generation, and the female ſtature of body, that is, narrow cheſt and large pelvis; or the woman with female organs of generation, and the male ſtature of body, that is, broad cheſt and narrow pelvis. The term is now, however, uſed to expreſs any *luſus naturæ* wherein the parts of generation appear to be a mixture of both ſexes.

HERMODACTYL. See *Hermodactylus*.

HERMODACTŸLUS, (*Hermodactylus, i*, ερμοδακτυλος. Etymologiſts have always derived this word from Ερμης, Mercury, and δακτυλος, a finger. It is probably named from *Hermus*, a river in Aſia, upon whoſe banks it grows, and δακτυλος, a date, which it is like). The root of a ſpecies of colchicum, not yet aſcertained, but ſuppoſed to be the *Colchicum illyricum* of Linnæus, of the ſhape of a heart, flattened on one ſide, with a furrow on the other, of a white colour, compact and ſolid, yet eaſy to cut or powder. This root, which has a viſcous, ſweetiſh, faranaceous taſte, and no remarkable ſmell, is imported from Turkey. Their uſe is totally laid aſide in the practice of the preſent day. Formerly they were eſteemed as cathartics, which power is wanting in thoſe that reach this country.

HERNIARĬA, (*Herniaria, æ*, f. from *hernia*, a rupture, ſo called from its ſuppoſed efficacy in curing ruptures). Rupture-wort. This plant, though formerly eſteemed as efficacious in the cure of hernias, appears to be deſtitute not only of ſuch virtues but of any other. It is the *Herniaia glabra* of Linnæus; has no ſmell nor taſte.

HERNIARĬA GLABRA. The ſyſtematic name of the rupture-wort. See *Herniaria*.

HERNĬA, (*Hernia, æ*, f. from ερνος, a branch, becauſe it protrudes forwards). Hernia is a ſwelling produced by the falling down, or protru-

ſion of ſome part or parts which ought naturally to be contained within the cavity of the belly.

The places in which theſe ſwellings make their appearance, in order to form what is called hernia, are the groin, the navel, the labia pudendi, the upper and fore part of the thigh, and every point of the anterior part of the abdomen.

The parts which, by being thruſt forth from the cavity in which they ought naturally to remain, and which form theſe tumours, are, a portion of the omentum, a part of the inteſtinal canal, and ſometimes, though very rarely, the ſtomach and liver.

From theſe two circumſtances, of ſituation and contents, are derived all the different appellations by which hernias are diſtinguiſhed; for example, they are called inguinal, ſcrotal, femoral, umbilical, and ventral, as they happen to make their appearance in the groin, ſcrotum, thigh, navel, or belly. If a portion of inteſtine only forms it, it is called *enterocele*, hernia inteſtinalis, or gut rupture: if a piece of omentum only, *epiplocele*, hernia omentalis, or caul rupture; and if both inteſtine and omentum contribute mutually to the formation of the tumour, it is called *Entero-epiplocele*, or compound rupture.

If the piece of gut or caul deſcends no lower than the groin, it is ſaid to be incomplete, and is called *bubonocele*; if the ſcrotum be occupied by either of them, the rupture is ſaid to be complete, and bears the name of *oſcheocele*; the latter uſed by our forefathers to be attributed to laceration of the peritoneum, the former to its dilatation merely.

The opinion that the ſcrotal hernia is occaſioned by a forcible diviſion or breach made in the peritoneum, has always been, and ſtill is, with the unknowing, a very prevailing one, though without any foundation in truth; both the ſcrotal and femoral paſs out from the abdomen by openings which are natural to every human body, as well thoſe who have not ruptures, as thoſe who have. The former, that is the ſcrotal, deſcend by means of an aperture in the tendon of the external oblique muſcle, near the groin, deſigned for the paſſage of the ſpermatic veſſels in men, and the round liguments of women; and the latter, under the hollow made by Poupart's or Fallopius's liguments, at the upper part of the thigh, along with the great crural vein and artery.

HERNĬA CONGĔNĬTA, (ſo called becauſe it is, as it were, born with the perſon). This ſpecies of hernia conſiſts in the adheſion of a protruded portion of inteſtine or omentum to the teſticle, after its deſcent into the ſcrotum. This adheſion takes place while the teſticle is yet in the abdomen. Upon its leaving the abdomen, it draws the adhering inteſtine or omentum along with it into the ſcrotum, where it forms the hernia congenita.

HERNĬA CRURĀLIS. Femoral hernia. There is no difference between an inguinal and crural hernia, but what ariſes from the places where they are formed. Men are moſt ſubject to inguinal, and women to crural hernia, proceeding from the figure of the pelvis, which is largeſt in women, while the uterus and the bladder concur by their bulk to force the inteſtines on each ſide the *oſſa ilia*, being more ſpread in them than in men, afford larger ſpaces for the parts to be received on the ſides, and to recede from the groin. In the crural hernia, the parts generally paſs out of the abdomen under Poupart's ligament, in the ſpace formed by the attachments of this ligament to the *os pubis*. It is owing to the fat which envelopes the crural veſſels, that the viſcera more eaſily ſlip down under this ligament; and thoſe veſſels are always found behind the hernia. The parts

extend themſelves afterwards more or leſs under the aponeuroſis, which proceeds from the ligament, and covers the muſcles that form the fore part of the thigh. The peritoneum, in its natural ſtate, obſtructs their paſſage here, as it does at the ring, but it likewiſe gives way, as in the inguinal hernia, to the preſſure of the viſcera, and, being diſtended, forms a hernial bag, of a greater or leſs ſize, according to the bulk of the prolapſed parts. In the inguinal hernia, the *colon* is ſometimes found, and the *cæcum* very ſeldom; but in the crural hernia, the bag of the cæcum is frequently ſeen, with the beginning of the colon.

Hernĭa humorālis. Inflammation of the teſticle. See *Orchitis*.

Hernĭa incarcerāta. A rupture is ſaid to be incarcerated or ſtrangulated, when on a ſudden the protruding viſcus cannot be reduced into its proper cavity, and bad ſymptoms ariſe, as vomiting, colic, and obſtipation, fever and tumour of the part: which alarming ſymptoms ariſe, either from obſtruction of the inteſtines, or from ſuſpended circulation of the blood. The danger in this ſtate depends on the narrowneſs of the ſtrangulating opening, and the extent of the parts which have fallen down.

Hernĭa inguinālis. *The hernia inguinalis* is ſo called becauſe it appears in both ſexes at the groin. It is one of the diviſions of hernia, and includes all thoſe herniæ in which the parts diſplaced paſs out of the abdomen through the ring, that is, the arch formed by the aponeuroſis of the muſculus obliquus externus in the groin, for the paſſage of the ſpermatic veſſels in men, and the round ligament in women. The parts diſplaced that form the hernia, the part into which they fall, the manner of the hernia being produced, and the time it has continued, occaſion great differences in this diſorder. There are three different parts that may produce a hernia in the groin, viz. one or more of the inteſtines, the epiploon, and the bladder. That which is formed by one or more of the inteſtines, was called by the antients *enterocele*. The inteſtine which moſt frequently produces the hernia is the *ilium*: becauſe, being placed in the iliac region, it is nearer the groin than the reſt; but notwithſtanding the ſituation of the other inteſtines, which ſeems not to allow of their coming near the groin, we often find the jejunum, and frequently alſo a portion of the colon and cæcum, included in the hernia. It muſt be remembered, that the meſentery and meſocolon are membranous ſubſtances capable of extenſion, which, by little and little, are ſometimes ſo far ſtretched by the weight of the inteſtines, as to eſcape with the ilium, in this ſpecies of hernia. The hernia made by the epiploon is called *epiplocele*; as that cauſed by the epiploon and one of the inteſtines together is called *entero-epiplocele*. The hernia of the bladder is called *cyſtocele*. Hernia of the bladder is uncommon, and has ſeldom been known to happen but in conjunction with ſome of the viſcera. When the parts, having paſſed through the abdominal rings, deſcend no lower than the groin, it is called an incomplete hernia; when they fall into the ſcrotum in men, or into the *labia pudendi* in women, it is then termed complete.

Herniotomy, (*Herniatomia, æ*, f. from *hernia*, and τεμνω, to cut). The operation to remove the ſtrangulated part in caſes of incarcerated herniæ.

Herpes, (*Herpes, ētis*, m. ερπης, from ερπω, to creep, becauſe it creeps and ſpreads about the ſkin). *Serpigo*. Tetters. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *dialyſis* of Cullen, diſtinguiſhed by an aſſemblage

of little creeping ulcers, itching very much, and not inclined to heal, but terminating in furfuraceous ſcales. There are two ſpecies of this diſeaſe: 1. *Herpes ſimplex*, which correſponds with the above deſcription. 2. *Herpes exedens*, called alſo *ferus* and *eſthiomenos*, which deeply corrodes the ſkin, and continues ſpreading ſometimes over the abdomen or face, or where it is ſituated, and ſometimes becomes cancerous. Herpes has been thought by many to be produced by a bilious acrimony irritating the ſubcutaneous glands. The remote cauſes are the abuſe of ſpices, ſuppreſſed evacuations, cachexiæ, contagion. Herpes is ſometimes critical, ariſing after jaundice, fever, &c. and ſhould not therefore be checked. The *herpes exedens* ſometimes becomes cancerous.

HIBERNĬCUS LAPIS. See *Lapis Hibernicus*.

HIBISCUS, (ἰβίσκος, from ἰβις, the ſtork, who is ſaid to chew it and inject it as a clyſter). The Marſh Mallow.

HIBISCUS ABELMOSCHUS. The ſyſtematic name of the plant whoſe ſeeds are called muſk-ſeeds. See *Abelmoſchus*.

HIERACĬUM PILOCELLA. The ſyſtematic name of the auricula muris. See *Pilocella*.

HIEROBOTANE. See *Verbena*.

HIGHMORE'S ANTRUM. See *Antrum of Highmore*.

HIPPOCĀSTĂNUM, (*Hippocaſtanum*, *i*, n. ἱππυκαſτανον, from ἱππος, a horſe, and καſτανον, a cheſnut, ſo called from its ſize). Common horſe-cheſnut. *Æſculus hippocaſtanum*; *foliolis, ſeptenis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Heptandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The fruit, when dried and powdered, is recommended as an errhine. The bark is highly eſteemed on the continent as a febrifuge, and is by ſome conſidered as being ſuperior in quality to the Peruvian bark. The bark intended for medical uſe is to be taken from thoſe branches which are neither very young nor very old.

HIPPOLAPĂTHUM, (*Hippolapathum*, *i*, n. ἑππαλοπαθον, from ἱππος, a horſe, and λαπαθον, the lapathum, a ſpecies of lapathum, ſo named from its ſize). See *Rhabarbarum monachorum*.

HIPPOMARATHRUM. See *Saxifraga vulgaris*.

HIPPOSELINUM, (*Hippoſelinum*, *i*, n. ἱπποσηλινον, from ἱππος, a horſe, and σελινον, purſlane, ſo named becauſe it reſembles a large kind of purſlane). Common Alexanders. This plant, *Smyrnium oluſatrum* of Linnæus, was formerly cheriſhed in our gardens, for culinary uſe, but is now ſuperceded by celery. The ſeeds are bitter and aromatic, and the roots are more powerfully bitter. They ſtand recommended as reſolvents, diuretics, and emmanagogues, though ſeldom uſed.

HIPPS. The ripe fruit of the dog roſe. See *Cynoſbatus*.

HIPPŪRIS VULGĀRIS, (*Hippuris*, ἱππουρις, from ἱππος, a horſe, and ουρα, a tail, ſo named from its reſemblance to a horſe's tail). See *Equiſetum*.

HIPPUS, (*Hippus*, *i*, from ἱππος, a horſe, becauſe thoſe who labour under this affection are continually twinkling and trembling, as is uſual with thoſe who ride on horſeback). A repeated dilatation and alternate conſtriction of the pupil, ariſing from ſpaſm or convulſion of the iris.

HISPIDŬLA, (*Hiſpidula*, *æ*, f. from *hiſpidus*, rough, ſo named from the rough woolly ſurface of its ſtalks). Cudweed. See *Gnaphalium*.

HIRUNDINARIA, (*Hirundinaria*, *æ*, f. from *hirundo*, the ſwallow, ſo named from the reſemblance of its pods to a ſwallow). Swallow-wort. See *Nummularia* and *Vincetoxicum*.

HOGS-FENNEL. See *Peucedanum*.

HOLLY, KNEE. See *Ruſcus*.

HOLLY, SEA. See *Eryngium.*

HOLOSTEUS, (*Holoſteus*,). See *Oſteocolla.*

HOLY THISTLE. See *Cardius Benedictus.*

HOLYWELL WATER. A mineral water, arranged under the claſs of ſimple cold waters. It poſſeſſes ſimilar virtues to that of Malvern. See *Malvern water.*

HOMBERGS SEDATIVE SALT. See *Boracic acid.*

HOMOGENEOUS, (*Homogeneus*, from ομος, like, and γενος, a kind). Uniform, of a like kind or ſpecies.

HOMOPLĀTÆ OS, (*Omplata, æ*, f. ωμοπλαλα, from ωμος, the ſhoulder, and πλαλα, the blade). See *Scapula.*

HONEY, (*Mel, lis*, n.). A ſubſtance collected by bees from the nectary of flowers, perfectly reſembling ſaccharine juices. It has a white or yellowiſh colour, a ſoft and grained conſiſtence, and a ſaccharine and aromatic ſmell. Honey is an excellent food, and a ſoftening and ſlightly aperient remedy: mixed with vinegar, it forms *oxymel*, and is exhibited in various forms in medicine and pharmacy.

HONEY SUCKLE. See *Lonicera periclemenum.*

HOPS. See *Lupulus.*

HOP-TOPS. The young ſprouts of the hop plant are ſo called; plucked when only a foot above the ground, and boiled, they are eaten with butter as a delicacy, and are very wholeſome.

HORDEŎLUM, (*Hordeolum, i*, n. a dim. of *hordeum*). An inflammatory tubercle, ſimilar to a ſmall boil, in the margin of the eyelids, ſomewhat reſembling a barleycorn.

HORDĔUM, (*Hordeum, i*, n. *ab horrore ariſtæ*, from the unpleaſantneſs of its beard to the touch). Barley. This ſeed is obtained from ſeveral ſpecies of *hordeum*, but principally from the *vulgare* and *diſtichon* of Linnæus. It is extremely nutritious, and mucilagineous, and in common uſe as a drink when boiled in water, in all inflammatory diſeaſes and affections of the cheſt, eſpecially when there is cough or irritation about the fauces. Amongſt the antients, decoctions of barley, Κριθη, was the principal medicine, as well as aliment, in acute diſeaſes. Barley is freed from its ſhells in mills, and in this ſtate called Scotch and French barley. In Holland they make barley into ſmall round grains, ſomewhat like pearls, which is therefore called pearl barley.

HORDĔUM CAUSTĬCUM. See *Cevadilla.*

HORDĔUM DISTICHON. This plant affords the barley in common uſe. See *Hordeum.*

HORDĔUM PERLĀTUM. See *Hordeum.*

HORDĔUM VULGĀRE. The ſyſtematic name of one of the plants which afford the barley. See *Hordeum.*

HOREHOUND. See *Marrubium.*

HORESTRONG. See *Peucedanum.*

HORMĬNUM, (*Horminum, i*, n. ορμινον, from ορμαω, to incite, named from its ſuppoſed qualities of provoking to venery). Garden clary. *Salvia ſclara* of Linnæus.

HORNS, HARTS. See *Cornu cervi.*

HORRIPILATIO, (*Horripilatio, ōnis*, f.) A ſenſe of creeping in different parts of the body. A ſymptom of the approach of fever.

HORSECHESNUT. See *Hippocaſtanum.*

HORSERADISH. See *Raphanus ruſticanus.*

HORSETAIL. See *Equiſetum.*

HOUNDSTONGUE. See *Cynogloſſum.*

HOUSELEEK. See *Sedum magus.*

HUMAN BODY. See *Man.*

HUMERAL ARTERY. *Arteria humeralis.* Brachial artery. The axillary artery having paſſed the tendon of the great pectoral muſcle, changes its name to the brachial or humeral artery, which name it retains in its courſe down the arm to the bend,

where it divides into the radial and ulnar artery. In this courſe it gives off ſeveral muſcular branches, three of which only deſerve attention: 1. *The arteria profunda ſuperior*, which goes round the back of the arm to the exterior muſcles, and is often named the upper muſcular artery. 2. Another, like it, called *arteria profunda inferior*, or the lower muſcular artery. 3. *Ramus anaſtomoticus major*, which anaſtomoſes round the elbow with the branches of the ulnar artery.

HUMĔRUS, (*Humerus*, *i*, m. from ωμος, the ſhoulder). *Os humeri. Os brachii.* A long cylindrical bone, ſituated between the ſcapula and forearm. Its upper extremity is formed ſomewhat laterally and internally, into a large, round, and ſmooth head, which is admitted into the glenoid cavity of the ſcapula. Around the baſis of this head is obſerved a circular foſſa, deepeſt anteriorly and externally, which forms what is called the neck of the bone, and from the edge of which ariſes the capſular ligament, which is farther ſtrengthened by a ſtrong membranous expanſion, extending to the upper edge of the glenoid cavity, and to the coracoid proceſs of the ſcapula; and likewiſe by the tendinous expanſions of the muſcles, inſerted into the head of the humerus.—This capſular ligament is ſometimes torn in luxation, and becomes an obſtacle to the eaſy reduction of the bone. The articulating ſurface of the head is covered by a cartilage, which is thick in its middle part, and thin towards its edges, by which means it is more convex in the recent ſubject than in the ſkeleton. This upper extremity, beſides the round ſmooth head, affords two other ſmaller protuberances. One of theſe, which is the largeſt of the two, is of an irregular oblong ſhape, and is placed at the back of the head of the bone, from which it is ſeparated by a kind of groove that makes a part of the neck. This tuberoſity is divided, at its upper part, into three ſurfaces; the firſt of theſe, which is the ſmalleſt and uppermoſt, ſerves for the inſertion of the ſupraſpinatus muſcle; the ſecond, or middlemoſt, for the inſertion of the infraſpinatus; and the third, which is the loweſt and hindmoſt, for the inſertion of the teres minor. The other ſmaller tuberoſity is ſituated anteriorly between the larger one and the head of the humerus, and ſerves for the inſertion of the ſubſcapularis muſcle. Between theſe two tuberoſities there is a deep groove, for lodging the tendinous head of the biceps brachii; the capſular ligament of the joint affording here a prolongation, thinner than the reſt of the capſula, which covers and accompanies this muſcle to its fleſhy portion, where it gradually diſappears in the adjacent cellular membrane. Immediately below its neck, the os humeri begins to aſſume a cylindrical ſhape, ſo that here the body of the bone may be ſaid to commence. At its upper part is obſerved a continuation of the groove for the biceps, which extends downwards, about a fourth part of the length of the bone, in an oblique direction. The edges of this groove are continuations of the greater and leſſer tuberoſities, and ſerve for the attachment of the pectoralis, latiſſimus dorſi, and teres major muſcles. The groove itſelf is lined with a gliſtening ſubſtance like cartilage, but which ſeems to be nothing more than the remains of tendinous fibres.—A little lower down, towards the external and anterior ſide of the middle of the bone, it is ſeen riſing into a rough ridge, for the inſertion of the deltoid muſcle. On each ſide of this ridge the bone is ſmooth and flat, for the lodgment of the brachialis internus muſcle; and behind the middle part

of the outermoſt ſide of the ridge is a channel, for the tranſmiſſion of veſſels into the ſubſtance of the bone. A little lower down, and near the inner ſide of the ridge, there is ſometimes ſeen ſuch another channel, which is intended for the ſame purpoſe. The os humeri, at its lower extremity, becomes gradually broader and flatter, ſo as to have this end nearly of a triangular ſhape. The bone, thus expanded, affords two ſurfaces, of which the anterior one is the broadeſt, and ſomewhat convex; and the poſterior one narrower and ſmoother. The bone terminates in four large proceſſes, the two outermoſt of which are called *condyles*, though not deſigned for the articulation of the bone. —Theſe condyles, which are placed at ſome diſtance from each other, on each ſide of the bone, are rough and irregular protuberances, formed for the inſertion of muſcles and ligaments, and differ from each other in ſize and ſhape.—The external condyle, when the arm is in the moſt natural poſition, is found to be placed ſomewhat forwarder than the other. The internal condyle is longer, and more protuberant than the external. From each of theſe proceſſes a ridge is continued upwards at the ſides of the bone. In the interval between the two condyles are placed the two articulating proceſſes, contiguous to each other, and covered with cartilage. One of theſe, which is the ſmalleſt, is formed into a ſmall, obtuſe, ſmooth head, on which the radius plays. This little head is placed near the external condyle, as a part of which it has been ſometimes deſcribed. The other, and larger proceſs, is compoſed of two lateral protuberances and a middle cavity, all of which are ſmooth and covered with cartilage. From the manner in which the ulna moves upon this proceſs, it has gotten the name of *trochlea*, or pulley. The ſides of this pulley are unequal; that which is towards the little head is the higheſt of the two; the other, which is contiguous to the external condyle, is more ſlanting, being ſituated obliquely from within outwards, ſo that when the fore-arm is full extended, it does not form a ſtraight line with the os humeri, and, for the ſame reaſon, when we bend the elbow the hand comes not to the ſhoulder as it might be expected to do, but to the fore part of the breaſt. There is a cavity at the root of theſe proceſſes, on each of the two ſurfaces of the bone. The cavity on the anterior ſurface is divided by a ridge into two, the external of which receives the end of the radius, and the internal one lodges the coronoid proceſs of the ulna in the flexions of the fore-arm. The cavity on the poſterior ſurface, at the baſis of the pulley, is much larger, and lodges the olecranon when the arm is extended. The internal ſtructure of the os humeri is ſimilar to that of other long bones. In newborn infants both the ends of the bone are cartilaginous, and the large head, with the two tubercles above, and condyles, with the two articulating proceſſes below, become epiphyſes before they are entirely united to the reſt of the bone.

HUMILIS, (*Humilis*, from *humi*, on the ground, ſo named becauſe it turns the eye downwards, and is expreſſive of humility). See *Rectus inferior oculi*.

HUMOR AQUĔUS. See *Aqueous humour of the eye*.

HUMOR VITRĔUS. See *Vitreous humour*.

HUMOURS OF THE EYE. See *Aqueous* and *Vitreous humour*.

HUMŬLUS LUPŬLUS, (*Humulus*, from *humus*, the ground, ſo named becauſe without factitious ſupport it creeps along the ground). The ſyſtematic name of the hop-plant. See *Lupulus*.

HUNGER. *Fames*. This function

is classed by physiologists under the head of natural actions. It is a sensation in the stomach, caused by the irritation of the gastric juice, inducing a desire for food.

Hurtsickle. The bluebottle, or *cyanus*, is so called because it is troublesome to cut down, and sometimes notches the sickle.

Hyaloid membrane, (*Membrana hyaloidea*; from ὑαλος, glass, and εἰδος, likeness). *Membrana arachnoidea.* Capsule of the vitreous humour. The transparent membrane enclosing the vitreous humour of the eye.

Hydarthrus, (*Hydarthrus, i*, m. ὑδαρθρος, from ὑδωρ, water, and αρθρον, a joint). *Hydarthron. Hydarthros.* A white swelling, or watery joint. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *locales* and order *tumores*. It is known by a uniform swelling around the joint, of the colour of the skin, and extremely painful. It mostly affects the knee and elbow joints. There are two species of this disease: 1. *Hydarthrus rheumaticus*, originating from rheumatism, which is mostly curable. 2. *Hydarthrus scrofulosus*, which is mostly incurable.

Hydatids, (*Hydatis, ĭdis*, ὑδατις, a bladder, from ὑδωρ, water). A very singular animal, formed like a bladder, and distended with an aqueous fluid. These animals are sometimes formed in the natural cavities of the body, as the abdomen and ventricles of the brain, but more frequently in the liver, kidney, and lungs, where they produce diseased actions of those viscera. Cullen arranges these affections in the class *locales* and order *tumores*. If the vires naturæ medicatrices are not sufficient to effect a cure, the patient mostly falls a sacrifice to their ravages.—Dr. Baillie gives the following interesting account of the hydatids, as they are sometimes found in the liver:—There is no gland in the human body in which hydatids are so frequently found as the liver, except the kidneys, where they are still more common. Hydatids of the liver are usually found in the cyst, which is frequently of considerable size, and is formed of very firm materials, so as to give to the touch almost the feeling of cartilage. This cyst, when cut into, is obviously laminated, and is much thicker in one liver than another. In some livers it is not thicker than a shilling, and in others it is near a quarter of an inch in thickness. The laminæ which compose it are formed of a white matter, and on the inside there is a lining of a pulpy substance, like the coagulable lymph. The cavity of the cyst, I have seen, in one instance, subdivided by a partition of this pulpy substance. In a cyst may be found one hydatid, or a greater number of them. They lie loose in the cavity, swimming in a fluid; or some of them are attached to the side of the cyst. They consist of a round bag, which is composed of a white, semi-opaque, pulpy matter, and contain a fluid capable of coagulation. Although the common colour of hydatids be white, yet I have occasionally seen some of a light amber colour. The bag of the hydatid consists of two laminæ, and possesses a good deal of contractile power. In one hydatid this coat or bag is much thicker and more opaque than in another, and even in the same hydatid different parts of it will often differ in its thickness. On the inside of an hydatid, smaller ones are sometimes found, which are commonly not larger than the heads of pins, but sometimes they are even larger in their size than a gooseberry. These are attached to the larger hydatid, either at scattered irregular distances, or so as to form small clusters; and they are also found floating loose in the liquor of the larger hydatids. Hydatids of the liver are often found un-

connected with each other; but sometimes they have been said to inclose each other in a series, like pill-boxes. The most common situation of hydatids of the liver is in its substance, and inclosed in a cyst; but they are occasionally attached to the outer surface of the liver, hanging from it, and occupying more or less of the general cavity of the abdomen. The origin and real nature of these hydatids are not fully ascertained; it is extremely probable, however, that they are a sort of imperfect animalcules. There is no doubt at all, that the hydatids in the livers of sheep are animalcules; they have been often seen to move when taken out of the liver and put into warm water; and they retain this power of motion for a good many hours after a sheep has been killed. The analogy is great between hydatids in the liver of a sheep and those of the human subject. In both they are contained in strong cysts, and in both they consist of the same whitepulpy matter. There is undoubtedly some difference between them in simplicity of organization: the hydatid in the human liver being a simple uniform bag, and the hydatid in that of a sheep having a neck and mouth appended to the bag. This difference need be no considerable objection to the opinion above stated. Life may be conceived to be attached to the most simple form of organization. In proof of this, hydatids have been found in the brains of sheep, resembling almost exactly those in the human liver, and which have been seen to move, and therefore are certainly known to be animalcules. The hydatids of the human liver indeed, have not, as far as I know, been found to move when taken out of the body and put into warm water; were this to have happened, no uncertainty would remain. It is not difficult to see a good reason why there will hardly occur any proper opportunity of making this experiment. Hydatids are not very often found in the liver, because it is not a very frequent disease there; and the body is allowed to remain for so long a time after death before it is examined, that the hydatids must have lost their living principle, even if they were animalcules, however it is very strong: and it appears even more difficult to account for their production, according to the common theory of generation, than for that of intestinal worms. We do not get rid of the difficulty by asserting, that hydatids in the human liver are not living animals, because in sheep they are certainly such, where the difficulty of accounting for their production is precisely the same.

HYDRAGOGUE, (*Hydragoga*, *υδραγωγα*, from *ὕδωρ*, water, and *αγω*, to drive out). Medicines are so termed which possess the property of increasing the secretions or excretions of the body, so as to cause the removal of water from any of its cavities, such as tonics, diuretics, cathartics, &c.

HYDRARGŸRUS, (*Hydrargyrus*, *i*, m. *υδραργυρος*; from *υδωρ*, water, and *αργυρος*, silver; so named from its having the resemblance of fluid silver.) *Hydrargyrum. Mercurius vivus. Argentum vivum.* Mercury. Quicksilver. An opake silver-coloured metallic substance, resembling melted lead or tin. Next after gold and platina, it is the most ponderous substance known. A cubic foot of very fine mercury weighs 947 pounds. It differs from other metals by its property of retaining the fluid state at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere: it is fusible at 35° under zero in Fahrenheit's thermometer and congeals at 38°. When congealed it acquires malleability. It was first proved to be susceptible of congelation in the middle of the present century. Its excessive weight,

habitual fluidity, extreme volubility, and the ſingular alterations it is liable to ſuffer by combination, may induce us to regard it as a peculiar ſubſtance, not otherwiſe allied to the metals than by its brilliancy, gravity, and combuſtibility. Mercury is not found abundantly in nature. It is met with in a virgin or fluid ſtate, poſſeſſing all its metallic properties; or in a ſtate of oxydation; or in combination with acids, ſulphur, and other metallic ſubſtances. Virgin or fluid mercury has been found in globules or in large maſſes, in earths and ſoft ſtones, but moſt frequently in the cavities and interſtices of its own ores. At Idria, in Spain, and in America, it is collected in the cavities and in the clefts of the rocks, by making depreſſions, in which it reſts. It is likewiſe found in clay at Almaden, and in beds of chalk in Sicily. It is alſo found at times in ſilver and lead ores, as well as mixed with white oxyd of arſenic. At Idria, in Friuli, Sage found a red brown ore of mercury, ſoft and granulated in its fracture, which is regarded as a carbonated oxyd of mercury, and which has been found to afford 91 parts of mercury, out of 100 parts of the ore. Mercury is moſt commonly found naturally combined with ſulphur, when it is called *cinnabar*, or, *æthiops*, according to the colour. It is called *native vermillion*, and *cinnabar in flowers*, when it is in the form of a very brilliant red powder. Cinnabar is found in the dutchy of Deuxponts, in the Palatinate, in Hungary, in Friuli, at Almaden, and in South America; but it chiefly abounds in Guamanga in Peru. There is a blackiſh ore of mercury, in which it is ſaid to be combined with ſulphur and copper, and which is found at Muſchel Landſberg. Mercury has alſo been found in amalgamation with virgin ſilver, in the ore of Sahlberg in Sweden. Mercury does not appear to ſuffer any alteration from light. It is one of thoſe fluid matters which are the moſt eaſily and uniformly heated. If expoſed to fire in cloſe veſſels, it boils like other fluids. The vapour into which it is tranſported by ebullition, appears in the form of a white ſmoke, obſcures the tranſparency of the veſſels into which it is received, and is condenſed by cold into drops of liquid or purified mercury. Mercury has no taſte that the nerves of the tongue and palate can perceive: rubbed for a ſhort time between the fingers, it emits a ſlight peculiar ſmell. Mercury is extremely ſuſceptible of oxydation by the contact of air and other bodies; a blackiſh grey pellicle is continually forming on its ſurface, which is called *black oxyd of mercury*. If heated, with acceſs of air, this metal is changed into a red, brilliant, ſcaly, earthy oxyd or powder, called precipitate per ſe, or *hydrargyrus calcinatus* of the pharmacopeias. It is uſually made with the bottle called *Boyle's hell*, in which a quantity of mercury is put, in ſuch a proportion as to be ſpread in a very thin layer over its ſurface. The mouth of the bottle is fitted with a chryſtal cylindrical ſtopper, perforated with a capillary tube. The bottle is then placed on a ſand bath, and the mercury is thus heated to ebullition. The capillary aperture in the ſtopper of the tube admits the external air, without ſuffering the mercury to eſcape. Digeſtion in this manner for the ſpace of ſome months, affords in the end a large proportion of red mercurial oxyd, or calcined mercury. Mercury is very little, if at all, liable to ſolution in water, although water remaining over mercury a conſiderable time contracts an evident metallic taſte, and if boiled upon it, is ſaid to acquire a vermifugal property; but the mercury does not appear to be at all changed, or de-

prived of any of its weight. It is not more diſpoſed than other metallic ſubſtances to unite with earths. Concentrated ſulphuric acid is capable of diſſolving mercury, with the aid of heat; ſulphureous acid gaz is diſengaged, and a *white oxyd* is formed, upon which if a large quantity of hot water is poured, a beautiful yellow oxyd, the *ſulphas hydrargyri*, is precipitated, known by the name of *turbith mineral*, or *yellow precipitate*, or *hydrargyrus vitriolatus* of the ſhops. The nitric acid diſſolves mercury with ſo great facility, that no external heat nor concentrated acid is required. A mercurial oxyd is produced by this decompoſition, the *nitras hydrargyri*, or *hydrargyrus nitratus*, a nitrous acid gaz being at the ſame time diſengaged. The nitrate of mercury is corroſive: fuſed in a crucible, or better in a retort, it yields oxygen or nitrogen gazes, the remaining oxyd becoming yellow, and at length a lively red, which is the red precipitate. The ſolution of mercurial nitrate forms mercurial water, which is of uſe to aſcertain the preſence of ſulphuric and muriatic ſalts in mineral waters, and is alſo uſed as a powerful eſcharotic by ſurgeons. The muriatic acid does not act in any ſenſible degree upon pure metallic mercury, except by long digeſtion, though it be one of thoſe which has the ſtrongeſt affinity with that metal, readily combining with all the mercurial oxyds, and forming different products, according as the oxyd is more perfect or imperfect. The combination of oxyd of mercury with muriatic acid, is ſuſceptible of two different ſtates: in one, formed with the common muriatic acid, it is *mild mercurial muriate*: in the other, formed with the oxygenated muriatic acid, it is *corroſive ſublimate*, *corroſive mercurial muriate*, *oxy-muriate of mercury*, or *hydrargyrus muriatus*. This neutral ſaline ſalt is capable of entering into combination with running mercury, when it loſes its peculiar taſte and ſolubility, with moſt other of its ſaline properties, and the product is known by the name of *mercurius dulcis*, or *calomel* of the ſhops. The acetous acid diſſolves the oxyd of mercury, and affords white foliated cryſtals, the *hydrargyrus acetatus*. The boracic acid is not capable of diſſolving mercury without an intermedium. In what manner the fluoric and carbonic acids act on mercury is not at preſent well known. The neutral ſalts are underſtood to poſſeſs no ſtrong powers of acting on this metal; it, however, incorporates readily with ſulphate of potaſh. Mercury artificially mixed with ſulphur, forms the black or red ſulphurated oxyds, known on account of their colour, by the names of æthiops, or cinnabar. See *Sulphuretum hydrargyri nigrum*, and *Sulphuretum hydrargyri rubrum*. Mercury amalgamates with moſt other metals. On this property is founded the art of gilding metals, the tinning of glaſſes, the working of gold and ſilver mines, &c. Mercury is alſo employed in painting, in forming mirrors, philoſophical inſtruments, &c. The uſes of this metal in the practice of phyſic and ſurgery are very conſiderable. See the various preparations of *Hydrargyrus*.

HYDRARGŸRUS ACETĀTUS. *Mercurius acetatus. Pilulæ Keyſeri.* By this preparation of mercury, the celebrated Keyſer acquired an immenſe fortune in curing the venereal diſeaſe. It is an acetite of quickſilver, and therefore termed *acetis hydrargyri* in the new chemical nomenclature. The doſe is from three to five grains, yet notwithſtanding the encomium given to it by ſome, it does not appear to be ſo efficacious as ſome other preparations of mercury.

HYDRARGŸRUS CALCINĀTUS. *Mercurius calcinatus.* Calcined mer-

cury. This preparation of mercury is given with great advantage in the cure of syphilis. Its action, however, is such, when given alone, on the bowels, as to require the addition of opium, which totally prevents it. It is also given, in conjunction with opium and camphire, as a diaphoretic, in chronic pains, and diseases of long continuance.

HYDRARGŸRUS CUM CRĒTA. *Mercurius alkalisatus.* This preparation of mercury possesses alterative properties in cutaneous and venereal complaints, in obstructions of the viscera, or of the prostrate gland, given in the dose of ℈ß to 3ß, two or three times a day.

HYDRARGŸRUS CUM SULPHŪRE. Æthiops mineral. This is a black sulphuret of mercury, and therefore called *sulphuretum hydrargyri nigrum* in the new chemical nomenclature. The mercury and sulphur are triturated together, the blended mass thus obtained consists of sulphur and an imperfect oxyd of mercury. The mercury by this admixture of the sulphur is deprived of its salivating power, and may be administered with safety to all ages and constitutions as an anthelmintic and alterative.

HYDRARGYRUS MURIĀTUS. *Mercurius corrosivus. Mercurius sublimatus corrosivus.* An extremely acrid and violently poisonous preparation. It is an oxymuriate of quicksilver, and therefore called in the new chemical nomenclature *muriat hydrargyri oxygenatus.* Given internally in small doses properly diluted, and never in the form of pill, it possesses oxygenating, antisyphilitical, and alterative virtues. Externally, applied in form of lotion, it facilitates the healing of venereal sores, and cures the itch.

HYDRARGŸRUS MURIĀTUS MITIS. *Mercurius præcipitatus dulcis.* This mild muriate of quicksilver possesses similar virtues to calomel, for which it is often substituted. See *Calomelas.*

HYDRARGŸRUS NITRĀTUS RUBER. *Mercurius corrosivus ruber. Mercurius præcipitatus ruber.* Red præcipitate. This red oxyd of mercury is prepared with the nitrous acid. It is of extensive use in the practice of surgery, as a stimulant and escarotic. Finely levigated and mixed with the common cerates, it proves an excellent application to indolent ulcers, especially those which remain after burns and scalds, and where the granulations are indolent.

HYDRARGŸRUS PRECIPITĀTUS CINĔRĔUS. This preparation ordered in the Edinburgh Pharmacopeia, is used as an alterative in cases of pains arising from an admixture of rheumatism with syphilis. It may be substituted for the hydrargyrus sulphuratus ruber, in fumigating ozena, and venereal ulcerated sore throat, on account of its not yielding any vapour offensive to the patient.

HYDRARGŸRUS PURIFICĀTUS. Purified quicksilver is sometimes administered in its metallic state in doses of one ounce or more in constipation of the bowels. See also *Pil. Empl.* & *Ung. ex hydrargyro.* & *Hydrargyrus.*

HYDRARGŸRUS SULPHURĀTUS RUBER. *Cinnabar factitia.* This is the *Sulphuretum hydrargyri rubrum* of the new chemical nomenclature, it being a red sulphuret of mercury: it is esteemed as a mild mercurial alterative, and is given to children in cases of strophulus, porrigo, tenea, &c.

HYDRARGŸRUS VITRĬOLĀTUS. *Turpethum minerale. Mercurius emeticus flavus. Sulphas hydrargyri.* Formerly this medicine was in more general use than in the present day. It is a very powerful and active alterative when given in small doses. Two grains act on the stomach so as to produce violent vomitings. It is recommended as an errhine in cases of

amaurosis. In combination with antimony it acts powerfully on the skin.

HYDROCARDĬA, (*Hydrocardia, æ*, f. ὑδροκαρδια; from ὑδωρ, water, and καρδια, the heart.) *Hydrocordis. Hydrops pericardii.* Dropsy of the heart. Dropsy of the pericardium. A collection of fluid in the pericardium, which may be either coagulable lymph, serum, or a puriform fluid. It produces symptoms similar to those of hydrothorax, with violent palpitation of the heart, and mostly an intermittent pulse. It is incurable.

HYDRŎCĒLE, (*Hydrocele, es*, f. ὑδροκηλη; from ὑδωρ, water, and κηλη, a tumour). *Oscheocele. Oscheophyma. Hydrops scroti. Hydrops testis.* Dropsy of the scrotum. A genus of disease in the class *cachexiæ*, and order *intumescentiæ* of Cullen, known by a soft, pyramidal, fluctuating, generally pellucid swelling of the scrotum, increasing slowly, and without pain. There are three species of this disease. 1. *Hydrocele integumentorum*, or a mere anasarcous swelling of the scrotum. 2. *Hydrocele tunicæ vaginalis.* This is properly the hydrocele: the swelling is mostly of a pyramidal form, and is known by an evident fluctuation. It should carefully be distinguished from hernia and orchitis. 3. *Hydrocele funiculi spermatici.* An anasarcous swelling of the spermatic cord, which is sometimes diffused throughout the cord, and sometimes confined to one or two enlarged cells, when it is said to be encysted.

HYDROCĔPHĂLUS, (*Hydrocephalus, i.* m. ὑδροκεφαλος; from ὑδωρ, water, and κεφαλη, the head), *Hydrocephalum.* Dropsy of the brain. Dropsy of the head. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *cachexiæ*, and order *intumescentiæ.* It is distinguished by authors into external and internal: 1. *Hydrocephalus externus*, is a collection of water between the membranes of the brain. 2. *Hydrocephalus internus*, is when a fluid is collected in the ventricles of the brain, producing dilatation of the pupils, apoplexy, &c. See *Apoplexia.* It is sometimes of a chronic nature, when the water has been known to increase to an enormous quantity, effecting a diastasis of the bones of the head, and an absorption of the substance of the brain.

HYDROGEN, (*Hydrogenĭum, ii.* n. from ὑδωρ, water, and γινομαι, to become, or γενναω, to produce, because with oxygen it produces water). Phlogiston of Kirwan? A simple or elementary substance not perceptible to the senses, but known only by its combinations. With oxygen it forms water, and from the circumstance of its necessarily entering into the composition of that fluid it receives its name. In combination with light and caloric it forms hydrogen gaz, or, as it is called, gaz-hydrogen. Ammoniac, or volatile alkali, is also a compound of this substance. See *Ammoniac.* Hydrogen not only enters into the composition of these, but is likewise a constituent part in a great variety of other bodies. It is one of the ingredients in the mixture of bitumens, of oils, of fats, of ardent spirits, and of all animal and vegetable bodies: hence all combustible substances of these two kingdoms yield water.

HYDROGEN, SULPHURATED. See *Hepatic air.*

HYDROLĂPĂTHUM, (*Hydrolapathum, i*, n. ὑδρολαπαθον, from ὑδωρ, water, and λαπαθον, the dock). *Herba Brittanica. Lapathum aquaticum.* The water-dock. *Rumex hydrolapathum, floribus hermaphroditis, valvulis integris granifcris, foliis lanceolatis.* Hudson's Flor. Ang. Class *Hexandria.* Order *Trigynia.* The leaves of this plant manifest considerable acidity, and are said to possess a laxative quality. The root is strongly adstringent,

and has been much employed, both externally and internally, for the cure of ſome diſeaſes of the ſkin, as ſcurvy, lepra, lichen, &c. The root powdered is ſaid to be an excellent dentifrice.

HYDRŎMĒTRA, (*Hydrometra, æ*, f. ὑδρομητρα, from ὑδωρ, water, and μητρα, the womb). Dropſy of the womb. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ* and order *intumeſcentiæ* of Cullen. It produces a ſwelling of the hypogaſtric region: the fluctuation is very obſcure. It muſt be conſidered as a very rare diſeaſe, and one that can with difficulty be aſcertained.

HYDRŎPHOBĬA, (*Hydrophobia, æ*, f. ὑδροφοβια, from ὑδωρ, water, and φοβεω, to fear). *Rabes canina*. Canine madneſs. This genus of diſeaſe ariſes in conſequence of the bite of a rabid animal, as a dog or cat. It is termed hydrophobia, becauſe perſons that are thus bitten dread the ſight or the falling of water when firſt ſeized. Cullen has arranged it under the claſs *neuroſes* and order *ſpaſmi*. It is known by the previous hiſtory of the diſeaſe, the dread of water, painful convulſions of the pharynx, and putrid fever.

HYDROPHTHALMĬA, (*Hydrophthalmia, æ*, f. ὑδροφθαλμια, from ὑδωρ, and ὀφθαλμος, the eye). There are two diſeaſes different in their nature and conſequences thus termed. The one is a mere anaſarcous or œdematous ſwelling of the eyelid. The other, the true hydrophthalmia, is a ſwelling of the bulb of the eye, from too great a collection of the vitreous or aqueous humours.

HYDROPIPER, (*Hydropiper, eris*, n. ὑδροπιπερι, from ὑδωρ, water, and πιπερι, pepper, ſo called from its biting the tongue like pepper, and being a native of marſhy places). Biting arſmart. Lake weed. Water pepper. *Polygonum hydropiper* of Linnæus. This plant is very common in our ditches; the leaves have an acrid burning taſte, and ſeem to be nearly of the ſame nature with thoſe of the arum. They have been recommended as poſſeſſing antiſeptic, aperient, diuretic virtues, and given in ſcurvies and cachexies, aſthmas, hypochondriacal and nephritic complaints, and wandering gout. The freſh leaves have been applied externally as a ſtimulating catapiaſm.

HYDROPS, (*Hyprops, ōpis*, m. ὑδρωψ, from ὑδωρ, water). A dropſy. Any ſpecies of dropſy may be ſo termed, as hydrops abdominis, thoracis, cerebri, pericardii, teſtis, &c. See *Aſcites*, *Hydrothorax*, *Hydrocephalus*, *Anaſarca*, *Hydrocele*, *Hydrocardia*, &c.

HYDRORACHĪTIS, (*Hydrorachitis, ĭdis*, f. ὑδροραχις, from ὑδωρ, water, and ραχις, the ſpine). *Spina biſida*. A ſmall, ſoft, fluctuating tumour, moſtly ſituated on the lumbar vertebræ of new-born children. It is a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ*, and order *intumeſcentiæ* of Cullen, and is always incurable.

HYDROSARCA, (*Hydroſarca, æ*, f. ὑδροσαρκα, from ὑδωρ, water, and σαρξ, the fleſh). Water in the cellular membrane. See *Anaſarca*.

HYDROSARCOCELE, (*Hydroſarcocele, es*, f. ὑδροσαρκοκηλη, from ὑδωρ, water, σαρξ, the fleſh, and κηλη, a tumour). Sarcocele, with an infuſion of water into the cellular membrane.

HYDRO-SULHURET. See *Hepatic air*.

HYDRŎSULPHURĒTUM STIBĬI LUTEUM. See *Sulphur antimonii præcipitatum*.

HYDRŎSULPHURĒTUM STIBĬI RUBRUM. *Kermes mineralis*. This ſulphuret of antimony was formerly in high eſtimation as an expectorant, ſudorific, and antiſpaſmodic, in difficult reſpiration, rheumatiſm, diſeaſes of the ſkin and glands.

HYDROTHŌRAX, (*Hydrothorax, ācis*, m. ὑδροθωραξ, from ὑδωρ, water,

and θωραξ, the cheſt). *Hydrops thoracis. Hydrops pectoris.* A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ* and order *intumeſcentiæ* of Cullen, known by dyſpnœa, paleneſs of face, œdematous ſwelling of the legs, ſcarcity of urine, impatience of an horizontal ſituation, a ſenſe of weight and tightneſs acroſs the cheſt, ſudden ſtartings from ſleep, and palpitations of the heart.

HYGIĒNE, (*Hygiene, es*, f. ὑγιεινη, from ὑγιαινω, to be well). Modern phyſicians have applied this term to that diviſion of *therapia* which treats of the diet of the ſick and the non-naturals.

HYGROLOGY, (*Hygrolōgĭa, æ*, f. υγρολογια, from ὑγρος, a humour or fluid, and λογος, a diſcourſe). The doctrine of the fluids.

HYGRŌMA, (*Hygroma, ătis*, n. υγρωμα, from ὑγρος, a liquid). An encyſted tumour, whoſe contents are either ſerum or a fluid like lymph. It ſometimes happens that theſe tumours are filled with hydatids. Hygromatous tumours require the removal of the cyſt, or the deſtruction of its ſecreting ſurface.

HYMEN, (*Hymen, ĕnis*, m. ὑμην, from *Hymen*, the god of marriage, becauſe this membrane is ſuppoſed to be entire before marriage or copulation). The hymen is a thin membrane of a ſemilunar or circular form, placed at the entrance of the vagina, which it partly cloſes. It has a very different appearance in different women, but it is generally, if not always, found in virgins, and is very properly eſteemed the teſt of virginity, being ruptured in the firſt act of coition; and the remnants of the hymen are called the carunculæ myrtiformes. The hymen is alſo peculiar to the human ſpecies. There are two circumſtances relating to the hymen which require medical aſſiſtance. It is ſometimes of ſuch a ſtrong ligamentous texture that it cannot be ruptured, and prevents the connection between the ſexes. It is alſo ſometimes imperforated, wholly cloſing the entrance into the vagina, and preventing any diſcharge from the uterus; but both theſe caſes are extremely rare. If the hymen be of an unnaturally firm texture, but perforated, though perhaps with a very ſmall opening, the inconveniencies thence ariſing will not be diſcovered before the time of marriage, when they may be removed by a crucial inciſion made through it, taking care not to injure the adjoining parts.

But the imperforation of the hymen will produce its inconveniencies when the perſon begins to menſtruate. For the menſtruous blood, being ſecreted from the uterus at each period, and not evacuated, the patient ſuffers much pain from the diſtention of the parts, many ſtrange ſymptoms and appearances are occaſioned, and ſuſpicions injurious to her reputation are often entertained. In a caſe of this kind, for which Dr. Denman was conſulted, the young woman, who was twenty-two years of age, having many uterine complaints, with the abdomen enlarged, was ſuſpected to be pregnant, though ſhe perſevered in aſſerting the contrary, and had never menſtruated. When ſhe was prevailed upon to ſubmit to an examination, the circumſcribed tumour of the uterus was found to reach as high as the navel, and the external parts were ſtretched by a round ſoft ſubſtance at the entrance of the vagina, in ſuch a manner as to reſemble that appearance which they have when the head of a child is paſſing through them: but there was no entrance into the vagina. On the following morning an inciſion was carefully made through the hymen, which had a fleſhy appearance, and was thickened in proportion to its diſtention. Not leſs than four pounds of blood, of the colour and conſiſtence of tar, were diſcharged; and the tumefaction of the abdomen was immediately re-

moved. Several ſtellated inciſions were afterwards made through the divided edges, which is a very neceſſary part of the operation; and care was taken to prevent a re-union of the hymen till the next period of menſtruation, after which ſhe ſuffered no inconvenience. The blood diſcharged was not putrid or coagulated, and ſeemed to have undergone no other change, after its ſecretion, but what was occaſioned by the abſorption of its more fluid parts. Some caution is required when the hymen is cloſed in thoſe who are in advanced age, unleſs the membrane be diſtended by the confined menſes; as the above writer once ſaw an inſtance of inflammation of the peritonæum being immediately produced after the operation, of which the patient died as in the true puerperal fever, and no other reaſon could be aſſigned for the diſeaſe.

The carunculæ myrtiformes, by their elongation and enlargement, ſometimes become very painful and troubleſome.

HYMENÆA COURBARIL, (*Hymenæa*, corrupted *anime*, or *animæa*). The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the reſin anime. See *Anime*.

HYO. Names compounded of this word belong to muſcles which originate from, or are inſerted into, or connected with the os hyoides; as, *Hyo-gloſſus*, *Hyo-pharyngeus*, *Genio-hyo-gloſſus*, &c.

HYOIDES OS, (*Hyoides*, ὑοειδες, from the Greek letter υ, and ειδος, likeneſs, ſo named from its reſemblance). This bone, which is ſituated between the root of the tongue and the larynx, derives its name from its ſuppoſed reſemblance to the Greek letter υ, and is by ſome writers deſcribed along with the parts contained in the mouth. Ruyſch has ſeen the ligaments of the bone ſo completely oſſified, that the os hyoides was joined to the temporal bones by anchyloſis. In deſcribing this bone, it may be diſtinguiſhed into its body, horns, and appendices. The body is the middle and broadeſt part of the bone, ſo placed, that it may be eaſily felt with the finger in the fore part of the throat. Its fore part, which is placed towards the tongue, is irregularly convex, and its inner ſurface, which is turned towards the larynx, is unequally concave. The *cornua*, or horns, which are flat and a little bent, are conſiderably longer than the body of the bone, and may be ſaid to form the ſides of the υ. Theſe horns are thickeſt near the body of the bone. At the extremity of each is obſerved a round tubercle, from which a ligament paſſes to the thyroid cartilage. The appendices, or leſſer horns, *cornua minora*, as they are called by ſome writers, are two ſmall proceſſes, which in their ſize and ſhape are ſomewhat like a grain of wheat. They riſe up from the articulations of the cornua with the body of the bone, and are ſometimes connected with the ſtyloid proceſs on each ſide by means of a ligament. It is not unuſual to find ſmall portions of bone in theſe ligaments; and Ruyſch, as we have already obſerved, has ſeen them completely oſſified. In the fœtus, almoſt the whole of the bone is in a cartilaginous ſtate, excepting a ſmall point of bone in the middle of its body, and in each of its horns. The appendices do not begin to appear till after birth, and uſually remain cartilaginous many years. The os hyoides ſerves to ſupport the tongue, and affords attachment to a variety of muſcles, ſome of which perform the motions of the tongue, while others act on the larynx and fauces.

HYO-GLOSSUS. *Cerato-gloſſus* of Douglas. *Baſio-cerato-chondro-gloſſus* of Albinus. A muſcle ſituated at the ſide, between the os hyoides and the tongue. It ariſes from the baſis, but

chiefly from the corner of the os hyoides, running laterally and forwards to the tongue, which it pulls inwards and downwards.

HYOPHARYNGĒUS, (*υοθαρυγλαιος*; from *υοειδης*, the hyoid bone, and *φαρυγξ*, the pharynx). A muſcle ſo called from its origin in the os hyoides, and its inſertion in the pharynx.

HYOSCĪAMUS, (*Hyoſciamus, i.* m. *υοσκυαμος*; from *υς*, a ſwine, and *κυαμος*, a bean, ſo named becauſe hogs eat it as a medicine, or it may be becauſe the plant is hairy and briſtly like a ſwine). *Faba ſuilla.* Henbane. Hog's bean. *Hyoſciamus niger, foliis amplexicaulibus ſinuatis, floribus ſeſſilibus* of Linnæus. Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Monogynia.* The ſmell of this indigenous plant is ſtrong and peculiar: the leaves, when bruiſed, emit ſomewhat of the odour of tobacco: to the taſte they are mild and mucilaginous. Henbane is a powerful narcotic poiſon, and many inſtances of its deleterious effects are recorded by different authors. Neverthelefs, the extract of the ſeeds, under proper management, may be ſafely employed; and it has this advantage over narcotics in general, that it never renders the bowels coſtive, but, on the contrary, gently opens them.

HYOSCĪAMUS ALBUS. This plant, a native of the ſouth of Europe, poſſeſſes ſimilar virtues to the hyoſciamus niger. See *Hyoſciamus.*

HYOSCĪAMUS NIGER. The ſyſtematic name of henbane. See *Hyoſciamus.*

HYPERĪCUM, (*Hypericum, i,* n. *υπερεικον*; from *υπερ*, over, and *εικων*, an image or ſpectre; ſo named becauſe it was thought to have power over and to drive away evil ſpirits). *Hyperĭcum.* St. John's wort. *Hypericum perfoliatum* of Linnæus. *Hypericum floribus trigynis, caule ancipiti, foliis obtuſis pellucido-punctatis.* Claſs *Polyadelphia.* Order *Polyandria.* This indigenous plant was greatly eſteemed by the ancients, but is now very rarely uſed. The London Pharmacopœia retains the flowers on account of the great proportion of reſinous oily matter, in which the medical efficacy of the plant is ſuppoſed to reſide.

HYPERĪCUM PERFORĀTUM. The ſyſtematic name of the St. John's wort. See *Hypericum.*

HYPEROSTOSIS, (*Hyperoſtoſis, is,* f. *υπεροστωσις*; from *υπερ*, upon, and *οστεον*, a bone). See *Exoſtoſis.*

HYPNOTICS, (*Hypnotica, ſc. medicamenta, υπνωτικα*; from *ὑπνος*, to ſleep). See *Anodynes.*

HYPOÆMA, (*Hypoæma, ătis,* n. *υποαιμα*; from *ὑπο*, under, and *αἷμα*, blood, becauſe the blood is under the cornea). An effuſion of red blood into the chambers of the eye.

HYPOCHONDRIAC REGIONS, (*Regiones hypochondriacæ*, from *ὑπο*, under, and *χονδρος*, a cartilage). They are ſituated one on each ſide of the epigaſtric region, being the ſpaces in the abdomen that are under the cartilages of the ſpurious ribs.

HYPŎCHONDRIĂSIS, (*Hypochondriaſis, is,* f. *υποχονδριασις*; from *ὑποχονδριακος*, one who is hipped). Hypochondriac affections. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes* and order *adynamiæ* of Cullen; characterized by dyſpepſia; languor and want of energy; dejection of mind, and apprehenſion of evil, more eſpecially reſpecting health, without ſufficient cauſe; with a melancholic temperament.

HYPOCISTIS, (*Hypociſtes, ĭdis,* f. *υποκιστις*; from *υπο*, under, and *κιστος*, the ciſtus.) See *Hypociſtidis ſuccus.*

HYPOCISTĬDIS SUCCUS. The juice of the *hypociſtis*, a plant called by Linnæus *Aſarum hypociſtis*, a paraſitical plant growing in warm climates, from the roots of the ciſtus,

The juice is a mild adſtringent, of no particular ſmell nor flavour. It is ſeldom uſed.

HYPOGALA, (*Hypogala, æ*, f. υπογαλα; from υπο, under, and γαλα, milk, becauſe it is a milk-like effuſion under the cornea). A collection of of white humour, like milk, in the chambers of the eye. There are two ſpecies of this diſeaſe: the one takes place, it is ſaid, from a depoſition of the milk, as is ſometimes obſerved in women who ſuckle; the other, from the depreſſion of the milky cataract.

HYPOGASTRIC ARTERIES. *Arteriæ hypogaſtricæ.* See *Iliac arteries.*

HYPOGASTRIC REGION, (*Regio hypogaſtrĭca*, from υπο, under, and γαστηρ, the ſtomach). The region of the abdomen that reaches from above the pubis to within three fingers breadth of the navel.

HYPOPĬUM, (*Hypopium, i*, n. υποπυον; from υπο, under, and πυον, pus; becauſe the pus is under the cornea). A collection of pus in the anterior or poſterior chamber, or both chambers of the eye. The proximate cauſe of this diſeaſe is a preceding inflammation of the iris or uvea, an abſceſs or ulcer of the cornea. It is known by inſpecting the eye: a white moveable liquid appears, occupying the chambers of the eye; the iris is partly or totally imperceptible, obſcuring totally or partially the ſight.

HYPOTHĔSIS, (*Hypotheſis, is, vel eos*, f.). A ſyſtem of general rules, founded partly on fact and partly on conjecture. A theory explains every fact: an hypotheſis explains only a certain number of facts, leaving ſome unaccounted for, and others in oppoſition to it.

HYSSOP. See *Hyſſopus.*

HYSSOP, HEDGE. See *Gratiola.*

HYSSŌPUS, (*Hyſſopus, i.* m. υσσωπος; from *Azob*, Heb). Common hyſſop. *Hyſſopus officinalis* of Linnæus. *Hyſſopus, ſpicis ſecundis, foliis lanceolatis.* Claſs *Didynamia.* Order *Gymnoſpermia.* This exotic plant is eſteemed as an aromatic and ſtimulant, but is chiefly employed as a pectoral, and has long been thought uſeful in humoral aſthmas, coughs, and catarrhal affections; for this purpoſe an infuſion of the leaves, ſweetened with honey or ſugar, is recommended to be drank as tea.

HYSSŌPUS OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the common hyſſop. See *Hyſſopus.*

HYSTERĬA, (*Hyſteria, æ*, f. υστερια; from υστερα, the womb). Hyſterics. Hyſteric paſſion. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes*, and order *ſpaſmi* of Cullen. It is characterized by a grumbling noiſe in the belly; a ball aſcending to the throat, with a ſenſe of ſuffocation: ſtupor; inſenſibility and convulſions; involuntary laughing and crying; ſleep interrupted by ſighs; urine limpid and abundant, previous to the fit; and great ſenſibility and irritability of the mind. There are four ſpecies: 1. *Hyſteria chlorotica*, from a retention of the menſes. 2. *Hyſteria à menorrhagia*, from an immoderate flow of the menſes. 3. *Hyſteria à leucorrhœa*, from the fluor albus. 4. *Hyſteria libidinoſa*, from ſenſual deſires.

HYSTERIC PASSION. See *Hyſteric.*

HYSTEROTOMY, (*Hyſterotomia, æ*, f. υστεροτομια; from υστερα, the womb, and τεμνω, to cut). See *Cæſarian ſection.*

HYSTRICIĀSIS, (*Hyſtriciaſis, is*, f. υστριχιασις; from υστριξ, a hedge-hog, or porcupine). A diſeaſe of the hairs, in which they ſtand erect, like porcupine quills. An account of this rare diſeaſe is to be ſeen in the *Philoſophical Tranſactions*, No. 424.

HYSTRĪCIS LAPIS. See *Bezoar porcinum.*

HYSTRĪTIS, (*Hyſtritis, ĭdis*, f. υστρις; from υστερα, the womb). *Me-*

tritis. An inflammation of the womb. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen; characterized by pyrexia, heat, tenſion, tumour, and pain in the region of the womb, pain in the os uteri when touched, and vomiting.

I.

IBERIS, (*Iberis*, f. ἴβερις, or ἴβηις; ſo named from Iberia, the place of its natural growth). *Cardimantica. Lepidium iberis* of Linnæus. Sciatica creſſes. This plant poſſeſſes a warm penetrating pungent taſte like unto other creſſes, and is recommended as an antiſcorbutic, antiſeptic, and ſtomachic.

ICE. *Glacies*. Water made ſolid by the application of cold. It is frequently applied by ſurgeons to reſolve external inflammatory diſeaſes.

ICHOR, (*Ichor, oris*, m. ἰχωρ). A thin, aqueous, and acrid diſcharge.

ICHTHŸŎCŌLLA, *Ichthyocolla*, æ. f. ἰχθυοκολλα: from ἰχθυς, a fiſh, and κολλα, glue). *Colla piſcium*. Iſinglaſs. Fiſh-glue. A ſubſtance, partly gelatinous, and partly lymphatic, which is prepared by rolling up the air bladder of the *Accipenſer ſturio* of Linnæus, and ſeveral other fiſhes, and drying it in the air, after it has been twiſted into the form of a ſhort cord, as we receive it. It affords a viſcid jelly by ebullition in water, which is uſed in medicine as an emollient in diſorders of the throat, inteſtines, &c.

ICHTHYŌSIS, (*Ichthyoſis, is*, f. ἰχθυωσις; from ἰχθυα, the ſcale of a fiſh, from the reſemblance of the ſcales to thoſe of a fiſh). A genus of diſeaſe of the ſecond order of Dr. Willan's diſeaſes of the ſkin. The characteriſtic of ichthyoſis is a permanently harſh, dry, ſcaly, and in ſome caſes, almoſt horny texture of the integuments of the body, unconnected with internal diſorder. Pſoriaſis and Lepra differ from this affection, in being but partially diffuſed, and in having deciduous ſcales. The arrangement and diſtribution of the ſcales in ichthyoſis are peculiar. Above and below the olecranon on the arm, ſays Dr. Willan, and in a ſimilar ſituation with reſpect to the patella on the thigh and leg, they are ſmall, rounded, prominent, or papillary, and of a black colour; ſome of the ſcaly papillæ have a ſhort narrow neck, and broad irregular tops. On ſome part of the extremities, and on the trunk of the body, the ſcales are flat and large, often placed like tiling, or in the ſame order as ſcales on the back of a fiſh; but in a few caſes they have appeared ſeparate, being interſected by whitiſh furrows. There is uſually in this complaint a dryneſs and roughneſs of the ſoles of the feet; ſometimes a thickened and brittle ſtate of the ſkin in the palms of the hands, with large painful fiſſures, and on the face an appearance of the ſcurf rather than of ſcales. The inner part of the wriſts, the hams, the inſide of the elbow, the

furrow along the ſpine, the inner and upper part of the thigh, are perhaps the only portions of the ſkin always exempt from the ſcalineſs. Patients affected with ichthyoſis are occaſionally much harraſſed with inflamed puſtules, or with large painful boils on different parts of the body: it is alſo remarkable, that they never ſeem to have the leaſt perſpiration or moiſture of the ſkin. This diſeaſe did not, in any caſe preſent to Dr. Willan, appear to have been tranſmitted hereditarily; nor was more than one child from the ſame parents affected with it. Dr. Willan never met with an inſtance of the horny rigidity of the integuments, *Ichthyoſis cornea*, impeding the motion of the muſcles or joints. It is however mentioned by authors as affecting the lips, prepuce, toes, fingers, &c. and ſometimes as extended over nearly the whole body.

Ictĕrus, (*Ictĕrus, i*, m. ικτερος, named from its likeneſs to the plumage of the golden thruſh, of which Pliny relates, that if a jaundiced perſon looks on one, the bird dies and the patient recovers). The jaundice. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ* and order *impetigines* of Cullen; characterized by yellowneſs of the ſkin and eyes; fæces white; and urine of a high colour. Species: *Ictĕrus calculoſus*, acute pain in the epigaſtric region, increaſing after eating; gall-ſtones paſs by ſtool. 2. *Ictĕrus ſpaſmodicus*, without pain, after ſpaſmodic diſeaſes and paſſions of the mind. 3. *Ictĕrus mucoſus*, without either pain, gall-ſtones, or ſpaſm, and relieved by the diſcharge of tough phlegm by ſtool. 4. *Ictĕrus hepaticus*, from an induration of the liver. 5. *Ictĕrus gravidarum*, from pregnancy, and diſappearing after delivery. 6. *Ictĕrus infantum*, of infants.

Idiopathic, (*Idiopathicus*, ιδιοπαθικος, from ιδιος, peculiar, and παθος, an affection). A diſeaſe which does not depend on any other diſeaſe, in which reſpect it is oppoſed to a ſymptomatic diſeaſe, which is dependant on another.

Idiosyncrasy, (*Idioſyncraſia, æ*, f. ιδιοσυκρασια, from ιδιος, peculiar, συν, with, and κρασις, a temperament). A peculiarity of conſtitution, in which a perſon is affected by certain ſtimuli, which, if applied to a hundred other perſons would produce no effect: thus ſome people cannot ſee a finger bleed without fainting; and thus violent inflammation is induced on the ſkin of ſome perſons by ſubſtances that are perfectly innocent to others.

Ignatĭa amāra. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords St. Ignatius's bean. See *Faba indica*.

Ignatii faba. See *Faba indica*.

Ignatius's bean. See *Faba indica*.

Ikan radix. A ſomewhat oval, oblong, compreſſed root, brought from China. It is extremely rare, and would appear to be the root of the orchis tribe.

Ilĕum, (*Ileum, i*, n. ειλεον, from ειλεω, to roll about, from its convoluſions). *Ileum inteſtinum*. The laſt portion of the ſmall inteſtines, about fifteen hands breadth in length, which terminates at the valve of the cæcum. See *Inteſtines*.

Ilex aquifolĭum. The ſyſtematic name of the common holly. See *Aquifolium*.

Ilia, (The plural of *Ile*, ειλη). The flanks, or that part in which is encloſed the ſmall inteſtines.

Iliac arteries. *Arteriæ iliacæ*. The arteries ſo called are formed by the bifurcation of the aorta, near the laſt lumbar vertebra. They are divided into *internal* and *external*. The *internal iliac*, alſo called the *hypogaſtric artery*, is diſtributed in the fœtus into ſix, and in the adult into five branches, which are divided about the pelvis, viz. the little iliac, the gluteal, the iſchiatic, the pudical,

and the obturatory; and in the fœtus the umbilical. The *external iliac* proceeds out of the pelvis through Poupart's ligament to form the femoral artery.

ILIAC PASSION, (ειλεος, ιλεο, ειλειος, is described as a kind of nervous colic, whose seat is the ilium). *Passio iliaca. Volvulus.* A violent vomiting, in which the fæcal portion of the food is voided by the mouth.

ILIAC REGION. The hypogastric region.

ILIACUS INTERNUS. This is a thick, broad, and radiated muscle, which is situated in the pelvis, upon the inner surface of the ilium. It arises fleshy from the inner lip of the ilium, from most of the hollow part, and likewise from the edge of that bone, between its anterior superior spinous process and the acetabulum. It joins with the psoas magnus, where it begins to become tendinous, and passing under the ligamentum Fallopii, is inserted in common with that muscle. The tendon of this muscle has been seen distinct from that of the psoas, and, in some subjects it has been found divided into two portions. The iliacus internus serves to assist the psoas magnus in bending the thigh, and in bringing it directly forwards.

ILIUM OS, (*Ilium, i*, n. from *ilia*, the small intestines, so named because it supports the ilia). The haunch bone. The superior portion of the os innominatum, which, in the fœtus, is a distinct bone. See *Innominatum os.*

ILLECEBRA, (*Illecebra, æ*, f. from ελεω, to turn, because its leaves resemble worms). *Vermicularis. Piper murale. Sedum minus.* Wall pepper. Stone crop. This species of sedum, *Sedum acre* of Linnæus, in its recent state, is extremely acrid, like the hydropiper; hence, if taken in large doses, it acts powerfully on the primæ viæ, proving both emetic and cathartic; applied to the skin as a cataplasm, it frequently produces vesications and erosions. Boerhaave therefore imagines that its internal employment must be unsafe; but experience has discovered, that a decoction of this plant is not only safe but of great efficacy in scorbutic complaints. For which purpose, a handful of the herb is directed by Below to be boiled in eight pints of beer till they are reduced to four, of which three or four ounces are to be taken every, or every other morning. Milk has been found to answer this purpose better than beer. Not only ulcers simply scorbutic, but those of a scrophulous, and even cancerous tendency, have been cured by the use of this plant; of which Marquet relates several instances. He likewise found it useful as an external application in destroying fungous flesh, and in promoting a discharge in gangrenes and carbuncles. Another effect for which this plant is esteemed, is that of stopping intermittent fevers.

ILLICĬUM ANISĀTUM. The systematic name of the plant whose seeds are called the star aniseed. See *Anisum stellatum.*

IMPĔRATŌRĬA, (*Imperatoria, æ*, f. from *impero*, to overcome; so named because its leaves extend and overwhelm the lesser herbs which grow near it). *Magistrantia.* Master wort. *Imperatoria ostruthium* of Linnæus. Class *Petandria.* Order *Monogynia.* The roots of this plant are imported from the Alps and Pyrenees, notwithstanding it is indigenous to this island: they have a fragrant smell, and a bitterish pungent taste. The plant, as its name imports, was formerly thought to be of singular efficacy; and its great success, it is said, caused it to be distinguished by the name of *divinum remedium.* At present it is considered merely as an aromatic, and consequently is superceded by many of that class which possess superior qualities.

IMPERATORĬA OSTRUTHĬUM. The ſyſtematic name of the maſterwort. See *Imperatoria.*

IMPETĬGĬNES, (*Impetigo, ginis*, f. from *impeto*, to infeſt). An order in the claſs *cachexiæ* of Cullen, characterized by cachexia, deforming the external parts of the body with tumours, eruptions, &c.

IMPETĪGO, (*Impetigo, gĭnis*, f.). This affection, as deſcribed by authors, is a diſeaſe in which ſeveral red, hard, dry, prurient ſpots ariſe in the face and neck, and ſometimes all over the body, and diſappear by furfuraceous or tender ſcales.

IMPREGNATION. See *Conception* and *Generation.*

INCISĪVUS INFERĬOR. See *Levator labii inferioris.*

INCISĪVUS LATERALIS. See *Levator labii ſuperioris alæque naſi.*

INCISĪVUS MEDĬUS. See *Depreſſor labii ſuperioris alæque naſi.*

INCISORS, (*Dentes incisōres*, from *incido*, to cut, from their uſe in cutting the food). The four front teeth of both jaws are ſo called, becauſe they cut the food. See *Teeth.*

INCŬBUS, (*Incubus, i*, m. from *incubo*, to lie upon, becauſe the patient fancies that ſomething lies upon his cheſt). See *Night mare*, and *Oneirodynia gravans.*

INCUS, (*Incus, ūdis*, f. a ſmith's anvil, from *incudo*, to ſmite upon; ſo named from its likeneſs in ſhape to an anvil). The largeſt and ſtrongeſt of the bones of the ear in the tympanum. It is divided into a body and two crura. Its body is ſituated anteriorly, is rather broad than thick, and has two eminences and two depreſſions, both covered with cartilage, and intended for the reception of the head of the malleus. Its ſhorter crus extends no farther than the cells of the maſtoid apophyſis. Its longer crus, together with the manubrium of the malleus, to which it is connected by a ligament, is of the ſame extent as the ſhorter, but its extremity is curved inwards to receive the os orbiculare, by the intervention of which it is united with the ſtapes.

INDEX, (*Index, ĭcis*, c. g. from *indico*, to point out, becauſe it is generally uſed for ſuch purpoſes.) The fore finger.

INDIAN CRESS. See *Naſturtium indicum.*

INDIAN DATE PLUM. The fruit of the *Dioſpyros lotus* of Linnæus. When ripe it has an agreeable taſte, and is very nutritious.

INDIAN LEAF. See *Caſſia lignea.*

INDIAN PINK. See *Spigelia.*

INDIAN RUBBER. The ſubſtance known by the names Indian rubber, Elaſtic gum, Cayenne reſin, Cautchuc, and by the French Caoutchouc, is prepared from the juice of the *Siphonia elaſtica, foliis ternatis elleptiſis integerrimis ſubtus canis longe peliolatis.* Suppl. plant. The manner of obtaining this juice is by making inciſions through the bark of the lower part of the trunk of the tree, from which the fluid reſin iſſues in great abundance, appearing of a milky whiteneſs as it flows into the veſſel placed to receive it, and into which it is conducted by means of a tube or leaf fixed in the inciſion, and ſupported with clay. On expoſure to the air this milky juice gradually inſpiſſates into a ſoft, reddiſh, elaſtic reſin. It is formed by the Indians in South America into various figures, but is commonly brought to Europe in that of ſpear-ſhaped bottles, which are ſaid to be formed by ſpreading the juice of the Siphonia over a proper mould of clay; as ſoon as one layer is dry another is added, until the bottle be of the thickneſs deſired. It is then expoſed to a thick denſe ſmoke, or to a fire, until it becomes ſo dry as not to ſtick to the fingers, when by means of certain inſtruments of iron or wood it is ornamented on the outſide with various figures. This being done,

it remains only to pick out the mould, which is eaſily effected by ſoftening it with water. Indian rubber may be ſubjected to the action of ſome of the moſt powerful menſtrua, without ſuffering the leaſt change, while its pliability and elaſticity are eminently peculiar to itſelf. Its proper menſtruum is known to ſome perſons in England, who keep it a profound ſecret, and prepare the gum into beautiful catheters, bougies, ſyringes, peſſaries, &c.

INDIAN WHEAT. See *Zea mays*.

INDICATION, (*Indicatio, onis*, f. from *indico*, to ſhew). An indication is that which demonſtrates in a diſeaſe what ought to be done. It is threefold: preſervative, which preſerves health: curative, which expels a preſent diſeaſe; and vital, which reſpects the powers and reaſons of diet. The ſcope from which indications are taken or determined is comprehended in this diſtich:

——*Ars, ætas, regio, complexio, virtus, Mos et ſymptoma, repletio, tempus et uſus.*

INDICĀTOR, (*Indicator, ōris*, m. from *indico*, to point; ſo named from its office of extending the index or fore finger). *Extenſor indicis. Extenſor ſecundi internodii indicis, proprius vulgo indicator* of Douglas. An extenſor muſcle of the fore finger, ſituated chiefly on the lower and poſterior part of the fore arm. It ariſes by an acute fleſhy beginning from the middle of the poſterior part of the ulna, its tendon paſſes under the ſame ligament with the extenſor digitorum communis, with part of which it is inſerted into the poſterior part of the fore-finger.

INFECTION. See *Contagion*.

INFLAMMABLE BODIES. Chemiſts diſtinguiſh by this term ſuch bodies of the mineral kingdom only as burn with facility, and flame in an increaſed temperature.

INFLAMMATION, (*Inflammatio, onis*, f. from *inflammo*, to burn). *Phlogoſis*. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen: characterized by redneſs, heat, pain, and tumour on the ſurface of the body. There are two ſpecies: 1. *Phlegmone*, known by inflammation of a bright red colour; tumour pointed, throbbing, and tending to ſuppuration. 2. *Erythema*, which is inflammation of a dull red colour, vaniſhing upon preſſure, ſpreading unequally, with a burning pain, and tumour ſcarcely perceptible, ending in deſquammation, or veſicles of the ſkin. Phlogoſis often terminates in abſceſs, gangrene, or ſcirrhus.

INFLUENZA, (*Influenza, a*, f. Ital. ſo named becauſe it was ſuppoſed to be produced by a peculiar influence of the ſtars). A ſpecies of Catarrh. See *Catarrhus à contagione*.

INFUNDĬBŬLUM, (*Infundibulum, i*, n. from *infundo*, to pour in). A canal that proceeds from the vulva of the brain to the pituitary gland in the ſella turcica. It is ſometimes impervious.

INFUSING. *Infuſio*. A proceſs that conſiſts in pouring water of any required degree of temperature on ſuch ſubſtances as have a looſe texture, as thin bark, wood in ſhavings, or ſmall pieces, leaves, flowers, &c. and ſuffering it to ſtand a certain time. The liquor obtained by the above proceſs is called an *infuſion*.

INFUSION, (*Infuſum, i*, n. from *infundo*, to pour in). A medicated liquor, formed by pouring either boiling, warm, or cold water on the ſubſtance to be infuſed.

INFUSUM CATĔCHU. A very uſeful mode of exhibiting the catechu in caſes of diarrhæa, dyſentery, fluor albus, and relaxation of the ſtomach. It may be given to children when they refuſe the more naſeous remedies.

INFŪSUM GENTIĀNÆ COMPOSĬTUM. A very useful tonic and stomachic bitter, to which other medicines may be added to answer particular indications. In cardialgia arising from relaxation of the vessels separating the gastric juice; in cases where there is a want of appetite and a deficiency of bile, it may be given with advantage, and in all cases where stomachic tonics are indicated.

INFŪSUM RHÆI. A very mild preparation of rhubarb, which may be exhibited with success as a purgative to the delicate, and those whose bowels are easily acted on.

INFŪSUM ROSÆ. A most useful medicine. As a common drink it cures scarlatina of children, proving antiseptic and gently aperient.

INFŪSUM SENNÆ SIMPLEX. A useful vehicle for other purgative medicines.

INFŪSUM SENNÆ TARTĂRISĀTUM. A useful cooling aperient.

INFŪSUM TAMARINDŌRUM CUM SENNA. A grateful cooling aperient.

INGLUVIES, (*Ingluvies, ei,* f.), The craw, crop, or gorge of a bird. Also gluttony.

INGUEN, (*Inguen, ĭnis,* n.). The groin. The lower and lateral part of the abdomen above the thigh.

INGUINAL LIGAMENT. See *Poupart's ligament.*

INJECTION, (*Injectio, onis,* f.) A medicated liquor to throw into a natural or preternatural cavity of the body by means of a syringe.

INNOMINĀTA ANTERĬA. The first branch given off by the arch of the aorta. It soon divides into the right carotid and right subclavian arteries.

INNOMINĀTUM OS, (*Innominatus,* from *in,* priv. and *nomen,* a name; so called because the three bones of which it originally was formed grew together, and formed one complete bone, which was then left nameless.) A large irregular bone, situated at the side of the pelvis. It is divided into three portions, viz. the iliac, ischiatic, and pubic, which are usually described as three distinct bones.

The os ilium, or haunch bone, is of a very irregular shape. The lower part of it is thick and narrow; its superior portion is broad and thin, terminating in a ridge, called the *spine* of the ilium, and more commonly known by the name of *the haunch.* This spine rises up like an arch, being turned somewhat outward, and from this appearance, the upper part of the pelvis, when viewed together, has not been improperly compared to the wings of a phaeton. This spine, in the recent subject, appears as if tipped with cartilage; but this appearance is nothing more than the tendinous fibres of the muscles that are inserted into it. Externally, this bone is unequally prominent, and hollowed for the attachment of muscles; and internally, at its broadest fore part, it is smooth and concave. At its lower part there is a considerable ridge on its inner surface. This ridge, which extends from the os sacrum, and corresponds with a similar prominence, both on that bone and the ischium, forms, with the inner part of the ossa pubis, what is called the brim of the pelvis. The whole of the internal surface, behind this ridge, is very unequal. The os ilium has likewise a smaller surface posteriorly, by which it is articulated to the sides of the os sacrum. This surface has by some been compared to a human ear, and by others to the head of a bird; but neither of these comparisons seem to convey any just idea of its form or appearance. Its upper part is rough and porous; lower down it is more solid. It is firmly united to the os sacrum by a cartilaginous substance, and likewise by very strong ligamen-

tous fibres, which are extended to that bone from the whole circumference of this irregular ſurface. The ſpine of this bone, which is originally an epiphyſis, has two conſiderable tuberoſities, one anteriorly, and the other poſteriorly, which is the largeſt of the two. The ends of this ſpine too, from their projecting more than the parts of the bone below them, are called ſpinal proceſſes. Before the anterior ſpinal proceſs the ſpine is hollowed, where part of the Sartorius muſcle is placed, and below the poſterior ſpinal proceſs there is a very large niche in the bone, which, in the recent ſubject, has a ſtrong ligament ſtretched over its lower part, from the os ſacrum to the ſharp-pointed proceſs of the iſchium; ſo that a great hole is formed, through which paſs the great ſciatic nerve and the poſterior crural veſſels under the pyriform muſcle, part of which is likewiſe lodged in this hole. The loweſt, thickeſt, and narroweſt part of the ilium, in conjunction with the other two portions of each os innominatum, helps to form the acetabulum for the os femoris

The os iſchium, or hip-bone, which is the loweſt of the three portions of each os innominatum, is of a very irregular figure, and uſually divided into its body, tuberoſity, and ramus. The body, externally, forms the inferior portion of the acetabulum, and ſends a ſharp-pointed proceſs backwards, called the ſpine of the iſchium. This is the proceſs to which the ligament is attached, which was juſt now deſcribed as forming a great foramen for the paſſage of the ſciatic nerve. The tuberoſity is large and irregular, and is placed at the inferior part of the bone, giving origin to ſeveral muſcles. In the recent ſubject it ſeems covered with a cartilaginous cruſt; but this appearance, as in the ſpine of the ilium, is nothing more than the tendinous fibres of the muſcles that are inſerted into it. This tuberoſity, which is the loweſt portion of the trunk, ſupports us when we ſit. Between the ſpine and the tuberoſity is obſerved a ſinuoſity, covered with a cartilaginous cruſt, which ſerves as a pulley, on which the obturator muſcle plays. From the tuberoſity, the bone becoming narrower and thinner, forms the ramus or branch, which paſſing forwards and upwards, makes, with the ramus of the os pubis, a large hole of an oval ſhape, called the *foramen magnum iſchii*, which affords, through its whole circumference, attachment to muſcles. This foramen will be more particularly noticed in deſcribing the os pubis.

The os pubis, or ſhare bone, which is the ſmalleſt of the three portions of the os innominatum, is placed at the upper and fore part of the pelvis, where the two oſſa pubis meet, and are united to each other by means of a very ſtrong cartilage which conſtitutes what is called the *ſymphyſis pubis*. Each os pubis may be divided into its body, angle, and ramus. The body, which is the outer part, is joined to the os ilium. The angle comes forward to form the ſymphyſis, and the ramus is a thin apophyſis, which, uniting with the ramus of the iſchium, forms the *foramen magnum iſchii*, or *thyroideum*, as it has been ſometimes called, from its reſemblance to a door or ſhield. This foramen is ſomewhat wider above than below, and its greateſt diameter is, from above downwards, and obliquely from within outwards. In the recent ſubject it is almoſt completely cloſed by a ſtrong fibrous membrane, called the *obdurator* ligament. Upwards and outwards, where we obſerve a nitch in the bone, the fibres of this ligament are ſeparated, to allow a paſſage to the poſterior crural nerve,

an artery, and vein. The great uſes of this foramen ſeem to be to lighten the bones of the pelvis, and to afford a convenient lodgment to the obturarator muſcles. The three bones now deſcribed as conſtituting the os innominatum on each ſide, all concur to form the great acetabulum, or cotyloid cavity, which receives the head of the thigh bone; the os ilium and os iſchium making each about two fifths, and the os pubis one fifth, of the cavity. This acetabulum, which is of conſiderable depth, is of a ſpherical ſhape. Its brims are high, and, in the recent ſubject, are tipped with cartilage. Theſe brims, however, are higher above and externally, than they are internally and below, where we obſerve a nitch in the bone (which is the iſchium), acroſs which is ſtretched a ligament, forming a hole for the tranſmiſſion of blood-veſſels and nerves to the cavity of the joint. The cartilage, which lines the acetabulum, is thickeſt at its circumference, and thinner within, where a little hole is to be obſerved in which are placed the apparatus that ſerves to lubricate the joint, and facilitate its motions. We are likewiſe able to diſcover the impreſſion made by the internal ligament of the os femoris, which, by being attached both to this cavity and to the head of the os femoris, helps to ſecure the latter in the acetabulum. The bones of the pelvis ſerve to ſupport the ſpine and upper parts of the body, to lodge the inteſtines, urinary bladder, and other viſcera; and likewiſe to unite the trunk to the lower extremities. But beſides theſe uſes, they are deſtined, in the female ſubject, for other important purpoſes; and the accoucheur finds, in the ſtudy of theſe bones, the foundation of all midwifery knowledge. Several eminent writers are of opinion, that in difficult parturition, all the bones of the pelvis undergo a certain degree of ſeparation. It has been obſerved likewiſe, that the cartilage uniting the oſſa pubis is thicker, and of a more ſpongy texture, in women than in men, and therefore more likely to ſwell and enlarge during pregnancy. That many inſtances of a partial ſeparation of theſe bones during labour have happened there can be no doubt; ſuch a ſeparation, however, ought by no means to be conſidered as an uniform and ſalutary work of nature, as ſome writers ſeem to think, but as the effect of diſeaſe. But there is another circumſtance, in regard to this part of Oſteology, which is well worthy of attention; and this is, the different capacities of the pelvis in the male and female ſubject. It has already been obſerved, that the os ſacrum is ſhorter and broader in women than in men; the oſſa ilia are alſo found more expanded; whence it happens, that in women the center of gravity does not fall ſo directly on the upper part of the thigh as in men, and this ſeems to be the reaſon why, in general, they ſtep with leſs firmneſs, and move their hips forwards in walking. From theſe circumſtances alſo, the brim of the female pelvis is nearly of an oval ſhape, being conſiderably wider from ſide to ſide, than from the ſymphyſis pubis to the os ſacrum; whereas in man it is rounder, and every where of leſs diameter. The inferior opening of the pelvis is likewiſe proportionably larger in the female ſubject, the oſſa iſchia being more ſeparated from each other, and the foramen iſchii larger, ſo that, where the os iſchium and os pubis are united together, they form a greater circle; the os ſacrum is alſo more hollowed, though ſhorter, and the os coccygis more looſely connected, and therefore capable of a greater degree of motion than in men.

Inoculation, (*Inoculatio*, from *inoculo*, to ingraft). The insertion of the variolous or vaccine matter under the skin, in order to communicate the small-pox or cow-pox. It is usually done in the arm or leg.

Insānĭa, (*Insania*, *æ*, f. from *in*, not, and *sanus*, sound). Insanity, or deranged imagination. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses* and order *vesaniæ*, characterized by erroneous judgment from imaginary perceptions or recollections, attended with agreeable emotions in persons of a sanguine temperament.

Inspiration, (*Inspiratio*, *onis*, f.). The act of drawing the air into the lungs. See *Respiration*.

Intercostal arteries. *Arteriæ intercostales*. The superior intercostal artery is a branch of the subclavian. The other intercostal arteries are given off from the aorta.

Intercostal muscles. *Intercostāles externi et interni*. Between the ribs, on each side, are eleven double rows of muscles. These are the *intercostales externi* and *interni*. Galen has very properly observed, that they decussate each other like the strokes of the letter X. The *intercostales externi* arise from the lower edge of each superior rib, and, running obliquely downwards and forwards, are inserted into the upper edge of each inferior rib, so as to occupy the intervals of the ribs, from as far back as the spine to their cartilages; but from their cartilages to the sternum there is only a thin aponeurosis covering the internal intercostales. The *intercostales interni* arise and are inserted in the same manner as the external. They begin at the sternum, and extend as far as the angles of the ribs, their fibres running obliquely backwards. These fibres are spread over a considerable part of the inner surface of the ribs, so as to be longer than those of the external intercostals. Some of the posterior portions of the internal intercostals pass over one rib and are inserted into the rib below. Verheyen first described these portions as separate muscles, under the name of *infra costales*. Winslow has adopted the same name. Cowper, and after him Douglas, calls them *costarum depressores proprii*. These distinctions, however, are altogether superfluous, as they are evidently nothing more than appendages of the intercostals. The number of these portions varies in different subjects. Most commonly there is only four, the first of which runs from the second rib to the fourth, the second from the third rib to the fifth, the third from the fourth rib to the sixth, and the fourth from the fifth rib to the seventh. The internal intercostals of the two inferior false ribs are frequently so thin, as to be with difficulty separated from the external; and, in some subjects, one or both of them seem to be altogether wanting. It was the opinion of the ancients, that the external intercostals serve to elevate, and the internal to depress the ribs. They were probably led to this opinion, by observing the different direction of their fibres; but it is now well known, that both have the same use, which is that of raising the ribs equally during inspiration. Fallopius was one of the first who ventured to call in question the opinion of Galen on this subject, by contending that both layers of the intercostals serve to elevate the ribs. In this opinion he was followed by Hieronymus Fabricius, our countryman Mayow, and Borelli. But, towards the close of the last century, Bayle, a writer of some eminence, and professor at Toulouse, revived the opinion of the ancients by the following arguments. He observed, that the oblique direction of the fibres of the internal intercostals is such, that, in each inferior rib, these fibres are nearer to the vertebræ than they are

at their ſuperior extremities, or in the rib immediately above; and that, of courſe, they muſt ſerve to draw the rib downwards, as towards the moſt fixed point. This plauſible doctrine was adopted by ſeveral eminent writers, and, amongſt others, by Nicholls, Hoadley, and Schreiber; but, above all, by Hamberger, who went ſo far as to aſſert, that not only the ribs, but even the ſternum, are pulled downwards by theſe muſcles, and conſtructed a particular inſtrument to illuſtrate this doctrine. He pretended, likewiſe, that the intervals of the ribs are increaſed by their elevation, and diminiſhed by their depreſſion; but he allowed, that, while thoſe parts of the internal intercoſtals that are placed between the bony part of the ribs pull them downwards, the anterior portions of the muſcle, which are ſituated between the cartilages, concur with the external intercoſtals in raiſing them upwards. Theſe opinions gave riſe to a warm and intereſting controverſy, in which Hamberger and Haller were the principal diſputants. The former argued chiefly from theory, and the latter from experiments on living animals, which demonſtrate the fallacy of Hamberger's arguments, and prove beyond a doubt, that the internal intercoſtals perform the ſame functions as the external.

INTERCOSTAL NERVE. *Nervus intercoſtalis.* Great intercoſtal nerve. Sympathetic nerve. The great intercoſtal nerve ariſes in the cavity of the cranium from a branch of the ſixth and one of the fifth pair, uniting into one trunk, which paſſes out of the cranium through the carotid canal, and deſcends by the ſides of the bodies of the vertebræ of the neck, thorax, loins, and os ſacrum: in its courſe it receives the ſmall acceſſory branches from all the thirty pair of ſpinal nerves. In the neck it gives off three cervical ganglions, the upper, middle, and lower; from which the cardiac and pulmonary nerves ariſe. In the thorax it gives off the ſplanchnic or anterior intercoſtal, which perforates the diaphragm, and forms the ſemilunar ganglions, from which nerves paſs to all the abdominal viſcera. They alſo form in the abdomen ten peculiar plexuſes, diſtinguiſhed by the name of the viſcus to which they belong, as the cœliac, ſplenic, hepatic, ſuperior, middle and lower meſenteric, two renal, and two ſpermatic plexuſes. The poſterior intercoſtal nerve gives acceſſory branches about the pelvis and iſchiatic nerve, and at length terminates.

INTERCOSTAL VEINS. The intercoſtal veins empty their blood into the vena azygos.

INTERMITTENT FEVER. See *Febris intermittens.*

INTEROSSĔI MANUS, (*Interoſſeus muſculus*, from *inter*, between, and *os*, the bone). Theſe are ſmall muſcles ſituated between the metacarpal bones, and extending from the bones of the carpus to the fingers. They are divided into *internal* and *external*; the former are to be ſeen only on the palm of the hand, but the latter are conſpicuous both on the palm and back of the hand.—The *interoſſei interni* are three in number. The firſt, which Albinus names *poſterior indicis*, ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the baſis and inner part of the metacarpal bone of the fore finger, and likewiſe from the upper part of that which ſupports the middle-finger. Its tendon paſſes over the articulation of this part of theſe bones with the fore-finger, and uniting with the tendinous expanſion that is ſent off from the extenſor digitorum communis, is inſerted into the poſterior convex ſurface of the firſt phalanx of that finger. The ſecond and third, to which Albinus gives the names of *prior annularis*, and *interoſſeus auricularis*, ariſe, in the ſame manner, from the baſes of the out-

ſides of the metacarpal bones that ſuſtain the ring-finger and the little-finger, and are inſerted into the outſide of the tendinous expanſion of the extenſor digitorum communis that covers each of thoſe fingers. Theſe three muſcles draw the fingers, into which they are inſerted, towards the thumb. The *interoſſei externi* are four in number, for among theſe is included the ſmall muſcle that is ſituated on the outſide of the metacarpal bone that ſupports the fore-finger. Douglas calls it *extenſor tertii internodii indicis*, and Winſlow *ſemi interoſſeus indicis*. Albinus, who deſcribes it among the interoſſei, gives it the name of *prior indicis*. This firſt interoſſeus externus ariſes by two tendinous and fleſhy portions. One of theſe ſprings from the upper half of the inner ſide of the firſt bone of the thumb, and the other from the ligaments that unite the os trapezoides to the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, and likewiſe from all the outſide of this latter bone. Theſe two portions unite as they deſcend, and terminate in a tendon, which is inſerted into the outſide of that part of the tendinous expanſion from the extenſor digitorum communis that is ſpread over the poſterior convex ſurface of the fore-finger. The ſecond, to which Albinus gives the name of *prior medii*, is not quite ſo thick as the laſt deſcribed muſcle. It ariſes by two heads, one of which ſprings from the inner ſide of the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, chiefly towards its convex ſurface, and the other ariſes from the adjacent ligaments, and from the whole outer ſide of the metacarpal bone that ſuſtains the middle-finger. Theſe two portions unite as they deſcend, and terminate in a tendon, which is inſerted, in the ſame manner as the preceding muſcle, into the outſide of the tendinous expanſion that covers the poſterior part of the middle-finger. The third belongs likewiſe to the middle-finger, and is therefore named *poſterior medii* by Albinus. It ariſes, like the laſt-deſcribed muſcle, by two origins, which ſpring from the roots of the metacarpal bones of the ring and middle-fingers, and from the adjacent ligaments, and is inſerted into the inſide of the ſame tendinous expanſion as the preceding muſcle. The fourth, to which Albinus gives the name of *poſterior annularis*, differs from the two laſt only in its ſituation, which is between the metacarpal bones of the ring and little fingers. It is inſerted into the inſide of the tendinous expanſion of the extenſor digitorum communis that covers the poſterior part of the ring-finger. All theſe four muſcles ſerve to extend the fingers into which they are inſerted, and likewiſe to draw them inwards, towards the thumb, except the third, or *poſterior medii*, which, from its ſituation and inſertion, is calculated to pull the middle-finger outwards.

Interossei pedis. Theſe ſmall muſcles in their ſituation between the metatarſal bones reſemble the interoſſei of the hand, and, like them, are divided into *internal* and *external*. The *interoſſei pedis interni* are three in number. They ariſe tendinous and fleſhy from the baſis and inſide of the metatarſal bones of the middle, the third, and the little toes, in the ſame manner as thoſe of the hand, and they each terminate in a tendon that runs to the inſide of the firſt joint of theſe toes, and from thence to their upper ſurface, where it loſes itſelf in the tendinous expanſion that is ſent off from the extenſors. Each of theſe three muſcles ſerves to draw the toe, into which it is inſerted, towards the great-toe. The *interoſſei externi* are four in number. The firſt ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the outſide of the root of the metatarſal bone of the great-toe, from the os cuneiforme in-

ternum, and from the root of the inside of the metatarsal bone of the fore-toe. Its tendon is inserted into the inside of the tendinous expansion that covers the back part of the toes. The second is placed in a similar manner between the metatarsal bones of the fore and middle-toes, and is inserted into the outside of the tendinous expansion on the back part of the fore-toe. The third and fourth are placed between the two next metatarsal bones, and are inserted into the outside of the middle and third-toes. The first of these muscles draws the fore-toe inwards towards the great-toe. The three others pull the toes, into which they are inserted, outwards. They all assist in extending the toes.

INTERSPĪNĀLES COLLI, (*Interspināles musculi*, from *inter*, between, and *spina*, the spine). The fleshy portions between the spinous processes of the neck, that draw these processes nearer to each other.

INTERSPINĀLES DORSI ET LUMBŌRUM. These are rather small tendons than muscles that connect the spinal and transverse processes.

INTERTRANSVERSĀLES LUMBŌRUM. Four distinct small bundles of flesh, which fill up the spaces between the transverse processes of the vertebræ of the loins, and serve to draw them towards each other.

INTERTRĪGO, (*Intertrigo, gĭnis*, f. from *inter*, between, and *tero*, to rub). An excoriation about the anus, groins, axilla, or other parts of the body, attended with inflammation and moisture. It is most commonly produced by the irritation of the urine, from riding, or some acrimony in children.

INTESTINES, (*Intestĭna, ōrum*, n. pl. from *intus*, within). The convoluted membranous tube that extends from the stomach to the anus; receives the ingested food, retains it a certain time; mixes with it the bile and pancreatic juices; propels the chyle into the lacteals, and covers the fæces with mucus, is so called. They are situated in the cavity of the abdomen, and are divided into the small and large intestines, which have, besides their size, other circumstances of distinction. The small intestines are supplied internally with folds, called *valvulæ conniventes*, and have no bands on their external surface. The large intestines have no folds internally, and are supplied externally with three strong muscular bands, which run parallel upon the surface, and give the intestines a saccated appearance; and they have also small fatty appendages, called *appendiculæ epiploicæ*. The first portion of the intestinal tube, for about the extent of twelve fingers breadth, is called the *duodenum*; it lies in the epigastric region; makes three turnings, and between the first and second flexure receives, by a common opening, the pancreatic duct, and the ductus communis choledochus. It is in this portion of the intestines that chylification is chiefly performed. The remaining portion of the small intestines is distinguished by an imaginary division into the jejunum and ileum. The *jejunum*, which commences where the duodenum ends, is situated in the umbilical region, and is mostly found empty; hence its name: it is every where covered with red vessels, and about an hour and an half after a meal, with lacteals. The *ileum* occupies the hypogastric region and the pelvis; is of a more pallid colour than the former, and terminates by a transverse opening into the large intestines, which is called the *valve of the ileum*, *valve of the cæcum*, *or the valve of Tulpius*. The beginning of the large intestines is firmly tied down in the right iliac region, and for the extent of about four fingers breadth is called the *cæcum*, having adhering to it a worm-like process, called the *processus cæci*

vermiformis, or *appendicula cæci vermiformis*. The great inteſtine then commences *colon*, aſcends towards the liver, paſſes acroſs the abdomen under the ſtomach to the left ſide, where it is contorted like the letter *S*, and deſcends to the pelvis: hence it is divided in this courſe into the *aſcending portion*, *the tranſverſe arch*, and the *ſigmoid flexure*. When it has reached the pelvis it is called the *rectum*, from whence it proceeds in a ſtraight line to the anus.

The inteſtinal canal is compoſed of three membranes or coats, a *common* one from the peritoneum, a *muſcular coat*, and a *villous coat*, the villi being formed of the fine terminations of arteries and nerves, and the origins of lacteals and lymphatics. The inteſtines are connected to the body by the myſentery; the duodenum has alſo a peculiar connecting cellular ſubſtance, as has likewiſe the colon and rectum, by whoſe means the former is firmly accreted to the back, the colon to the kidneys, and the latter to the os coccygis, and, in women, to the vagina. The remaining portion of the tube is looſe in the cavity of the abdomen. The arteries of this canal are branches of the *ſuperior* and *inferior meſenteric*, and the *duodenal*. The veins evacuate their blood into the vena portæ. The nerves are branches of the eighth pair and intercoſtals. The *lacteal veſſels*, which originate principally from the jejunum, proceed to the glands in the meſentery.

Intus-susception, (*Intus-ſuſceptio*, f. from *intus*, within, and *ſuſcipio*, to receive). A diſeaſe of the inteſtinal tube, and moſt frequently of the ſmall inteſtines; it conſiſts in a portion of gut paſſing for ſome length within another portion.

Intybus, (*Intybus*, *i*, m. from *in*, and *tuba*, a hollow inſtrument ſo named from the hollowneſs of its ſtalk). See *Endivia*.

Inula, (*Inula*, *æ*, f. contracted or corrupted from *helenium*, ελενιον, fabled to have ſprung from the tears of Helen). The herb elecampane.

Inula, common. See *Enula campana*.

Inula dyſenterica. The ſyſtematic name of the leſſer inula. See *Conyza media*.

Inula helenium. The ſyſtematic name of the elecampane. See *Enula campana*.

Ipecacuanha, (*Ipecacuanha*, *æ*, f. Indian). Ipecacuan. The plant from which this valuable root is obtained, was long unknown; it was ſaid by ſome writers to be the *Pſychotria emetica*; claſs *Pentandria*; order *Monogynia*: by others, the *Viola ipecacuanha*, a ſyngeneſious plant of the order monogynia. It is now aſcertained to be neither, but a ſmall plant called *Callicocca ipecacuanha*. There are three ſorts of ipecacuan to be met with in our ſhops, viz. the aſh-coloured or grey, the brown, and the white. The aſh-coloured is brought from Peru, and is a ſmall wrinkled root, bent and contorted into a great variety of figures, brought over in ſhort pieces, full of wrinkled and deep circular fiſſures, down to a ſmall white woody fibre that runs in the middle of each piece: the cortical part is compact, brittle, looks ſmooth and reſinous upon breaking: it has very little ſmell; the taſte is bitteriſh and ſubacrid, covering the tongue as it were with a kind of mucilage. The brown is ſmall, ſomewhat more wrinkled than the foregoing; of a brown or blackiſh colour without, and white within: this is brought from Brazil. The white ſort is woody, has no wrinkles, nor any perceptible bitterneſs in taſte. The firſt, the aſh-coloured or grey ipecacuan, is that uſually preferred for medicinal uſe. The brown has been ſometimes obſerved, even in a ſmall doſe, to produce violent effects. The white, though taken in a large

one, has ſcarce any effect at all. Experience has proved that this medicine is the ſafeſt emetic with which we are acquainted, having this peculiar advantage, that if it does not operate by vomit, it readily paſſes off by the other emunctories. Ipecacuan was firſt introduced as an infallible remedy againſt dyſenteries and other inveterate fluxes, as diarrhœa, menorrhagia, leucorrhœa, &c. and alſo in diſorders proceeding from obſtructions of long ſtanding; nor has it loſt much of its reputation by time: its utility in theſe caſes is thought to depend upon its reſtoring perſpiration. It has alſo been ſucceſsfully employed in ſpaſmodic aſthma, catarrhal and conſumptive caſes. Nevertheleſs its chief uſe is as a vomit, and in ſmall doſes, joined with opium, as a diaphoretic. The officinal preparations are the *pulvis ipecacuanhæ compoſitus*, and the *vinum ipecacuanhæ*.

Iquetaia. The inhabitants of the Brazils give this name to the *Scrophularia aquatica*, which is there celebrated as a corrector of the ill flavour of ſenna.

Iris, (*Iris*, *ĭdis*, f. a rainbow; ſo called becauſe of the variety of its colours). The anterior portion of the choroid membrane of the eye, which is perforated in the middle by the pupil. It is of various colours. The poſterior ſurface of the iris is termed the *uvea*. The *flower de luce* is alſo called iris from the reſemblance of its flowers to the rainbow.

Iris Florentĭna. Florentine orris, or iris. The root of this plant, *Iris florentina* of Linnæus. *Iris corollis barbatis, caule foliis altiore ſubbifloro, floribus ſeſſilibus*. Claſs *Triandria*. Order *Monogynia*; which is indigenous to Italy, in its recent ſtate is extremely acrid, and when chewed excites a pungent heat in the mouth, that continues ſeveral hours: on being dried, this acrimony is almoſt wholly diſſipated; the taſte is ſlightly bitter, and the ſmell agreeable, and approaching to that of violets. The freſh root is cathartic, and for this purpoſe has been employed in dropſies. It is now chiefly uſed in its dried ſtate, and ranked as a pectoral and expectorant, and hence has a place in the *trochiſci amyli* of the London Pharmacopœia.

Iris florentine. See *Iris florentina*.

Iris germanĭca. The ſyſtematic name of the flower-de-luce. See *Iris noſtras*.

Iris nostras. Common iris, or orrice. Flower-de-luce. This plant is the *Iris germanica*; *corollis barbatis, caule foliis altiori multifloro, floribus inferioribus pedunculatis* of Linnæus. The freſh roots have a ſtrong diſagreeable ſmell, and an acrid nauſeous taſte. They are powerfully cathartic, and are given in dropſical diſeaſes, where ſuch remedies are indicated.

Iris palustris. *Gladiolus luteus. Acorus vulgaris.* Yellow water flag. This indigenous plant, *Iris pſeudacorus imberbis, foliis enſiformibus, petalis alternis, ſtigmatibus minoribus* of Thunberg. Claſs *Triandria*. Order *Monogynia*; is common in marſhes, and on the banks of rivers. It formerly had a place in the London Pharmacopœia under the name of *gladiolus luteus*. The root is without ſmell, but has an acrid ſtyptic taſte, and its juice, on being ſnuffed up the noſtrils, produces a burning heat in the noſe and mouth, accompanied by a copious diſcharge from theſe organs; hence it is recommended both as an errhine and ſialagogue. Given internally, when perfectly dry, its adſtringent qualities are ſuch as to cure diarrhœas. The expreſſed juice is likewiſe ſaid to be an uſeful application to ſerpiginous eruptions and ſcrofulous tumours.

Iris pseudacorus. The ſyſtematic name of the yellow water flag. See *Iris Paluſtris*.

Irish slate. See *Lapis hibernicus*.

Iron. *Ferrum*. An imperfect metal of a white livid colour, inclining to gray, internally compoſed of ſmall facets. It is very abundant in nature, being found in almoſt all coloured ſtones, bitumens, and in almoſt all metallic ores. The utility of iron in the practice of phyſic is very conſiderable. It is the baſis of many important medicines, which are frequently employed with the happieſt ſucceſs. It may be ſaid to be the only metal which is not noxious, and whoſe operation is not to be feared. The effects of this remedy upon the animal economy are various. It gives energy to the nerves and muſcles, increaſes the ſecretions in general, eſpecially the menſtrual diſcharge, and excites the action of the heart and arteries. Nor is its action leſs effectual on the fluids; it is readily carried into the blood, combines with it, renders it of a darker colour, and imparts to it a more healthy conſiſtence: it is therefore a tonic and alterative, and unites in its operation the properties of a great number of other medicines. Like adſtringents, it increaſes the motion of the parts, and has the advantage of being more conſtant and durable in its effects than many other remedies which poſſeſs the ſame virtue, becauſe it combines with the organs themſelves, by means of the fluids which ſerve for their nutrition. It appears, therefore, that in every caſe wherein the muſcular and nervous fibres are feeble in their action, in debilities of the ſtomach and inteſtines, and diſeaſes dependant thereon; in ſhort, in every caſe wherein the blood has not a ſufficient quantity of cruor, or has not its healthy degree of conſiſtency, ſteel medicines may be adminiſtered with ſucceſs. The officinal preparations in the pharmacopœias are very numerous. If iron be expoſed to the action of the air, it becomes oxydated, and is converted into the *Oxydum ferri luteum*. See *Rubigo ferri*. Submitted to the action of diluted ſulphuric acid, by concentrating the ſolution by evaporation, it forms the *Sulphas ferri*. See *Ferrum vitriolatum*. With muriatic acid, it forms the *murias ferri*, the *ferrum ſalitum* of Bergman, from which the *tinctura ferri muriati* is made. Iron filings ſublimed with the muriate of ammonia, or ſal ammoniac, form the *Murias ferri ammoniacalis*. See *Flores martiales*. With the powdered cryſtals of tartar, it forms the *Tartris potaſſæ acidulus ferratus*. See *Ferrum tartariſatum*. Iron, poſſeſſing the magnetic property, is ſaid to produce very ſingular effects upon the animal economy; and it is affirmed that, when applied to the ſkin, it mitigates pain, diminiſhes convulſions, excites redneſs, ſweat, and often a ſmall irruption. How far theſe aſſertions are to be depended upon is uncertain; but that the magnet has very ſenſible effects, is proved by *Thouret*, in the Tranſactions of the Royal Society of Medicine of Paris.

Irritability, (*Irritabilitas, ātis*, f. from *irrito*, to provoke). *Vis inſita* of Haller. *Vis vitalis* of Goerter. Oſcillation of Boerhaave. Tonic power of Stahl. Muſcular power of Bell. Inherent power of Cullen. The contractility of muſcular fibres, or a property *peculiar* to muſcles, by which they contract upon the application of certain ſtimuli, without a conſciouſneſs of action. This power may be ſeen in the tremulous contraction of muſcles when lacerated, or when entirely ſeparated from the body in operations. Even when the the body is dead to all appearance, and the nervous power is gone, this contractile power remains till the organization yields, and begins to be diſſolved. It is by this inherent power that a cut muſcle contracts and leaves a gap; that a cut artery ſhrinks

and grows ſtiff after death. This irritability of muſcles is ſo far independent of nerves, and ſo little connected with feeling, which is the province of the nerves, that upon ſtimulating any muſcle by touching it with cauſtic, or irritating it with a ſharp point, or driving the electric ſpark through it, or exciting with the metallic conductors, as thoſe of ſilver or zinc, the muſcle inſtantly contracts, although the nerve of that muſcle be tied; although the nerve be cut ſo as to ſeparate the muſcle entirely from all connection with the ſyſtem; although the muſcle be ſeparated from the body; although the creature upon which the experiment is performed may have loſt all ſenſe of feeling, and have been long apparently dead. Thus a muſcle cut from the limb trembles and palpitates a long time after: the heart ſeparated from the body contracts when irritated; the bowels, when torn from the body, continue their periſtaltic motion, ſo as to roll upon the table, ceaſing to anſwer to ſtimuli only when they become ſtiff and cold; and too often in the human body, the vis inſita loſes the exciting power of the nerves, and then palſy enſues; or, loſing all governance of the nerves, the vis inſita, acting without the regulating power, falls into partial or general convulſions. Even in vegetables, as in the ſenſative plant, this contractile power lives. Thence comes the diſtinction between the irritability of muſcles and the ſenſibility of nerves; for the *irritability* of muſcles ſurvives the animal, as when it is active after death; ſurvives the life of the part of the feelings of the whole ſyſtem, as in univerſal palſy, where the vital motions continue entire and perfect, and where the muſcles, though not obedient to the will, are ſubject to irregular and violent actions; and it ſurvives the connection with the reſt of the ſyſtem, as when animals very tenacious of life are cut into parts: but *ſenſibility*, the property of the nerves, gives the various modifications of ſenſe, as viſion, hearing, and the reſt; gives alſo the general ſenſe of pleaſure or pain, and makes the ſyſtem, according to its various conditions, feel vigorous and healthy, or weary and low. And thus the eye feels and the ſkin feels: but their appointed ſtimuli produce no motions in theſe parts; they are ſenſible but not irritable. The heart, the inteſtines, the urinary bladder, and all the muſcles of voluntary motion, anſwer to ſtimuli with a quick and forcible contraction; and yet they hardly feel the ſtimuli by which theſe contractions are produced, or at leaſt they do not convey that feeling to the brain. There is no conſciouſneſs of preſent ſtimulus in thoſe parts which are called into action by the impulſe of the nerves, and at the command of the will: ſo that muſcular parts have all the irritability of the ſyſtem, with but little feeling, and that little owing to the nerves which enter into their ſubſtance; while nerves have all the ſenſibility of the ſyſtem, but no motion.

The diſcovery of this ſingular property belongs to our countryman Glyſſon; but Baron Haller muſt be conſidered as the firſt who clearly pointed out its exiſtence, and proved it to be the cauſe of muſcular motion.

The laws of irritability, according to Dr. Crichton, are, 1. After every action in an irritable part, a ſtate of reſt, or ceſſation from motion, muſt take place before the irritable part can be again incited to action. If by an act of volition we throw any of our muſcles into action, that action can only be continued for a certain ſpace of time; the muſcle becomes relaxed, notwithſtanding all our endeavours to the contrary, and

remains a certain time in that relaxed ſtate, before it can be again thrown into action. 2. Each irritable part has a certain portion or quantity of the principle of irritability which is natural to it, part of which it loſes during action, or from the application of ſtimuli. 3. By a proceſs wholly unknown to us, it regains this loſt quantity, during its repoſe or ſtate of reſt. In order to expreſs the different quantities of irritability in any part, we ſay that it is either more or leſs redundant, or more or or leſs defective. It becomes redundant in a part when the ſtimuli which are calculated to act on that part are withdrawn, or withheld for a certain length of time, becauſe then no action can take place: while on the other hand, the application of ſtimuli cauſes it to be exhauſted, or to be deficient, not only by exciting action, but by ſome ſecret influence, the nature of which has not yet been detected; for it is a circumſtance extremely deſerving of attention, that an irritable part or body may be ſuddenly deprived of its irritability by powerful ſtimuli, and yet no apparent cauſe of muſcular or vaſcular action takes place at the time. A certain quantity of ſpirits taken at once into the ſtomach, kills almoſt as inſtantaneouſly as lightning does: the ſame thing may be obſerved of ſome poiſons, as opium, diſtilled laurel-water, the juice of the cerbera ahovai, &c. 4. Each irritable part has ſtimuli which are peculiar to it; and which are intended to ſupport its natural action: thus, blood, which is the ſtimulus proper to the heart and arteries, if by any accident it gets into the ſtomach, produces ſickneſs or vomiting. If the gall, which is the natural ſtimulus to the gall-bladder, duct, and duodenum, is by any accident effuſed into the cavity of the peritoneum, it excites too great action of the veſſels of that part, and induces inflammation. The urine does not irritate the tender fabric of the kidneys, ureters, or bladder, except in ſuch a degree as to preſerve their healthy action; but if it be effuſed into the cellular membrane, it brings on ſuch a violent action of the veſſels of theſe parts as to produce gangrene. Such ſtimuli are called *habitual* ſtimuli of parts. 5. Each irritable part differs from the reſt in regard to the quantity of irritability which it poſſeſſes. This law explains to us the reaſon of the great diverſity which we obſerve in the action of various irritable parts; thus the muſcles of voluntary motion can remain a long time in a ſtate of action, and if it be continued as long as poſſible, another conſiderable portion of time is required before they regain the irritability they loſt; but the heart and arteries have a more ſhort and ſudden action, and their ſtate of reſt is equally ſo. The circular muſcles of the inteſtines have alſo a quick action and ſhort reſt. The urinary bladder does not fully regain the irritability it loſes during its contraction for a conſiderable ſpace of time; the veſſels which ſeparate and throw out the menſtrual diſcharge, act, in general, for three or four days, and do not regain the irritability they loſe for a lunar month. 6. All ſtimuli produce action in proportion to their irritating powers. As a perſon approaches his hand to the fire, the action of all the veſſels in the ſkin is increaſed, and it glows with heat; if the hand be approached ſtill nearer, the action is increaſed to ſuch an unuſual degree as to occaſion redneſs and pain; and if it be continued too long, real inflammation takes place; but if this heat be continued, the part at laſt loſes its irritability, and a ſphacelus or gangrene enſues. 7. The action of every ſtimulus is in an inverſe ratio to the frequency of its application. A

ſmall quantity of ſpirits taken into the ſtomach, increaſes the action of its muſcular coat, and alſo of its various veſſels, ſo that digeſtion is thereby facilitated. If the ſame quantity, however, be taken frequently, it loſes its effect. In order to produce the ſame effect as at firſt, a larger quantity is neceſſary: and hence the origin of dram-drinking. 8. The more the irritability of a part is accumulated, the more that part is diſpoſed to be acted upon. It is on this account that the activity of all animals, while in perfect health, is much livelier in the morning than at any other time of the day; for during the night the irritability of the whole frame, and eſpecially that of the muſcles deſtined for labour, viz. the muſcles of voluntary action, is re-accumulated. The ſame law explains why digeſtion goes on more rapidly the firſt hour after food is ſwallowed than at any other time; and it alſo accounts for the great danger that accrues to a famiſhed perſon upon firſt taking in food. 9. If the ſtimuli which keep up the action of any irritable body be withdrawn for too great a length of time, that proceſs on which the formation of the principle depends is gradually diminiſhed, and at laſt entirely deſtroyed. When the irritability of the ſyſtem is too quickly exhauſted by heat, as is the caſe in certain warm climates, the application of cold invigorates the frame, becauſe cold is a mere diminution of the overplus of that ſtimulus which was cauſing the rapid conſumption of the principle. Under ſuch or ſimilar circumſtances, therefore, cold is a tonic remedy; but if, in a climate naturally cold, a perſon were to go into a cold bath, and not ſoon return into a warmer atmoſphere, it would deſtroy life juſt in the ſame manner as many poor people who have no comfortable dwellings are often deſtroyed from being too long expoſed to the cold in winter. Upon the firſt application of cold the irritability is accumulated, and the vaſcular ſyſtem therefore is diſpoſed to great action; but after a certain time all action is ſo much diminiſhed, that the proceſs, whatever it be, on which the formation of the irritable principle depends, is entirely loſt. For further information on this intereſting ſubject, ſee Dr. Crichton on Mental Derangement.

IRRITATION. *Irritatio.* The action produced by any ſtimulus.

ISCHĬAS, (*Iſchias, ădis*, f. ἰσχιας; from ἰσχιον, the hip). *Sciatica.* A rheumatic affection of the hip joint; one of the terminations of acute rheumatiſm.

ISCHIATOCELE, (*Iſchiatocele, es*, f. ἰσχιατοκηλη; from ἰσχιον, the hip, and κηλη, a rupture). *Iſchiocele.* An inteſtinal rupture through the ſciatic ligaments.

ISCHIO-CAVERNOSUS. See *Erector penis.*

ISCHIOCELE, (*Iſchiocele, es*, f. ἰσχιοκηλη). See *Iſchiatocele.*

ISCHĬUM, (*Iſchium, i*, n. ἰσχιον; from ἰσχις, the loin, ſo named becauſe it is near the loin). A bone of the pelvis of the fœtus. See *Innominatum os.*

ISCHŬRĬA, (*Iſchuria, æ*, f. ἰσχυρια; from ἰσχω, to reſtrain, and ὑρον, the urine). A ſuppreſſion of urine. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *epiſcheſes* of Cullen. There are four ſpecies of iſchuria: 1. *Iſchuria renalis*, coming after a diſeaſe of the kidneys, with a troubleſome ſenſe of weight in that part. 2. *Iſchuria ureterica*, after a diſeaſe of the kidneys, a ſenſe of pain or uneaſineſs in the courſe of the ureters. 3. *Iſchuria veſicalis*, a frequent deſire to make water, with a ſwelling of the hypogaſtrium, and pain at the neck of the bladder. 4. *Iſchuria urethralis*, a frequent deſire to make

water, with a swelling of the hypogastrium, and pain of some part of the urethra.

Islandĭcus muscus. See *Lichen islandicus*.

Isinglass. See *Ichthyocolla*.

Isthmus Vieussenii. The ridge surrounding the oval fossa or remains of the foramen ovale, in the right auricle of the human heart.

Ivy. See *Hedera arborea*.

Ivy-ground. See *Hedera terrestris*.

Ivy-gum. See *Gummi hederæ*.

Ixine. See *Carlina gummifera*.

J.

Jack-by-the-hedge. See *Alliaria*.

Jacobæa. Ragwort. *Senecio jacobæa* of Linnæus. The leaves of this common plant have a roughish, bitter, sub-acrid taste, extremely nauseous. A decoction is said to have been of infinite service in the cure of epidemic camp dysentery.

Jalap. See *Jalapium*.

Jalapĭum, (*Jalapium, i*, n. from *Chalapa* or *Xalapa* in New Spain, whence it is brought). *Mechoacanna nigra*. Jalap. The plant from which this root is obtained is the *Convolvulus jalapa*; *caule volubili*; *foliis ovatis subcordatis obtusis obsolete repandis subtus villosis*; *pedunculis unifloris*. Hort Kew. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. A native of South America. In the shops the root is found both cut into slices and whole, of an oval shape, solid, ponderous, blackish on the outside, but gray within, and marked with several dark veins, by the number of which, and by its hardness, heaviness, and dark colour, the goodness of the root is to be estimated. It has scarcely any smell, and very little taste, but to the tongue, and to the throat, manifests a slight degree of pungency. The medicinal activity of jalap resides principally, if not wholly, in the resin, which, though given in small doses, occasions violent tormina. The root powdered, is a very common, efficacious, and safe purgative, as daily experience evinces; but according as it contains more or less resin, its effects must of course vary. In large doses, or when joined with calomel, it is recommended as an anthelmintic and hydrogogue. In the pharmacopœias this root is ordered in the form of tincture and extract; and the Edinburgh college directs it also in powder with twice its weight of chrystals of tartar.

Jalappa alba. See *Mechoacanna*.

Jamaica bark. See *Chinchini caribæa*.

Jamaica pepper. See *Pimento*.

Japan earth. See *Catechu*.

Japonĭca terra. See *Catechu*.

Jargon. *Terra circona*. *Terra zirconia*. A primitive earth lately found in the precious stone called jargon, or hyacinth of the island of Ceylon. When calcined it has a white colour, is exceedingly heavy, and rough to the touch, has no taste, and is insoluble in water.

Jasmīnum, (*Jasminum, i*, n. ιασμινοι; from *jasmen*, Arab. or from ιον, a violet, and οσφρησις, odour, on account of the fine odour of the flowers). Jessamine. The flowers of this beautiful plant, the *Jasminum officinale* of Linnæus, have a very fragrant smell, and a bitter taste. They afford, by distillation, an essen-

tial oil, which is much eſteemed in Italy to rub paralytic limbs, and in the cure of rheumatic pains.

JASMĪNUM OFFICINĀLE. The ſyſtematic name of the jaſſamine tree. See *Jaſminum.*

JATROPHA CURCAS. The ſyſtematic name of a plant whoſe ſeeds reſemble the caſtor oil ſeeds. See *Ricinus major.*

JECORARĬA, (*Jecoraria, æ*, f. from *jecur*, the liver, ſo named from its ſuppoſed efficacy in diſeaſes of the liver). See *Hepatica terreſtris.*

JĒJŪNUM, (*Jejunum, i.* n. from *jejunus*, empty). *Jejunum inteſtinum.* The ſecond portion of the ſmall inteſtines, ſo called becauſe it is moſtly found empty. See *Inteſtines.*

JELLY. Modern chemiſts have given this name to the mucilaginous ſubſtance, very ſoluble in water, and not at all in ſpirits of wine, that is obtained from all the ſoft and white parts of animals, ſuch as the membranes, tendons, aponeuroſes, cartilages, ligaments, and ſkin, by boiling them in water. If the decoction or jelly be ſtrongly evaporated, it affords a dry, brittle, tranſparent ſubſtance, known by the name of glue.

JESSAMINE. See *Jaſminum.*

JERUSALEM COWSLIPS. See *Pulmonaria maculata.*

JERUSALEM OAK. See *Botrys vulgaris.*

JERUSALEM SAGE. See *Pulmonaria maculata.*

JESUITĀNUS CORTEX, (*Jeſuitanus*; from *jeſuita*, a jeſuit). A ſpecific name of the Peruvian bark, becauſe it was firſt introduced into Europe by Father de Lugo, a Jeſuit. See *Cinchona.*

JESUITĪCUS CORTEX. See *Cinchona.*

JESUITS BARK. See *Cinchona.*

JET. A black bitumen, hard and compact, like certain ſtones, found in great abundance in various parts of France, Sweden, Germany, and Ireland. It is brilliant and vitreous in its fracture, and capable of taking a good poliſh by friction: it attracts light ſubſtances, and appears to be electric, like amber; hence it has been called *black amber:* it has no ſmell, but when heated it acquires one like bitumen judaicum.

JEWS PITCH. See *Bitumen judaicum.*

JOHN'S WORT. See *Hypericum.*

JONTHI, (*Jonthus, i*, m. ἰονθος). *Vari.* Small red, hard, and indolent tubercles that appear about the face of young perſons before or about the time of puberty.

JUGĀLE OS, (*Jugalis*; from *jugum*, a yoke, from its reſemblance, or becauſe it is articulated to the bone of the upper jaw like a yoke). *Os malæ. Os zygomaticum.* The oſſa malarum are the prominent ſquare bones which form the upper part of the cheeks. They are ſituated cloſe under the eyes, and make part of the orbits. Each of theſe bones has three ſurfaces to be conſidered. One of theſe is exterior and ſomewhat convex. The ſecond is ſuperior and concave, ſerving to form the lower and lateral parts of the orbit. The third, which is poſterior, is very unequal, and concave, for the lodgment of the lower part of the temporal muſcle. Each of theſe bones may be deſcribed as having four proceſſes, formed by their four angles. Two of theſe may be called *orbitar* proceſſes. The ſuperior one is connected with the orbitar proceſs of the os frontis; and the inferior one with the malar proceſs of the maxillary bone. The third is connected with the temporal proceſs of the ſphenoid bone; and the fourth forms a bony arch, by its connection with the zygomatic proceſs of the temporal bone. In infants theſe bones are entire and completely oſſified.

JUGLANS, (*Juglans, dis*, f. *quaſi Jovis glans*, the royal fruit, from its magnitude). The walnut. The tree which bears this fruit is the *Juglans regia* of Linnæus, (*Juglans foliolis ovalibus glabris ſubſerratis ſubæqualibus*. Claſs *Monoecia*. Order *Polyandria*), a native of Perſia, but cultivated in this country. The unripe fruit, which has an aſtringent bitteriſh taſte, and has been long employed as a pickle, is the part directed for medicinal uſe by the London college, on account of its anthelmintic virtues. An extract of the green fruit is the moſt convenient preparation, as it may be kept for a ſufficient length of time, and made agreeable to the ſtomach of the patient by mixing it with cinnamon water.

JUGLANS REGĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the walnut tree. See *Juglans*.

JUGULAR VEINS, (*Venæ jugulares* from *jugulum* the throat). Theſe veins run from the head down the ſides of the neck, and are divided, from their ſituation, into external and internal. The *external* or *ſuperficial jugular vein* receives the blood from the frontal, angular, temporal, auricular, ſublingual or ranine, and the occipital veins. The *internal* or *deep-ſeated jugular vein* receives the blood from the lateral ſinuſſes of the dura mater, the laryngeal and pharyngeal veins. Both jugulars unite, and form with the ſubclavian vein, the ſuperior vena cava, which terminates in the ſuperior part of the right auricle of the heart.

JUJUBES. See *Jujubæ*.

JUJUBÆ. (*Arab*). Jujubes. A half dried fruit of the plum kind, about the ſize and ſhape of an olive, the produce of the *Rhamnes zizyphus* of Linnæus. Jujubes, when in perfection, have an agreeable ſweet taſte, and in the ſouthern parts of Europe, where they are common, they make an article of food in their recent ſtate, and of medicine when half dried.

JULY FLOWERS. See *Caryophyllus ruber*.

JUNCUS ODORĀTUS. *Fœnum camelorum. Juncus aromaticus*. Camel hay. Sweet ruſh. This dried plant, *Andropogon ſchœnanthus* of Linnæus, is imported into this country from Turkey and Arabia. It has an agreeable ſmell, and a warm, bitteriſh, not unpleaſant taſte. It was formerly employed as a ſtomachic and deobſtruent.

JUNIPER. See *Juniperus*.

JUNIPER GUM. See *Sandarack*.

JUNĬPĔRUS, (*Juniperus, i*, f. from *juvenis*, young, and *pario*, to bring forth; ſo called becauſe it produces its young berries while the old ones are ripening). Common juniper, *Juniperus communis* of Linnæus. *Juniperus foliis ternis patentibus mucronatis, baccis longioribus*. Claſs *Dioecia*. Order *Monadelphia*. Both the tops and berries of this indigenous plant are directed in our pharmacopœias, but the latter are uſually preferred, and are brought chiefly from Holland and Italy. Of their efficacy as a ſtomachic, carminative, diaphoretic, and diuretic, there are ſeveral relations by phyſicians of great authority: and medical writers have alſo ſpoken of the utility of the juniper in nephritic caſes, uterine obſtructions, ſcorbutic affections, and ſome cutaneous diſeaſes. Our pharmacopœias direct the eſſential oil, and a ſpirituous diſtillation of the berries, to be kept in the ſhops.

JUNIPĔRUS COMMŪNIS. The ſyſtematic name of the juniper tree. See *Juniperus*.

JUNIPĔRUS LĪCIA. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the frankincence. See *Olibanum*.

JUNIPĔRUS SABĪNÆ. The ſyſtematic name of the ſavine tree. See *Sabina*.

JUPITER. The antient chemical name of tin.

K.

KAJEPUT OLEUM. See *Cajeput oil.*

KALI, (*Kali*, n. *ind.* from *kali*, Arab.). The *Kali* of the pharmacopœias is the vegetable alkali or potaſh. See alſo *Alkali vegetable* and *mineral*, *Barilla*, *Natron*, *Potaſh*, &c.

KALI ACETĀTUM. *Terra foliata tartari. Tartarus regeneratus. Arcanum Tartari. Sal diureticus.* A uſeful diuretic, deobſtruent, and eccoprotic preparation of potaſh. In the new chemical nomenclature it is called *acetis potaſſæ*. Externally it is applied diſſolved in vinegar to inflammatory ſwellings of the teſticles and other indolent tumours. Internally it is exhibited in phyſconia abdominalis, pituitous affections of the primæ viæ, rheumatiſms, dropſies, icterus, intermittent fevers, hæmorrhoids, and dyſury.

KALI CITRĀTUM. *Alkali volatile, ſucco citri ſaturatum.* This neutral ſaline liquor, a citrat of potaſh, is made by ſaturating prepared kali with lemon juice. It is the baſe of the ſaline draught; it poſſeſſes nervine and ſudorific properties; and is exhibited in rheumatiſm, catarrh, and moſt febrile diſeaſes.

KALI PURUM. *Alkali vegetabile fixum cauſticum.* Cauſtic vegetable alkali. This preparation of kali is violently cauſtic, deſtroying the living animal fibre with great energy. See *Alkali cauſtic.*

KALI PRÆPARĀTUM. *Sal abſynthii. Sal Tartari. Sal plantarum. Alkali vegetabile fixum, Carbonas potaſſæ cryſtalliſatus.* This preparation of potaſh is in general uſe to form the kali citratum for the ſaline draughts. A ſcruple is generally directed to be ſaturated with lemon-juice. In this proceſs the kali preparatum, which is a ſalt compoſed of potaſh and carbonic acid, is decompoſed. The citric acid having a greater affinity for the potaſh than the carbonic, ſeizes it and forms the kali citratum, whilſt the carbonic acid flies off in the form of air. The kali preparatum poſſeſſes antacid virtues, is an antidote againſt white arſenic, and may be exhibited with advantage in convulſions and other ſpaſms of the inteſtines ariſing from acidity, in calculous complaints, leucorrhœa, ſcrophula, and aphthous affections.

KALI SULPHURĀTUM. See *Hepar ſulphuris.*

KALI TARTĂRISĀTUM. *Tartarum ſolubile. Tartaris tartariſatus. Sal vegetabilis. Alkali vegetabile tartariſatum.* Diuretic, deobſtruent, and eccoprotic virtues are attributed to this preparation, which is a tartrite of potaſh.

KALI VITRIOLĀTUM. *Alkali vegetabile vitriolatus. Sal de duobus. Arcanum duplicatum. Sal polychreſtus. Nitrum vitriolatum.* This preparation of potaſh, is called *ſulphas potaſſæ* in the new chemical nomenclature. Its virtues are cathartic, diuretic, and deobſtruent; with which intentions it is adminiſtered in a great variety of diſeaſes, as conſtipation, ſuppreſſion of the lochia, fevers, icterus, dropſies, milk tumours, &c.

KEIRI. See *Chieri*.

KELP. The mineral alkali which is obtained in this country by burning marine plants.

KERMES, (*Kermes*, from *chermah*, Arab.). *Granum tinctorium. Coccus baphica.* Round reddiſh grains, about the ſize of peas, found in Spain, Italy, and the ſouth of France, adhering to the branches of the ſcarlet oak. They are the nidus of a minute red animalcule, called *Coccus quercus ilicis* of Linnæus. The *confectio alkermes*, now obſolete, was prepared with theſe, which poſſeſs corroborant and adſtringent virtues.

KERMES MINERĀLIS. See *Hydroſulphuretum ſtibii rubrum.*

KERNEL WORT. See *Scrophularia vulgaris.*

KIDNEYS. *Renes.* Two abdominal viſcera, ſhaped like a kidney-bean, that ſecrete the urine. They are ſituated on each lumbar region, near the firſt lumbar vertebra, behind the peritoneum, and are compoſed of three ſubſtances; a cortical, which is the external, and very vaſcular; a tubuloſe, which conſiſts of ſmall tubes, and a papillous ſubſtance, which is the innermoſt. The kidneys are generally ſurrounded with more or leſs adipoſe membrane, and they have alſo a proper membrane, *membrana propria*, which is cloſely accreted to the cortical ſubſtance. The renal arteries, called alſo emulgents, proceed from the aorta. The veins evacuate their blood into the aſcending cava. The abſorbents accompany the blood-veſſels, and terminate in the thoracic duct. The nerves of the kidneys are branches of the eighth pair and great intercoſtals. The excretory duct of this viſcus is called the *ureter*. At the middle or pelvis of the kidney, where the blood-veſſels enter it, is a large membranous bag, which diminiſhes like a funnel, and forms a long canal or ureter, that conveys the urine from the kidney to the bladder, which it perforates obliquely.

KIKEKUNEMALO. A pure reſin, very ſimilar to copal, but of a more beautiful whiteneſs and tranſparency. It is brought from America, where it is ſaid to be uſed medicinally in the cure of hyſterica, tetanus, &c. It forms the moſt beautiful of all varniſhes.

KINA KINA. See *Cinchona.*

KINO, (*Kino*, n. *ind.* Indian). *Gummi gambienſe. Gummi rubrum adſtringens gambienſe.* The tree from which this reſin is obtained, though not botanically aſcertained, is known to grow on the banks of the river Gambia, in Africa. On wounding its bark the fluid kino immediately iſſues drop by drop, and by the heat of the ſun, is formed into hard maſſes. It is very like the reſin called *Sanguis draconis*; is much redder, more firm, reſinous, and adſtringent than catechu. It is now in common uſe, and is the moſt efficacious vegetable adſtringent, or ſtyptic, in the materia medica.

KNEE HOLLY. See *Ruſcus.*

L.

LABDANUM. See *Ladanum.*

LABYRINTH. That part of the internal ear behind the cavity of the tympanum, which is conſtituted by the cochlea, veſtibulum, and ſemicircular canals.

LAC, (*Lacca, æ*, f. Arab.). *Gum-lac.* See *Lacca.*

LAC AMMŌNIĂCI. A very nauſeous attenuant, expectorant, and antiſpaſmodic preparation of ammoniacum.

LAC AMYGDĂLÆ. A very pleaſant, cooling, demulcent drink, calculated to alleviate ardor urinæ, and relieve ſtrangury. It forms a pleaſant ptiſan in coughs, hoarſeneſſes, and catarrhs.

LAC SULPHŬRIS. See *Sulphur præcipitatum.*

LACCA, (*Lacca, æ*, f. from *lakah*, Arab.). *Gummi Laccæ.* Stick-lac. Seed-lac. Shell-lac. The improper name of gum-lac is given to a concrete brittle ſubſtance, of a dark red colour, brought from the Eaſt Indies, incruſtated on the twigs of the *Croton lacciferum*; *foliis ovatis tomentoſis ſerrulatis petiolatis, colycibus tomentoſis* of Linnæus, where it is depoſited by a ſmall inſect, at preſent not ſcientifically known. When the reſinous matter is broken off the wood into ſmall pieces of grains it is termed *ſeed-lac*, and when melted and formed into flat plates *ſhell-lac*. This ſubſtance is chiefly employed for making ſealing wax. A tincture of it is recommended as an antiſcorbutic to waſh the gums.

LACHRYMA ABIEGNAS. See *Terebinthina argentarotenſis.*

LACHRŸMÆ, (*Lachryma, æ*, f.). The tears. A limpid fluid ſecreted by the lachrymal gland, and flowing on the ſurface of the eye.

LACHRYMAL DUCTS. The excretory ducts of the lachrymal gland, which open upon the internal ſurface of the upper eyelid.

LACHRYMAL GLAND. *Glandula lachrymalis.* A glomerate gland, ſituated above the external angle of the orbit, in a peculiar depreſſion of the frontal bone. It ſecretes the tears, and conveys them to the eye by its excretory ducts, which are ſix or eight in number. See *Lachrymal ducts.*

LACTATS, (*Lactas, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the acid of ſour whey, or lactic acid, with different baſes; thus *aluminous lactat, ammoniacal lactat*, &c.

LACTEALS. *Vaſa lactea.* The abſorbents of the myſentery, which originate in the ſmall inteſtines, and convey the chyle from thence to the thoracic duct. They are very tender and tranſparent veſſels, poſſeſſed of an infinite number of valves, which, when diſtended with chyle, give them a knotty appearance. They ariſe from the internal ſurface of the villous coat of the ſmall inteſtines, perforate the other coats, and form a kind of network, whilſt the greater number unite one with another between the muſcular and external coats. From

thence they proceed between the laminæ of the meſentery to the conglobate glands. In their courſe they conſtitute the greater part of the gland through which they paſs, being diſtributed through them ſeveral times, and curled in various directions. The lacteals having paſſed theſe glands, go to others, and at length ſeek thoſe neareſt the root of the meſentery. From theſe glands, which are only four or five, or perhaps more, the lacteals paſs out and aſcend with the meſenteric artery, and unite with the lymphatics of the lower extremities, and thoſe of the abdominal viſcera, and then form a common trunk, the *thoracic duct*, which in ſome ſubjects is delated at its orgin, forming the *receptaculum chyli*. See *Nutrition*.

Lactic acid, (from *lac*, milk). The acid of ſour milk.

Lactūca, (*Lactuca*, *æ*, f. from *lac*, milk, named from the milky juice which exudes upon its being wounded). Lettuce. The garden lettuce is merely the *Lactuca ſativa* cultivated. They are eſteemed as wholeſome aperient bitter anodynes, eaſy of digeſtion, but affording no nutriment. They appear to agree better with hot, bilious, melancholic temperaments, than the phlegmatic. The ſeeds poſſeſs a quantity of oily ſubſtance, which triturated with water forms an emulſion eſteemed by ſome in ardor urinæ, and ſome diſeaſes of the urinary paſſage.

Lactūca graveŏlens. Opium ſcented lettuce. *Luctuca viroſa* of Linnæus. *L. foliis horozontalibus carino aculeatis lentatis*. Claſs *Syngeneſia*. Order *Polygamia æquales*. A common plant in our hedges and ditches. It has a ſtrong ungrateful taſte, reſembling that of opium, and a bitteriſh acrid taſte: it abounds with a milky juice, in which its ſenſible qualities ſeem to reſide, and which appears to have been noticed by Dioſcorides, who deſcribes the odour and taſte of the juice as nearly agreeing with that of the white poppy. Its effects are alſo ſaid, according to Haller, to be powerfully narcotic. Dr. Collin, at Vienna, firſt brought the lactuca viroſa into medical repute, and its character has lately induced the college of phyſicians at Edinburgh to inſert it in the catalogue of the materia medica. More than twenty-four caſes of dropſy are ſaid by Collin to have been ſucceſsfully treated, by employing an extract prepared from the expreſſed juice of this plant, which is ſtated not only to be powerfully diuretic, but by attenuating the viſcid humours to promote all the ſecretions, and to remove viſceral obſtructions. In the more ſimple caſes, proceeding from debility, the extract, in doſes of eighteen to thirty grains a day, proved ſufficient to accompliſh a cure, but when the diſeaſe was inveterate, and accompanied with viſceral obſtructions, the quantity of extract was increaſed to three drams; nor did larger doſes, though they excited nauſea, ever produce any other bad effect; and the patients continued ſo ſtrong under the uſe of this remedy, that it was ſeldom neceſſary to employ any tonic medicines. Though Dr. Collin began his experiments with the lactuca at the Pazman hoſpital, at the time he was trying the arnica, 1771, yet very few phyſicians, even at Vienna, have ſince adopted the uſe of this plant. Plenciz, indeed, has publiſhed a ſolitary inſtance of its efficacy, while Quarin informs us that he never experienced any good effect from its uſe; alledging, that thoſe who were deſirous of ſupporting its character, mixed with it a quantity of extractum ſcillæ. Under theſe circumſtances we ſhall only ſay, that the recommendation of this medicine by Dr. Collin, will be

arcely thought ſufficient to eſtabliſh s uſe in England.

LACTŪCA SATĪVA. The ſyſtematic name of the lettuce. See *Lactuca*.

LACTŪCA SYLVESTRIS. The fficinal name of the *Lactuca ſcariola* f Linnæus, which poſſeſſes a ſtronger egree of bitterneſs than the *Lactuca ativa*.

LACTŪCA VIRŌSA. The ſyſtematic name of the opium ſcented ettuce. See *Lactuca graveolens*.

LACŪNÆ, (*Lacuna, æ*, f. from *acus*, a channel). The mouths or penings of the excretory ducts of he muciparous glands of the urehra.

LADĂNUM, (*Ladanum, i*, n. λαδανον; from *ladon*, Arab.). *Labdanum*. This reſinous juice exudes upon the eaves of the *Ciſtus creticus*; *arboreſcens exſtipulatus, foliis ſpatulato-ovatis petiolatis enerviis ſcabris, calycinis lanceolatis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Polyandria*. Order *Monogynia*, in Canada, where the inhabitants collect it by lightly rubbing the leaves with leather, and afterwards ſcraping it off and forming it into irregular maſſes for exportation. Three ſorts of ladanum have been deſcribed by authors, but only two are to be met with in the ſhops. The beſt, which is very rare, is in dark coloured maſſes, of the conſiſtence of a ſoft plaſter, and growing ſtill ſofter on being handled; the other is in long rolls, coiled up, much harder than the preceding, and not ſo dark. The firſt has commonly a ſmall, and the laſt a large admixture of fine ſand, without which they cannot be collected pure, independently of deſigned abuſes: the duſt blown on the plant by winds from the looſe ſands among which it grows, being retained by the tenacious juice. The ſoft kind has an agreeable ſmell, and a lightly pungent bitteriſh taſte: the hard is much weaker. Ladanum was formerly much employed internally as a pectoral and adſtringent in catarrhal affections, dyſenteries, and ſeveral other diſeaſes; at preſent, however, it is wholly confined to external uſe. and is an ingredient in the ſtomachic plaſter, *emplaſtrum ladani* of the London Pharmacopœia.

LADIES BEDSTRAW. See *Galium luteum*.

LADIES MANTLE. See *Alchemilla*.

LADIES SMOCK See *Cardamine*.

LAGOPHTHALMUS, (*Lagophthalmus, i*, m. λαγοφθαλμος, from λαγος, a hare, and οφθαλμος, an eye, becauſe it is believed that hares ſleep with their eyes open). A want of power to cloſe the eyelid. It may ariſe from ſpaſm, palſy, atony, or fiſſure of the muſcles of the eyelids, and a variety of other cauſes.

LAKEWEED. See *Hydropiper*.

LAMBDOIDAL SUTURE, (*Sutura Lambdoidalis*, from Λ, and ειδος, reſemblance, becauſe it is ſhaped like the letter Λ). Occipital ſuture. The ſuture that unites the occipital bone to the two parietal bones.

LAMĬUM ALBUM, (*Lamium, i*, n. from *Lamium*, a mountain of Ionia, where it grew, or from *lama*, a ditch, becauſe it uſually grows about ditches and neglected places). *Urtica mortua. Galeopſis*. Dead nettle. White archangel nettle. Uterine hæmorrhages and fluor albus are ſaid to be relieved by infuſions of this plant, from whoſe ſenſible qualities very little benefit can be expected.

LAMPSĀNA. See *Lapſana*.

LAPĂTHUM, (*Lapatham, i*, n. λαπαθον; from λαπαζω, to evacuate, ſo named becauſe it purges gently). The dock.

LAPĂTHUM ACETŌSUM. *Common ſorrel*. See *Acetoſa*.

LAPĂTHUM ACUTUM. See *Oxylapathum*.

LAPĂTHUM AQUATĪCUM. See *Hydrolapathum*.

LAPĬDES CANCRŌRUM. See *Cancer*.

LAPIS BEZOAR. See *Bezoar*.

LAPIS CÆRULĔUS. See *Lapis lazuli*.

LAPIS CALAMINĀRIS. See *Calamine ſtone*.

LAPIS CYĂNUS. See *Lapis lazuli*.

LAPIS HÆMATĪTES. See *Hæmatites*.

LAPIS HIBERNĬCUS. *Tegula hybernica. Ardeſia hibernica. Hardeſia.* Iriſh ſlate. A kind of ſlate or very hard ſtone found in different parts of Ireland in a maſs of a blueiſh black colour, which ſtains the hands. When dried and powdered it is pale, or of a whitiſh blue, and by keeping grows black. In the fire it yields a ſulphureous gaz, and acquires a pale red colour, with additional hardneſs. It is occaſionally powdered by the common people, and taken in ſpruce beer, againſt inward bruiſes.

LAPIS HYSTRĬCIS. See *Bezoar porcinum*.

LAPIS INFERNĀLIS.

LAPIS LAZŬLI. *Lapis cyanus.* Azure ſtone. A combination of ſilex, the blue fluate of lime and ſulphat of lime, and iron. This ſingular mixture forms a ſtone of a beautiful opake blue, which it preſerves in a ſtrong heat, and does not ſuffer any alteration by the contact of air. It was formerly exhibited as a purgative and vomit, and given in epilepſy.

LAPIS MALACENSIS. See *Bezoar porcinum*.

LAPIS PORCĪNUS. See *Bezoar porcinum*.

LAPIS SIMĬÆ. See *Bezoar ſimiæ*.

LAPPA MAJOR. See *Barbada*.

LAPSĂNA, (*Lapſana*). *Lampſana*. Dock creſſes. Nipple-wort. This plant, *Lapſana communis* of Linnæus, is a lacteſcent bitter, and nearly ſimilar in virtues to the cichory, dandelion, and endive. It has been employed chiefly for external purpoſes, againſt wounds and ulcerations, whence the name of nipple-wort.

LARCH TREE. The name of the tree which affords the venice turpentine. See *Terebenthina veneta*.

LARD. The Engliſh name of hog's fat when melted down. Hog's lard, *adeps ſuillæ*, forms the baſe of many unguents, and is often eaten by the poor inſtead of butter.

LARYNGOTOMY, (*Laryngotomia, æ*, f. λαρυγξοτομια; from λαρυγξ, the larynx, and τεμνω, to cut). See *Bronchotomy*.

LARYNX, (*Laryńx, ŋgis*, f. λαρυγξ). A cartilaginous cavity, ſituated behind the tongue, in the anterior part of the fauces, and lined with an exquiſitely ſenſible membrane. It is compoſed of the annular or cricoid cartilage, the ſcutiform or thyroid, the epiglottis, and two arytænoid cartilages. The ſuperior opening of the larynx is called the *glottis*. The *laryngeal arteries* are branches of the external carotids. The *laryngeal veins* evacuate their blood into the external jugulars. The nerves of the larynx are from the eighth pair. The uſe of the larynx is to conſtitute the organ of voice, and to ſerve alſo for reſpiration.

LASERPITĬUM LATIFOLIUM, (*Laſerpitium, i*, n. from *laſer*, perhaps from *lazar*, Arab.). Laſſer-wort. The ſyſtematic name of the white gentian. See *Gentiana alba*.

LASERPITĬUM SILER. The ſyſtematic name of the heart-wort. See *Seſeli*.

LATERAL SINUSSES. The bifurcation and continuation of the longitudinal ſinus of the dura mater. They commence about the middle o

the tentorium, one paſſing along each horizontal crucial ſpine within the tentorium, and round to the foramen lacerum in baſi cranii, where the internal jugular vein begins. Their uſe is to carry the blood from the brain into the internal jugulars, which return it to the heart.

LATEX, (*Latex, ĭcis*, m. *quod in venis terræ lateat*). All manner of water or juice. A term ſometimes applied to the blood as being the ſpring or ſource of all the humours.

LATIRITIOUS SEDIMENT, (*Lateritius*; from *later*, a brick). A term applied to the brick-like ſediment depoſited in the urine of people afflicted with fever, twelve or fourteen hours after the urine is paſſed.

LATISSĬMUS COLLI. See *Platyſma myoides*.

LATISSĬMUS DORSI, (*Latiſſimus*, ſc. *muſculus*). A muſcle of the humerus, ſituated on the poſterior part of the trunk. It is a very broad, thin, and for the moſt part, fleſhy muſcle, which is placed immediately under the ſkin, except where it is covered by the lower extremity of the trapezius. It ariſes tendinous from the poſterior half of the upper edge of the ſpine of the os ilium, from the ſpinous proceſſes of the os ſacrum and lumbar vertebræ, and from five or ſix, and ſometimes from ſeven, and even eight, of the lowermoſt ones of the back; alſo tendinous and fleſhy from the upper edges and external ſurface of the four inferior falſe ribs, near their cartilages, by as many diſtinct ſlips. From theſe different origins the fibres of the muſcle run in different directions; thoſe from the ilium and falſe ribs run almoſt perpendicularly upwards; thoſe from the ſacrum and lumbar vertebræ, obliquely upwards and forwards; and thoſe from the vertebræ of the back, tranſverſely outwards and forwards, over the inferior angle of the ſcapula, where they receive a ſmall thin bundle of fleſhy fibres, which ariſe tendinous from that angle, and are inſerted with the reſt of the muſcle, by a ſtrong, flat, and thin tendon, of about two inches in length, into the fore part of the poſterior edge of the groove obſerved between the two tuberoſities of the os humeri, for lodging the tendon of the long head of the biceps. In diſſection, therefore, this muſcle ought not to be followed to its inſertion, till ſome of the other muſcles of the os humeri have been firſt raiſed. Its uſe is to pull the os humeri downwards aud backwards, and to turn it upon its axis. Riolanus, from its uſe on certain occaſions, gave it the name of *ani terſor*. When we raiſe ourſelves upon onr hands, as in riſing from off an arm chair, we may eaſily perceive the contraction of this muſcle. A *burſa mucoſa* is found between the tendon of this muſcle and the os humeri, into which it is inſerted.

LAUDANUM. The tincture of opium. See *Tinctura opii*.

LAUREL CHERRY. See *Lauroceraſus*.

LAUREL, SPURGE. See *Laureola*.

LAURĒŎLA, (*Laureola, æ*, f. dim. of *laurus*, the laurel, named from its reſemblance to the laurel). Spurge laurel. The bark of this plant, *Daphne laureola* of Linnæus, is recommended to excite a diſcharge from the ſkin, in the ſame way as that of *thymelæa*.

LAURO-CERĂSUS, (*Lauro-ceraſus, i*, f. from *laurus*, the laurel, and *ceraſus*, the cherry tree, ſo called becauſe it has leaves like the laurel). Common or cherry laurel. *Prunus lauro-ceraſus* of Linnæus. *P. floribus racemoſis foliis ſempervirentibus dorſo biglanduloſis*. Claſs *Icoſandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The leaves of the lauroceraſus have a bitter ſtyptic taſte, accompanied with a flavour reſembling that of bitter almonds, or other kernels of the drupacious fruits: the

flowers alſo manifeſt a ſimilar flavour. The powdered leaves applied to the noſtrils excite ſneezing, though not ſo ſtrongly as tobacco. The kernel-like flavour which theſe leaves impart being generally eſteemed grateful, has ſometimes cauſed them to be employed for culinary purpoſes, and eſpecially in cuſtards, puddings, blanc-mange, &c.; and as the proportion of this ſapid matter of the leaf to the quantity of the milk is commonly inconſiderable, bad effects have ſeldom enſued. But as the poiſonous quality of this laurel is now indubitably proved, the public ought to be cautioned againſt its internal uſe.

The following communication to the Royal Society, by Dr. Madden of Dublin, contains the firſt and principal proofs of the deleterious effects of this vegetable upon mankind:—"A very extraordinary accident that fell out here ſome months ago, has diſcovered to us a moſt dangerous poiſon, which was never before known to be ſo, though it has been in frequent uſe among us. The thing I mean is a ſimple water, diſtilled from the leaves of the lauro-ceraſus; the water is at firſt milky, but the oil which comes over the helm with it, being in a good meaſure ſeparated from the phlegm, by paſſing it through a flannel bag it becomes as clear as common water. It has the ſmell of bitter almonds, or peach kernel, and has been for many years in frequent uſe among our houſewives and cooks, to give that agreeable flavour to their creams and puddings. It has alſo been much in uſe among our drinkers of drams; and the proportions they generally uſe it in has been one part of laurel-water to four of brandy. Nor has this practice, however frequent, ever been attended with any apparent ill conſequences, till ſome time in the month of September 1728, when it happened, that one Martha Boyſe, a ſervant, who lived with a perſon that ſold great quantities of this water, got a bottle of it from her miſtreſs, and gave it to her mother. Ann Boyſe made a preſent of it to Frances Eaton, her ſiſter, who was a ſhopkeeper in town, and who ſhe thought might oblige her cuſtomers with it. Accordingly, in a few days, ſhe gave about two ounces to a woman called Mary Whaley, who drank about two-thirds of what was filled out, and went away. Frances Eaton drank the reſt. In a quarter of an hour after Mary Whaley had drank the water, (as I am informed), ſhe complained of a violent diſorder in her ſtomach, ſoon after loſt her ſpeech, and died in about an hour, without vomiting or purging, or any convulſion. The ſhopkeeper, F. Eaton, ſent word to her ſiſter, Ann Boyſe, of what had happened, who came to her upon the meſſage, and affirmed that it was not poſſible the cordial (as ſhe called it) could have occaſioned the death of the woman; and, to convince her of it, ſhe filled out about three ounces, and drank it. She continued talking with F. Eaton about two minutes longer, and was ſo earneſt to perſuade her of the liquor's being inoffenſive, that ſhe drank about two ſpoonfuls more, but was hardly well ſeated in her chair, when ſhe died without the leaſt groan or convulſion. Frances Eaton who, as before obſerved, had drank ſomewhat more than a ſpoonful, found no diſorder in her ſtomach or elſewhere; but, to prevent any ill conſequences, ſhe took a vomit immediately, and has been well ever ſince."—Dr. Madden mentions another caſe, of a gentleman at Kilkenny, who miſtook a bottle of laurel-water for a bottle of ptiſan. What quantity he drank is uncertain, but he died in a few minutes, complaining of a violent diſorder in his ſtomach. In addition to this, we may refer to the unfortunate caſe of Sir Theodoſius Boughton, whoſe

death, in 1780, an Engliſh jury declared to be occaſioned by this poiſon. In this caſe, the active principle of the lauro-ceraſus was concentrated by repeated diſtillations, and given to the quantity of one ounce, the ſuddenly fatal effects of which muſt be ſtill in the recollection of the public. To brute animals this poiſon is almoſt inſtantaneouſly mortal, as amply appears by the experiments of Madden, Mortimer, Nicholls, Fontana, Langriſh, Vater, and others. The experiments conducted by theſe gentlemen ſhew that the laurel-water is deſtructive to animal life, not only when taken into the ſtomach, but alſo on being injected into the inteſtines, or applied externally to different organs of the body. It is remarked by Abbe Fontana, that this poiſon, even "when applied in a very ſmall quantity, to the eyes, or to the inner part of the mouth, without touching the œſopagus, or being carried into the ſtomach, is capable of killing an animal in a few minutes: whilſt applied in a much greater quantity to wounds, it has ſo little activity, that the weakeſt animals, ſuch as pigeons, reſiſt its action."

The moſt volatile is the moſt active part of the lauro-ceraſus; and if we judge from its ſenſible qualities, an analogous principle ſeems to pervade many other vegetable ſubſtances, eſpecially the kernels of drupaceous fruits; and in various ſpecies of the amygdalus, this ſapid principle extends to the flowers and leaves. It is of importance to notice, that this is much leſs powerful in its action upon human ſubjects than upon dogs, rabbits, pigeons, and reptiles. To poiſon man, the eſſential oil of the lauro-ceraſus muſt be ſeparated by diſtillation, as in the ſpirituous or common laurel-water; and unleſs this is ſtrongly embued with the oil, or given in a large doſe, it proves innocent. Dr. Cullen obſerves, that the ſedative power of the lauro-ceraſus acts upon the nervous ſyſtem in a different manner from opium and other narcotic ſubſtances, whoſe primary action is upon the animal functions; for the lauro-ceraſus does not occaſion ſleep, nor does it produce local inflammation, but ſeems to act directly upon the vital powers. Abbe Fontana ſuppoſes that this poiſon deſtroys animal life, by exerting its effects upon the blood; but the experiments and obſervations from which he draws this opinion are evidently inconcluſive. It may alſo be remarked, that many of the Abbe's experiments contradict each other. Thus, it appears from the citation given above, that the poiſon of this vegetable, when applied to wounds, does not prove fatal; but future experiments led the Abbe to aſſert, that the oil of the lauro-ceraſus, "whether given internally, or applied to the wounds of animals, is one of the moſt terrible and deadly poiſons known." Though this vegetable ſeems to have eſcaped the notice of Stoerck, yet it is not without advocates for its medical uſe. Linnæus informs us, that in Switzerland it is commonly and ſucceſsfully uſed in pulmonary complaints. Langriſh mentions its efficacy in agues; and as Bergius found bitter almonds to have this effect, we may by analogy conclude, that this power of the lauro-ceraſus is well eſtabliſhed. Baylies found, that it poſſeſſed a remarkable power of diluting the blood, and from experience, recommended it in all caſes of diſeaſe ſuppoſed to proceed from too denſe a ſtate of that fluid; adducing particular inſtances of its efficacy in rheumatiſm, aſthmas, and in ſchirrous affections. Nor does this author ſeem to have been much afraid of the deleterious quality of lauro-ceraſus, as he directs a pound of its leaves to be macerated in a pint of water, of which he gives from thirty to ſixty drops three or four times a day.

LAURUS, (*Laurus, i, & ûs, f.* from *laus*, praiſe, becauſe it was uſual to crown the heads of eminent men with branches of it). Sweet-bay. *Laurus nobilis; foliis venoſis lanceolatis perennantibus, floribus quadrifidis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Enneandria*. Order *Monogynia*. This tree is a native of Italy, but cultivated in our gardens and ſhrubberies as a handſome evergreen. The leaves and berries poſſeſs the ſame medicinal qualities, both having a ſweet fragrant ſmell, and an aromatic adſtringent taſte. The laurus of honorary memory, the diſtinguiſhed favorite of Apollo, may be naturally ſuppoſed to have had no inconſiderable fame as a medicine; but its pharmaceutical uſes are ſo limited in the practice of the preſent day, that this dignified plant is now rarely employed, except in the way of enema, or as an external application; thus, in the London pharmacopœia, the leaves are directed in the *decoctum pro fomento*, and the berries in the *emplaſtrum cumini*.

LAURUS BENZOIN. The ſyſtematic name of the benjamin-tree. See *Benzoinum*.

LAURUS CAMPHŎRA. The ſyſtematic name of the camphire-tree. See *Camphora*.

LAURUS CINNAMŌMUM. The ſyſtematic name of the cinnamon-tree. See *Cinnamomum*.

LAURUS CULILAWAN. The ſyſtematic name of the plant whoſe bark is called *cortex culilawan* in the ſhops.

LAURUS NOBĬLIS. The ſyſtemtic name of the ſweet-bay tree. See *Laurus*.

LAURUS SASSAFRAS. The ſyſtematic name of the ſaſſafras-tree. See *Saſſafras*.

LAVENDER, FRENCH. See *Stœchas*.

LAVENDŬLA, (*Lavendula, æ, f.* from *lavo*, to waſh; ſo called becauſe on account its fragrancy it was uſed in baths). Common lavender. *Lavendula ſpica* of Linnæus. *Lavendula foliis ſeſſilibus lanceolato-linearibus margine revolutis, ſpica interrupta nuda*. Claſs *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnoſpermia*. A native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, but cultivated in our gardens on account of the fragrance of its flowers. Their taſte is bitter, warm, and ſomewhat pungent; the leaves are weaker and leſs grateful. The eſſential oil, obtained by diſtillation, is of a bright yellow colour, of a very pungent taſte, and poſſeſſes, if carefully diſtilled, the fragrance of the lavender in perfection. Lavender has been long recommended in nervous debilities, and various affections proceeding from a want of energy in the animal functions. The college directs an eſſential oil, a ſimple ſpirit, and a compound tincture, to be kept in the ſhops.

LAVENDULA SPICA. The ſyſtematic name of the common lavender. See *Lavendula*.

LAVENDŬLA STŒCHAS. The ſyſtematic name of the French lavender. See *Stœchas*.

LAWSONĬA INERMIS. The ſyſtematic name of the true alkanna. See *Alkanna vera*.

LAXĀTOR TYMPĂNI, (*Laxator, oris*, m. from *laxo*, to looſen; ſo called from its office to relax the drum of the ear). *Externus mallei* of Albinus. *Anterior mallei* of Winſlow. *Obliquus auris* of Douglas. A muſcle of the internal ear, that draws the malleus obliquely forwards towards its origin; conſequently the membrana tympani is made leſs concave, or is relaxed.

LEAD. *Plumbum*. An imperfect metal, of a dull white colour, inclining to a blue. It is very ſoft, and eaſily cut with a knife: has a peculiar and remarkable ſmell, which becomes ſtronger by friction. Its taſte is ſcarcely ſenſible in the mouth, but its effect is very manifeſt in the ſto-

mach and inteſtines, whoſe nerves it irritates, producing pain, convulſions, ſtupor, and palſy. Lead is rarely found native, but moſtly in the earthy, ſaline, or mineralized form, united with ſulphur, and forming galena. This metal melts readily when expoſed to heat, long before it is heated to ignition, and, if melted in contact with air, it readily attracts its oxygen, forming an oxyd in the form of a gray pellicle. A more violent heat changes this gray pellicle into a dark yellow oxyd, which, if cooled by the effuſion of boiling water, ground and waſhed, and expoſed for forty-eight hours to a moderate but ſteady heat in a furnace, and then paſſed through fine ſieves into barrels, forms minium or red lead. See *Oxydum plumbi rubrum*. But, if the heat be increaſed ſuddenly, it melts into a ſemivitrified maſs called litharge. See *Oxydum plumbi ſemivitreum*. All the acids diſſolve lead very ſpeedily. Diſſolved in vinegar, the ſolution is termed acetite of lead, which, if evaporated and cooled, depoſits priſmatic cryſtals. See *Ceruſſa acetata*. Lead is made into utenſils and veſſels for various economical purpoſes, but not without danger in their uſe; for its noxious qualities are ſoon communicated to the ſubſtance they contain. Thoſe who work in manufactories where this metal is concerned, are continually attacked with colics (ſee *Colica pictonum*), often accompanied with vomiting, and not unfrequently with palſies. The various preparations of lead, directed in our pharmacopœias, ſhould therefore be very cautiouſly adminiſtered internally; nor ſhould they, in very delicate habits, be freely employed externally. Moſt of the preparations are eſteemed as reſolvent and anodyne applications to external inflammatory affections.

LAZŬLI LAPIS. See *Lapis lazuli*.

LEDUM PALUSTRE. The ſyſtematic name of the roſmarinus ſylveſtris. See *Roſmarinus ſylveſtris*.

LEIPOTHYMĬA, (*Leipothymia, æ*, f. λειποθυμια; from λειπω, to leave, and θυμος, the mind). See *Syncope*.

LEMITHOCHORTON. See *Corallina corſicana*.

LEMON. See *Limon*.

LEMON SCURVY GRASS. See *Cochlearia hortenſis*.

LENS, (*Lens, tis*, f. a *lentore*, from its glutinous quality). The lentil. *Ervum lens*; *pedunculis ſubbifloris*; *ſeminibus compreſſis, convexis* of Linnæus; φακος of the Greek writers. There are two varieties; the one with large, the other ſmall ſeeds. They are eaten in many places as we eat peas, than which they are more flatulent, and more difficult to digeſt. A decoction of theſe ſeeds is uſed as a lotion to the ulcerations after ſmall pox, and it is ſaid with ſucceſs. See alſo *Chryſtalline lens*.

LEPRA, (*Lepra, æ*, f. from λεπις, a ſcale; named from its appearance). The leproſy. A diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexia*, and order *impetigines* of Cullen, characterized by the ſkin being rough and chapped, with white ſurfuraceous ſcales and cruſts, under which is frequently a moiſture, with itching.

LEPRA ALBA. See *Lepra alphos*.

LEPRA GRÆCORUM. Dr. Willan deſcribes this diſeaſe as characterized by ſcaly patches, of different ſizes, but having always nearly a circular form. In this country, three varieties of the diſeaſe are obſerved, which he has deſcribed under the titles of *Lepra vulgaris*, *Lepra alphos*, *Lepra nigricans*.

1. The *Lepra vulgaris* exhibits firſt ſmall diſtinct elevations of the cuticle, which are reddiſh and ſhining, but never contain any fluid; theſe patches continue to enlarge gradually, till they nearly equal the dimenſions

of a crown-piece. They have always an orbicular, or oval form; are covered with dry ſcales, and ſurrounded by a red border. The ſcales accumulate on them ſo as to form a thick prominent cruſt, which is quickly re-produced, whether it fall off ſpontaneouſly, or may have been forcibly detached. This ſpecies of lepra ſometimes appears firſt at the elbow, or on the fore-arm; but more generally about the knee. In the latter caſe the primary patch forms immediately below the patella, within a few weeks, ſeveral other ſcaly circles appear along the fore part of the leg and thigh, increaſing by degrees till they come nearly into contact. The diſeaſe is then often ſtationary for a conſiderable length of time. If it advance further, the progreſs is towards the hip and loins; afterwards to the ſides, back, ſhoulders; and about the ſame time to the arms and hands. In the greater number of caſes the hairy ſcalp is the part laſt affected: although the circles formed on it remain for ſome time diſtinct, yet they finally unite, and cover the whole ſurface on which the hair grows, with a white ſcaly incruſtation. This appearance is attended, more eſpecially in hot weather, with a troubleſome itching, and with a watery diſcharge for ſeveral hours, when any portion of the cruſt is detached, which takes place from very ſlight impreſſions. The pubes in adults is ſometimes affected in the ſame manner as the head: and if the ſubject be a female there is uſually an internal *pruritus pudendi*. In ſome caſes of the diſorder, the nails, both of the fingers and toes, are thickened, and deeply indented longitudinally. When the lepra extends univerſally, it becomes highly diſguſting in its appearance, and inconvenient from the ſtiffneſs and torpor occaſioned by it in the limbs. The diſeaſe, however, even in this advanced ſtage, is ſeldom diſpoſed to terminate ſpontaneouſly. It continues nearly in the ſame ſtate for ſeveral years, or ſometimes during the whole life of the perſon affected, not being apparently connected with any diſorder of the conſtitution.

2. *Lepra alphos*. The ſcaly patches in the alphos are ſmaller than thoſe of the lepra vulgaris, and alſo differ from them in having their central parts depreſſed or indented. This diſorder uſually begins about the elbow, with diſtinct, eminent aſperities, of a dull red colour, and not much longer than papillæ. Theſe in a ſhort time dilate to nearly the ſize of a ſilver penny. Two or three days afterwards the central part of them ſuffers a depreſſion, within which ſmall white powdery ſcales may be obſerved. The ſurrounding border, however, ſtill continues to be raiſed, but retains, the ſame ſize and the ſame red colour as at firſt. The whole of the fore-arm, and ſometimes the back of the hand, is ſpotted with ſimilar patches: they ſeldom become confluent excepting round the elbow, which in that caſe is covered with a uniform cruſt. This affection appears in the ſame manner upon the joint of the knee, but without ſpreading far along the thigh or leg. Dr. Willan has ſeldom ſeen it on the trunk of the body, and never on the face. It is a diſeaſe of long duration, and not leſs difficult to cure than the foregoing ſpecies of lepra: even when the ſcaly patches have been removed by perſevering in the uſe of ſuitable applications, the cuticle ſtill remains red, tender, and brittle, very ſlowly recovering its uſual texture. The alphos, as above deſcribed, frequently occurs in this country.

3. The *Lepra nigricans* differs little from the Lepra vulgaris, as to its form or diſtribution. The moſt ſtriking difference is in the colour of

the patches, which are dark and livid. They appear first on the legs and fore-arms, extending afterward to the thighs, loins, neck, and hands. Their central part is not depressed as in the alphos. They are somewhat smaller in size than the patches of the lepra vulgaris, and not only is the border livid or purplish, but the livid colour of the base likewise appears through the scaly incrustation, which is seldom very thick. It is further to be observed, that the scales are more easily detached than in the other forms of lepra, and that the surface remains longer excoriated, discharging lymph, often with an intermixture of blood, till a new incrustation forms, which is usually hard, brittle, and irregular. The lepra nigricans affects persons whose occupation is attended with much fatigue, and exposes them to cold or damp, and to a precarious or improper mode of diet, as soldiers, brewers, labourers, butchers, stage-coachmen, scullermen, &c.; some women are also liable to it who are habituated to poor living and constant hard labour.

Lethargy. *Lethargus.* A heavy and constant sleep, with scarce any intervals of waking; when awakened, the person answers, but ignorant or forgetful of what he said, immediately sinks into the same state of sleep. It is symptomatic of fever, apoplexy, &c.

Lettuce, garden. See *Lactuca.*

Leucanthĕmum vulgāre, (λευκανθεμον, from λευκος, white, and ανθεμος, a flower, so called from its white floret). See *Bellis major.*

Leucōma, (*Leucoma, ătis*, n. λευκωμα, from λευκος, white). A variety of the *caligo cornea* of Cullen's nosology. See *Caligo.*

Leŭconymphæa, (*Leuconymphæa, æ*, f. λευκονυμφαια, from γευκος, white, and νυμφαια, the water lily). See *Nymphæa alba.*

Leucophlegmatic, (*Leucophlegmasia*, from λευκος, white, and, φλεγμα, phlegm). A term applied by the older medical writers to a dropsical habit of body.

Leucopīper, (*Leucopiper, eris*, n. λευκοπιπερι, from λευκος, white, and πιπερις, pepper). See *Piper nigrum.*

Leucorrhœa, (*Leucorrhœa, æ*, f. γευκορροια, from λευκος, white, and ῥεω, to flow). *Fluor albus.* The whites. An increased secretion of white mucus from the vagina of women, arising from debility, and not from the venereal virus.

Levātor angŭli oris, (*Levātor, ōris*, m. from *levo*, to lift up; so named from its office, which is to lift up the part to which it is affixed). *Elevator labiorum communis* of Douglas. *Caninus* of Winslow. A muscle situated above the mouth, which draws the corner of the mouth upwards, and makes that part of the cheek opposite to the chin prominent, as in smiling. It arises thin and fleshy from the hollow of the superior maxillary bone, between the root of the socket of the first grinder and the foramen infra orbitarium, and is inserted into the angle of the mouth and under lip, where it joins with its antagonist.

Levator ani. This muscle arises from the os pubis, within the pelvis, as far up as the upper edge of the foramen thyroideum, and joining of the os pubis with the os ischium, from the thin tendinous membrane that covers the obturator internus and coccygæus muscles, from the spinous process of the ischium. From these origins all round the inside of the pelvis, its fibres run down like rays from a circumference to a center, to be inserted into the sphincter ani, accelerators urinæ, and anterior part of the two last bones of the os coccygis, surrounding the extremity of the rectum, neck of the bladder, prostate gland, and part of the vesiculæ semi-

nales. Its fibres joining with thoſe of its fellow form a funnel-ſhaped hole, that draws the rectum upwards after the evacuation of the fæces, and aſſiſts in ſhutting it. The levatores ani alſo ſuſtain the contents of the pelvis, and aſſiſt in ejecting the ſemen, urine, and contents of the rectum, and perhaps, by preſſing upon the veins, contribute greatly to the erection of the penis.

LEVATOR LABII INFERIORIS. *Levator menti* of Albinus. *Inciſivus inferior* of Winſlow. *Elevator labii inferioris proprius* of Douglas. A muſcle of the mouth, ſituated below the lips; it ariſes from the lower jaw, at the roots of the alveoli of two inciſor teeth and the cuſpidatus, and is inſerted into the under lip and ſkin of the chin.

LEVATOR LABĬI SUPERĬŌRIS ALÆQUE NASI. *Elevator labii ſuperioris proprius* of Douglas. *Inciſivus lateralis et pyramidalis* of Winſlow. A muſcle of the mouth and lips, that raiſes the upper lip towards the orbit, and a little outwards; it ſerves alſo to draw the ſkin of the noſe upwards and outwards, by which the noſtril is dilated. It ariſes by two diſtinct origins; the firſt broad and fleſhy from the external part of the orbitar proceſs of the ſuperior maxillary bone, immediately above the foramen infra orbitarium; the ſecond from the naſal proceſs of the ſuperior maxillary bone, where it joins the os frontis. The firſt portion is inſerted into the upper lip and orbicularis muſcle, the ſecond into the upper lip, and outer part of the ala naſi.

LEVĀTOR OCŬLI. See *Rectus ſuperior oculi.*

LEVĀTOR PALĂTI. *Levator palati mollis* of Albinus. *Petro-ſalpingo-ſtaphilinus, vel ſalpingo-ſtaphilinus internus vulgo* of Winſlow. *Saplingo-ſtaphilinus* of Valſalva. *Pterigo-ſtaphilinus externus, vulgo*, of Douglas. *Sphæno-ſtaphilinus* of Cowper. A muſcle ſituated between the lower jaw and the os hyoides laterally. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the extremity of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, where it is perforated by the Euſtachian tube, and alſo from the membranous part of the ſame tube, and is inſerted into the whole length of the velum pendulum palati, as far as the root of the uvula, and unites with its fellow. Its uſe is to draw the velum pendulum palati upwards and backwards, ſo as to ſhut the paſſage from the fauces into the mouth and noſe.

LEVĀTOR PALATI MOLLIS. See *Levator palati.*

LEVĀTOR PALPĔBRÆ SŬPERĬŌRIS. *Aperiens palpebrarum rectus. Apertor oculi.* A proper muſcle of the upper eyelid, that opens the eye, by drawing the eyelid upwards. It ariſes from the upper part of the foramen opticum of the ſphænoid bone, above the rectus ſuperior oculi, near the trochlearis, and is inſerted by a broad thin tendon into the cartilage that ſupports the upper eyelid.

LEVĀTOR PARVUS. See *Tranſverſus perinei.*

LEVĀTOR SCAPŬLÆ. A muſcle ſituated on the poſterior part of the neck, that pulls the ſcapula upwards, and a little forwards. This name, which was firſt given to it by Riolanus, has been adopted by Albinus. Douglas calls it *elevator ſeu muſculus patientiæ*; and Winſlow, *angularis vulgo levator proprius.* It is a long muſcle, nearly two inches in breadth, and is ſituated obliquely under the anterior edge of the trapezius. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the four, and ſometimes five ſuperior vertebræ colli, by ſo many diſtinct ſlips, which ſoon unite to form a muſcle that runs obliquely downwards and outwards, and is inſerted by a flat tendon into the upper angle of the ſcapula. Its uſe is to raiſe the ſcapula upwards and a little forwards.

LEVISTĬCUM, (*Leviſticum, i*, n.

from *levo*, to aſſuage; ſo called from the relief it gives in painful flatulencies). Lovage. The odour of this plant, *Liguſtrum leviſticum* of Linnæus, (*Liguſtrum foliis multiplicibus, foliolis ſuperne inciſis*. Claſs *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*), is very ſtrong and particularly ungrateful; its taſte is warm and aromatic. It abounds with a yellowiſh gummy reſinous juice, very much reſembling opoponax. Its virtues are ſuppoſed to be ſimilar to thoſe of angelica and maſter-wort in expelling flatulences, exciting ſweat, and opening obſtructions; therefore it is chiefly uſed in hyſterical diſorders and uterine obſtructions. The leaves eaten in ſalad are accounted emmenagogue. The root, which is leſs ungrateful than the leaves, is ſaid to poſſeſs ſimilar virtues, and may be employed in powder.

Lichen, (*Lichen, enis*, m. λειχην, or λιχην, a tetter or ring-worm). Lichen is by Dr. Willan defined, an extenſive eruption of papulæ affecting adults, connected with internal diſorder, uſually terminating in ſcurf, recurrent, not contagious. The varieties of lichen he conſiders under the denominations of *Lichen ſimplex*, *Lichen agrius*, *Lichen pilaris*, *Lichen lividus*, and *Lichen tropicus*.

1. The *Lichen ſimplex* uſually commences with head-ache, flushing of the face, loſs of appetite, general languor, and increaſed quickneſs of the pulſe. Diſtinct red papulæ ariſe firſt about the cheeks and chin, or on the arms; and in the courſe of three or four days the ſame appearance takes place on the neck, body, and lower extremities, accompanied with an unpleaſant ſenſation of tingling, which is ſomewhat aggravated during the night. In about a week the colour of the eruption fades, and the cuticle begins to ſeparate; the whole ſurface is at length covered with ſcurfy exfoliations, which are particularly large, and continue longeſt in the flexures of the joints. The duration of the complaint is ſeldom in any two caſes alike; ten, fourteen, ſeventeen, or ſometimes twenty days intervene betwixt the eruption and the renovation of the cuticle. The febrile ſtate, or rather the ſtate of irritation at the beginning of this diſorder, is ſeldom conſiderable enough to confine the patient to the houſe. After remaining five or ſix days, it is generally relieved on the appearance of the eruption. This, as well as ſome other ſpecies of the lichen, occurs about the beginning of ſummer or in autumn, more eſpecially affecting perſons of a weak and irritable habit, hence women are more liable to it than men. Lichen ſimplex is alſo a frequent ſequel of acute diſeaſes, particularly fever and catarrhal inflammation, of which it ſeems to produce a criſis. In theſe caſes the eruption has been termed by medical writers ſcabies critica. Many inſtances of it are collected under that title by Sauvages, Noſol, Method. Claſs x. Order 5. *Impetigines*.

2. The *Lichen agrius* is preceded by nauſea, pain in the ſtomach, head-ache, loſs of ſtrength, and deep-ſeated pains in the limbs, with fits of coldneſs and ſhivering, which ſymptoms continue ſeveral days, and are ſometimes relieved by the papulous eruption. The papulæ are diſtributed in cluſters, or often in large patches, chiefly on the arms, the upper part of the breaſt, the neck, face, back, and ſides of the abdomen; they are of a vivid red colour, and have a redneſs, or ſome degree of inflammation, diffuſed round them to a conſiderable extent, and attended with itching, heat, and a painful tingling. Dr. Willan has obſerved, in one or two caſes where it was produced from imprudent expoſure to cold, that an acute diſeaſe enſued, with great quickneſs of the pulſe, heat, thirſt,

pains of the bowels, frequent vomiting, head-ache, and delirium. After theſe ſymptoms had continued ten days, or ſomewhat longer, the patient recovered, though the eruption did not return. The diffuſe redneſs connecting the papulæ, and the tendency to become puſtular, diſtinguiſh the lichen agrius from the lichen ſimplex, and the other varieties of this complaint, in which the inflammation does not extend beyond the baſis of the papulæ, and which terminates in ſcurf or ſcales.

3. *Lichen pilaris.* This is merely a modification of the firſt ſpecies of lichen, and, like it, often alternates with complaints of the head or ſtomach, in irritable habits. The peculiarity of the eruption is, that the ſmall tubercles or aſperities appear only at the roots of the hairs of the ſkin, being probably occaſioned by an enlargement of their bulbs, or an unuſual fulneſs of the blood-veſſels diſtributed to them. This affection is diſtinguiſhable from the cutis anſerina, by its permanency, by its red papulæ, and by the troubleſome itching or tingling which attends it. If a part thus affected be violently rubbed, ſome of the papulæ enlarge to the ſize of wheals, but the tumour ſoon ſubſides again. The eruption continues more or leſs vivid for about ten days, and terminates, as uſual, in ſmall exfoliations of the cuticle, one of which ſurrounds the baſe of each hair. This complaint, as likewiſe the lichen agrius, frequently occurs in perſons accuſtomed to drink largely of ſpirituous liquors undiluted.

4. *Lichen lividus.* The papulæ characteriſing this eruption are of a dark red or livid hue, and ſomewhat more permanent than in the foregoing ſpecies of lichen. They appear chiefly on the arms and legs, but ſometimes extend to other parts of the body. They are finally ſucceeded, though at very uncertain periods, by ſlight exfoliations of the cuticle after which a freſh eruption is not preceded, nor attended by any febrile ſymptoms. It principally affects perſons of a weak conſtitution, who live on a poor diet and are engaged in laborious occupations. Young perſons, and often children living in confined ſituations, or uſing little exerciſe, are alſo ſubject to the lichen lividus; and in them the papulæ are generally intermixed with the petechiæ, or larger purple ſpots, reſembling vibices. This circumſtance points out the affinity of the lichen lividus with the purpura or land-ſcurvy, and the connection is further proved by the exciting cauſes, which are the ſame in both complaints. The ſame method of treatment is likewiſe ſucceſsful in both caſes. They are preſently cured by nouriſhing food, moderate exerciſe in the open air, along with the uſe of Peruvian and vitriolic acid, or the tincture of muriated ſteel.

5. *Lichen tropicus.* By this term is expreſſed the prickly heat, a papulous eruption, almoſt univerſally affecting Europeans ſettled in tropical climates. The prickly heat appears without any preceding diſorder of the conſtitution. It conſiſts of numerous papulæ, about the ſize of a ſmall pin's head, and elevation ſo as to produce a conſiderable roughneſs of the ſkin. The papulæ are of a vivid red colour, and often exhibit an irregular form, two or three of them being in many places united together; but no redneſs or inflammation extends to the ſkin in the interſtices of the papulæ.

LICHEN CANĪNUS. The ſyſtematic name of the aſh-coloured ground liver wort. See *Lichen cinereus terreſtris.*

LICHEN CINERĔUS TERRESTRIS, *Muſcus caninus.* This cryptogamious plant, called aſh-coloured ground liver wort, and ſcientifically, *Lichen caninus* by Linnæus, has a weak,

faint ſmell, and a ſharpiſh taſte. It was for a long time highly extolled as a medicine of ſingular virtue, in preventing and curing that dreadful diſorder which is produced by the bite of rabid animals, but now deſervedly forgotten. See *Pulvis antilyſſus*.

LICHEN COCCIFĔRUS. See *Muſcus pyxidatus*.

LICHEN ISLANDĬCUS. The medicinal qualities of the lichen iſlandicus have lately been ſo well eſtabliſhed at Vienna, that this plant is now admitted into the materia medica of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia. It is extremely mucilaginous, and to the taſte is bitter, and ſomewhat aſtringent. Its bitterneſs, as well as the purgative quality which it manifeſts, in its recent ſtate, are in a great meaſure diſſipated on drying, or may be extracted by a ſlight infuſion in water, ſo that the inhabitants of Iceland convert it into a tolerably grateful and nutritive food. An ounce of this Lichen, boiled a quarter of an hour in a pint of water, yielded ſeven ounces of a mucilage as thick as that procured by the ſolution of one pint of gum arabic in three of water.

The medical virtues of this lichen were probably firſt learned from the Icelanders, who employ it in its freſh ſtate as a laxative; but when deprived of this quality and properly prepared, we are told that it is an efficacious remedy in conſumptions, coughs, dyſenteries, and diarrhœas. Scopoli ſeems to have been the firſt who of late years called the attention of phyſicians to this remedy in conſumptive diſorders: and further inſtances of its ſucceſs are related by Herz, Cramer, Tromſdorff, Ebeling, Pauliſky, Stoll, and others, who bear teſtimony of its efficacy in moſt of the other complaints above mentioned. Dr. Herz ſays, that ſince he firſt uſed the lichen in dyſentery, he found it ſo ſucceſsful, that he never had occaſion to employ any other remedy; it muſt be obſerved, however, that cathartics and emetics were always repeatedly adminiſtered before he had recourſe to the lichen, to which he alſo occaſionally added opium. Dr. Crichton informs us, that during ſeven months reſidence at Vienna he had frequent opportunities of ſeeing the lichen iſlandicus tried in phthiſis pulmonalis at the general hoſpitals, and confeſſes, "that it by no means anſwered the expectation he had formed of it." He adds, however, "from what I have ſeen, I am fully convinced in my own mind that there are only two ſpecies of this diſeaſe where this ſort of lichen promiſes a cure. The two ſpecies I hint at, are the phthiſis hæmoptoica, and the phthiſis pituitoſa or mucoſa. In ſeveral caſes of theſe I have ſeen the patients ſo far get the better of their complaints as to be diſmiſſed the hoſpital cured, but whether they remained long ſo or not I cannot take upon me to ſay." That this lichen ſtrengthens the digeſtive powers, and proves extremely nutritious, there can be no doubt; but the great medicinal efficacy attributed to it at Vienna will not readily be credited at London. It is commonly given in the form of a decoction; an ounce and a half of the lichen being boiled in a quart of milk. Of this a tea-cupful is directed to be drank frequently in the courſe of the day. If milk diſagree with the ſtomach, a ſimple decoction of the Lichen in water is to be uſed. Care ought to be taken that it be boiled over a ſlow fire, and not longer than a quarter of an hour.

LICHEN PLICĀTUS. The ſyſtematic name of the *muſcus arboreus*. See *Muſcus arboreus*.

LICHEN PULMONĀRĬUS. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal muſcus

pulmonarius quercinus. See *Pulmonaria arborea.*

LICHEN PYXIDĀTUS. The ſyſtematic name of the cup moſs. See *Muſcus pyxidatus.*

LICHEN ROCCĔLLA. The ſyſtematic name of the roccella of the ſhops. See *Roccella.*

LICHEN SAXĀTĪLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the muſcus crani humani. See *Uſnea.*

LIENTĔRĬA, (*Lienteria, æ*, f. λειεντερια, from λειος, ſmooth, εντερον, the inteſtine, and ῥεω, to flow). A ſpecies of diarrhœa. See *Diarrhœa.*

LIFE, ANIMAL. To live, may be defined the property of acting from an intrinſic power; hence the life of an animal body appears to be threefold. 1. *Its Chemical Life*, which conſiſts in that attraction of the elements, by which the vital principle, diffuſed through the ſolids and fluids, defends all the parts of the body from putrefaction. In this ſenſe it may be ſaid, that every atom of our body lives *chemically*, and that life is deſtroyed by putrefaction alone. 2. *Its Phyſical Life*, which conſiſts in the irritability of the parts. This phyſical property remains for ſome time after death. Thus the heart or inteſtines removed from the body, whilſt ſtill warm, contract themſelves on the application of a ſtimulus. In like manner, the ſerpent or eel being cut into pieces, each part moves and palpitates for a long time afterwards. Hence theſe parts may be ſaid to live *phyſically*, as long as they continue warm and ſoft. 3. *Its Phyſiological Life* conſiſts in the action of inorganic parts proper to each, as the action of the heart and veſſels; ſo that, theſe actions ceaſing, the body is ſaid to be phyſiologically dead. The phyſiological life ceaſes firſt, next the phyſical, and finally the chemical periſhes.

LIGAMENT, (*Ligament, i*, n. from *ligo*, to bind). Ligaments are elaſtic and ſtrong membranes connecting the extremities of the moveable bones. They are divided into *capſular*, which ſurround joints like a bag, and *connecting* ligaments. The uſe of the capſular ligaments is to connect the extremities of the moveable bones, and prevent the efflux of ſynovia; the external and internal connecting ligaments ſtrengthen the extremities of the moveable bones.

A Table of all the Ligaments.

Ligaments of the lower jaw. The condyles of the lower jaw are connected with the articular ſinuſes of the temporal bone by two ligaments, the capſular and lateral ligament.

Ligaments of the occipital bone, and vertebræ of the neck. The condyles of the occipital bone are united with the articular depreſſions of the firſt vertebræ by the capſular, broad, anterior, and poſterior ligaments, the ligaments of the odontoid proceſs, and ligamentum nuchæ.

Ligaments of the vertebræ. The vertebræ are connected together by means of their bodies and oblique proceſſes. The bodies by a ſoft cartilaginous ſubſtance, and the proceſſes by ligaments, viz. the tranſverſe ligament of the firſt vertebræ; the anterior and poſterior common; the interſpinous; the intertranſverſe; the intervertebral ligaments: the capſular ligaments of the oblique proceſſes; and the ligaments of the laſt vertebræ of the loins with the os ſacrum.

Ligaments of the ribs. The poſterior extremity of the ribs is united with the vertebræ; the anterior with the ſternum. The ligaments of the poſterior extremity are, the capſular ligaments of the greater and leſſer heads; the internal and external ligaments of the neck of the ribs; and a ligament peculiar to the laſt

rib. The ligaments of the anterior extremity are, the capſular ligaments of the cartilages of the true ribs, and the ligaments of the ribs *inter ſe*.

Ligaments of the ſternum. The ligaments connecting the three portions of the ſternum to the ribs are, the membrana propria of the ſternum; and the ligaments of the enſiform cartilage.

Ligaments of the pelvis. The ligaments which connect the oſſa innominata with the os ſacrum are, three ligamenta ileo ſacra; two ſacro-iſchiatic ligaments; two tranſverſe ligaments of the pelvis: the ligamentum obturans of the foramen ovale, and the ligamentum Poupartii, or inguinale. See *Pelvis*.

Ligaments of the os coccygis. The baſis of the os coccygis is connected to the apex of the os ſacrum, by the capſular and longitudinal ligaments.

Ligaments of the clavicle. The anterior extremity is connected with the ſternum and firſt rib; and the poſterior extremity with the acromion of the ſcapula, by the interclavicular, the capſular ligament, the ligamentum rhomboideum, and in the poſterior extremity, the capſular ligament.

Ligaments of the ſcapula. The proper ligaments which connect the ſcapula with the poſterior extremity of the clavicle are, the conoid and trapezoid ligaments.

Ligaments of the humerus. The head of the humerus is connected with the glenoid cavity of the ſcapula by the capſular ligament.

Ligaments of the articulation of the cubit. The elbow joint is formed by the inferior extremity of the humerus, and ſuperior extremities of the ulna and radius. The ligaments connecting theſe bones are, the capſular, the brachio-cubital, and the brachio-radial ligaments.

Ligaments of the radius. The radius is affixed to the humerus, cubit, and carpus, by peculiar ligaments, namely, the ſuperior, inferior, oblique, and interoſſeous ligaments.

Ligaments of the carpus. The ligaments which connect the eight bones of the wriſt together, and with the fore-arm and metacarpus, are, the capſular ligament of the carpus; the firſt and ſecond tranſverſe ligament; the oblique ligaments, and the capſular ligament proper to the bones of the carpus.

Ligaments of the metacarpus. The bones of the metacarpus are in part connected with the ſecond row of bones of the carpus, and in part together, by the articular and interoſſeous ligaments.

Ligaments of the fingers. The fingers and phalanges are connected together, and with the metacarpus; and the thumb with the carpus, by the lateral ligaments of the fingers, and ligament of the thumb with the os trapezium of the carpus.

Ligaments which keep the tendons of the muſcles of the hand in their proper place. The ligaments which keep tendons of the muſcles of the hand in their place, are ſituated partly on the palm and partly on the back of the hand. In the back of the hand are, the external tranſverſe ligament of the carpus, the vaginal, and the tranſverſe ligaments of the extenſor tendons. In the palm of the hand are, the internal tranſverſe ligament of the carpus, the vaginal or crucial ligaments of the flexor tendons of the phalanges, and the acceſſory ligaments of the flexor tendons.

Ligaments of the articulation of the femur. The head of the os femoris is ſtrongly annexed to the acetabulum of the os innominatum, by two very ſtrong ligaments, the capſular ligament, and ligamentum teres, or reſtraining ligament.

Ligaments of the articulation of the knee. The knee joint is formed by

the condyles of the os femoris, head of the tibia and the patella. The ligaments are the capsular, the posterior, the external and the internal lateral ligaments, the crucial and the alar ligaments, the ligaments of the semilunar cartilages, and ligaments of the patella.

Ligaments of the fibula. The fibula is connected with the tibia by means of the capsular ligament of the superior extremity, the interosseous ligament, and the ligaments of the inferior extremity.

Ligaments of the articulation of the tarsus. The inferior extremity of the tibia and fibula forms the cavity into which the astragalus of the tarsus is received. This articulation is effected by the anterior, middle, and posterior ligament of the fibula, the ligamentum tibiæ deltoides, the capsular ligament, and the ligaments proper to the bones of the tarsus.

Ligaments of the metatarsus. The bones of the metatarsus are connected in part together, and in part with the tarsus, by means of the capsular ligament, the articular ligaments, the transverse ligaments in the back and sole of the foot, and the interosseous ligaments of the metatarsus.

Ligaments of the toes. The phalanges of the toes are united partly together, and partly with the metatarsus, by the capsular and lateral ligaments.

Ligaments which retain the tendons of the muscles of the foot in their proper place. These ligaments are found partly in the back and partly in the sole of the foot. They are the vaginal ligament of the tibia, the transverse or crucial ligaments of the tarsus, the ligaments of the tendons of the peronei muscles, the laciniated ligament, the vaginal ligament of the extensor muscle and flexor pollicis, the vaginal ligaments of the flexor tendons, the accessory ligaments of the flexor tendons, and the transverse ligaments of the extensor tendons.

Ligamentum ciliare. Behind the uvea of the human eye, there arise out of the choroid membrane, from the ciliary circle, white complicated striæ, covered with a black matter, and running from thence backwards, firmly attached to the very thin membrane of the vitreous humour, where it is inserted into the crystalline lens. The fluctuating extremities of these striæ are spread abroad even to the crystalline lens, upon which they lie, but are not affixed. Taken together they are called *ligamentum ciliare.*

Ligamentum ovarii. The thick round portion of the broad ligament of the uterus, by which the ovarium is connected with the uterus. The ancients supposed this was hollow, to convey the female semen into the uterus.

Light. *Lux.* It is at present universally acknowledged that light is a body or fluid, existing independent of all other substances, and possessing its own characteristic properties, or phenomena, which are as follow: 1. The motion of light is so rapid, that it passes through nearly eight thousand leagues in a second. 2. The elasticity of the rays of light is such, that the angle of reflexion is equal to the angle of incidence. 3. The fluid of light is ponderous; for if a ray of light be received through a hole, and the blade of a knife presented to it, the ray is diverted from a right line, and is reflected towards the body. This circumstance shows that it obeys the law of attraction, and sufficiently authorizes its being classed among other ponderous bodies. 4. The great Newton succeeded in decomposing the solar light into seven primitive rays, which present themselves in the following order: red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, violet. Dyers present us with only three colours, which are red, blue, and yellow; the com-

binations and proportions of these three principles form all the shades of colour with which the arts are enriched.

LIGNUM AGALLOCHI VERI. See *Lignum aloes.*

LIGNUM ALOES. *Lignum agallochi veri. Lignum calambac. Lignum aspalathi. Xyloaloes.* The tree whose wood bears this name is not yet scientifically known. It is imported from China in small, compact, ponderous pieces, of a yellow rusty brown color, with black or purplish veins, and sometimes of a black colour. It has a bitterish resinous taste, and a slight aromatic smell. It is used to fumigate rooms in eastern countries.

LIGNUM ASPALĀTHI. See *Lignum aloes.*

LIGNUM CALAMBAC. See *Lignum aloes.*

LIGNUM CAMPECHENSE, (*Campechensis*; so called because it was brought from Campeachy, in the bay of Honduras). *Lignum campechianum. Lignum sappan.* Logwood. The wood of this tree, *Hæmatoxylum campechianum* of Linnæus, Class *Decandria.* Order *Monogynia*, is of a solid texture, and of a dark red colour. It is imported principally as a substance for dying, cut into junks and logs of about three feet in length: of these pieces the largest and thickest are preserved, as being of the deepest colour. Logwood has a sweetish subadstringent taste, and no remarkable smell; it gives a purplish red tincture both to watery and spirituous infusions, and tinges the stools, and sometimes the urine, of the same colour. It is employed medicinally as an adstringent and corroborant. In diarrhœas it has been found peculiarly efficacious, and has the recommendation of some of the first medical authorities; also in the latter stages of dysentery, when the obstructing causes are removed; to obviate the extreme laxity of the intestines usually superinduced by the repeated dejections. An extract is ordered in the pharmacopœias.

LIGNUM INDĬCUM. See *Guaiacum.*

LIGNUM MOLUCCENSE. See *Lignum pavanæ.*

LIGNUM NEPHRITĬCUM. Nephritic wood. The wood of the *Guilandini moringa*; *inermiis foliis sub-bipinnatis, foliis inferioribus ternatis* of Linnæus, which also affords the *nux ben.* It is brought from America in large, compact, ponderous pieces, without knots, the outer part of a whitish, or pale yellowish colour, the inner of a dark brown, or red. When rasped it gives out a faint aromatic smell. It is never used medicinally in this country, but stands high in reputation abroad, in difficulties of urine, nephritic complaints, and most disorders of the kidneys and urinary passages.

LIGNUM PAVĀNÆ. *Lignum pavanum. Lignum moluccense.* The wood of the *Croton tiglium*; *foliis ovatis glabris acuminatis serratis, caule arboreo* of Linnæus, which affords the *grana tiglii.* It is of a light spongy texture, white within, but covered with a greyish bark; and possesses a pungent, caustic taste, and a disagreeable smell. It is said to be useful as a purgative in hydropical complaints.

LIGNUM RHODĬUM. See *Rose-wood.*

LIGNUM SANCTUM. See *Guaiacum.*

LIGNUM SANTĂLI RUBRI. See *Santalium rubrum.*

LIGNUM SAPPAN. See *Lignum campechense.*

LIGNUM SERPENTUM. The wood of the *Ophyoxilum serpentinum* of Linnæus. It is said to be an alexipharmic.

LIGUSTĬCUM LEVISTĬCUM. The ſyſtematic name of lovage. See *Leviſticum*.

LILĬUM ALBUM, (*Lilium*, *i*, n. from λειος, ſmooth, graceful; ſo named from the beauty of its leaf). The roots of the common white lily, *Lilium candidum*; *foliis ſparſis*, *corollis campanulatis*, *intus glabris*. Claſs *Hexandria*. Order *Monogynia*, are directed by the Edinburgh pharmacopœia; they are extremely mucilaginous, and chiefly uſed, boiled in milk and water, in emollient and ſuppurating cataplaſms.

LILĬUM CANDĬDUM. The ſyſtematic name of the white lily. See *Lilium album*.

LILIUM CONVALLĬUM. *Convallaria*. *Maianthemum*. Lily of the valley. May lily. The flowers, of this plant, *Convallaria majalis ſcapo nudo* of Linnæus, have a penetrating bitter taſte, and are given in nervous and catarrhal diſorders.

LILLY, MAY. See *Lilium convallium*.

LILLY, WHITE. See *Lilium album*.

LILLY, WATER. See *Nymphæa alba* and *Nymphæa lutea*.

LILLY OF THE VALLEY. See *Lilium convallium*.

LIMĀCES, (*Limax*, *acis*, m. plur. *limaces*; from *limus*, ſlime, ſo named from its ſlimineſs). *Cochleæ terreſtres*. Snails. Theſe animals abound with a viſcid ſlimy juice, which it readily gives out by boiling, to milk or water, ſo as to render them thick and glutinous. Theſe decoctions are apparently very nutritious and demulcent, and are recommended in conſumptive caſes and emaciations.

LIMATŪRA FERRI. Steel filings are conſidered as poſſeſſing ſtimulating and ſtrengthening qualities, and are exhibited in worm caſes, ataxia, leucorrhœa, diarrhœa, chloroſis, &c.

LIME. *Calx*. Calcareous earth. A ſubſtance obtained by decompoſing calcareous matters by the action of fire, which deprives them of their acid. Stones compoſed of ſhells, marbles, and moſt calcareous ſpars, are the ſubſtances which afford the beſt lime; but the hard calcareous ſtone, called lime-ſtone, is more commonly uſed. Theſe are arranged in a furnace or kiln, ſo as to form a kind of vault, beneath which a wood fire is lighted, and kept up until a ſtrong flame, without ſmoke, is raiſed about ten feet above the furnace, and till the ſtones become very white. Good quick-lime is hard, ſonorous, becomes ſpeedily and ſtrongly heated by the addition of water, and emits a denſe vapour during its extinction. It is uſually in the form of a ſtone, of a dirty white colour; its taſte is burning, acrid, and urinous; and it is ſufficiently ſtrong to cauſe inflammation when applied to the ſkin. It is found native in the vicinity of volcanos. Lime, expoſed to the air, ſwells, breaks, and is reduced to powder, its bulk being conſiderably increaſed: it is then termed ſlack-lime. There are many neutral ſalts into whoſe compoſition lime enters; thoſe, however, which are employed in medicine are four in number: 1. The *carbonate of lime*, or chalk. See *Creta*. 2. The *citrate of lime*, called alſo *lapides cancrorum citrati*, and *conchæ citratæ*, formed of a combination of lime with the citric acid. It is given in doſes of from one to two drachms, in any vehicle, as a diuretic and deobſtruent, in vomitings, prurigo cutis, &c. 3. The *muriat of lime*; *calx ſalita* of Bergman. The illuſtrious FOURCROY recommends this ſalt in the various forms of ſcrofula. 4. The *phoſphate of lime*, called alſo *cornu cervi uſtum ſeu calcinatum*. This is given from half a drachm to a drachm at a doſe in rachitis. Quick-lime is employed by ſurgeons in combination with ſoap or other ſubſtances as a power-

ful cauſtic: and lime water is of conſiderable utility both in the practice of phyſice and ſurgery.

Lime-tree. See *Tilia*.

Limon, (*Limōnum, i*, n. and *limon, ōnis*, m. Heb.) *Citrea malus. Citrus.* The lemon. The tree which affords this fruit is the *Citrus medica; petiolis linearibus* of Linnæus. Claſs *Polyadelphia*. Order *Icoſandria:* a native of the upper parts of Aſia, but cultivated in Spain, Portugal, and France. The juice, which is much more acid than that of the orange, poſſeſſes ſimilar virtues. It is always preferred where a ſtrong vegetable acid is required. Saturated with the fixed vegetable alkali, it forms the *kali citratrum*, which is in frequent extemporaneous uſe in febrile diſeaſes, and by promoting the ſecretions, eſpecially that of the ſkin, proves of conſiderable ſervice in abating the violence of pyrexia. As an antiſcorbutic, the citric acid is alſo very generally taken on board ſhips deſtined for long voyages; but even when well depurated of its mucilaginous parts, it is found to ſpoil by long keeping. To preſerve it in purity for a conſiderable length of time, it is neceſſary that it ſhould be brought to a highly concentrated ſtate, and for this purpoſe it has been recommended to expoſe the juice to a degree of cold ſufficient to congeal the aqueous and mucilaginous parts. After a cruſt of ice is formed, the juice is poured into another veſſel; and, by repeating this proceſs ſeveral times, the remaining juice, it is ſaid, has been concentrated to eight times its original ſtrength, and kept without ſuffering any material change for ſeveral years. The exterior rind of the lemon is a very grateful aromatic bitter, not ſo hot as orange peal, yielding in diſtillation a leſs quantity of oil, which is extremely light, almoſt colourleſs, and generally brought from the ſouthern parts of Europe, under the name of Eſſence of Lemons. The lemon-peel, though leſs warm, is ſimilar in its qualities to that of the orange, and is employed with the ſame intentions. The pharmacopœias direct a ſyrup of the juice, and the peel enters into vinous and aqueous bitter infuſions; it is alſo ordered to be candied; and the eſſential oil is an ingredient in the *ſpiritus ammoniæ compoſitus* and other formulæ.

Linaria, (*Linaria, æ*, f. from *linum*, flax, named from the reſemblance of its leaves to thoſe of flax). *Oſyris. Urinaria.* Common toad flax. *Antirrhinum linaria* of Linnæus. *A foliis lanceolato linearibus confertis caule erecto, ſpicis terminalibus ſeſſilibus, floribus imbricatis.* A perenial indigenous plant, common in barren paſtures, hedges, and the ſides of roads, flowering from July to September. The leaves have a bitteriſh and ſomewhat ſaline taſte, and when rubbed between the fingers have a faint ſmell reſembling that of elder. They are ſaid to be diuretic and cathartic, and in both characters to act powerfully, eſpecially in the firſt, hence the name *urinalis*. They have been recommended in dropſies and other diſorders requiring powerful evacuations. The linaria has alſo been uſed as a reſolvent in jaundice, and ſuch diſeaſes as were ſuppoſed to ariſe from viſceral obſtructions. But the plant has been chiefly valued for its effects when externally applied, eſpecially in hæmorrhoidal affections, for which both the leaves and flowers have been employed in various forms of ointment, fomentation, and poultice. Dr. Wolph firſt invented an ointment of this plant for the piles. The Landgrave of Heſſe, to whom he was phyſician, conſtantly interrogated him to diſcover its compoſition, but Wolph obſtinately refuſed, till the prince promiſed to

give him a fat ox annually for the discovery: hence to the following verse which was made to distinguish the linaria from the escula, viz.

"*Esula lactescit, sine lacte linaria crescit,*"

The hereditary Marshall of Hesse added,

"*Esula nil nobis, sed dat linaria taurum.*"

Linctus, (*Linctus, us*, m. from *lingo*, to lick). A term in pharmacy that is generally applied to a soft and somewhat oily substance, of the consistence of honey.

Linea alba. An aponeurosis that extends from the scrobiculus cordis straight down to the navel, and from thence to the pubis. It is formed by the tendinous fibres of the internal oblique ascending and the external oblique descending muscles, and the transversalis, interlaced with those of the opposite side.

Lingua, (*Lingua, æ*, f. from *lingo*, to lick up). The tongue. See *Tongue*.

Lingua avis. The seeds of the *Fraxinus*, or ash, are so called from their supposed resemblance to a bird's tongue.

Lingua canina. So called from the resemblance of its leaves to a dog's tongue. See *Cynoglossum*.

Lingua cervina. See *Scolopendrium*.

Linguālis, (*Lingualis*, sc. *musculus*; from *lingua*, a tongue). A muscle of the tongue. It arises from the root of the tongue laterally, and runs forward between the hyoglossus and genio glossus, to be inserted into the tip of the tongue, along with part of the stylo-glossus. Its use is to contract the substance of the tongue, and to bring it backwards.

Liniment, (*Linimentum, i*, n. from *lino*, to anoint). An oily substance of a mediate consistence between an ointment and oil, but so thin as to drop.

Līnīmentum ammoniæ. A stimulating liniment, mostly ordered to relieve rheumatic pains, bruises, and paralytic numbness.

Līnīmentum ammoniæ fortius. A more powerful stimulating application than the former, acting as a rubifacient. In pleurodynia, indolent tumours, and arthritic pains, it is to be preferred to the milder one.

Līnīmentum aquæ calcis. This has been long in use as an application to burns and scalds.

Līnīmentum camphŏræ compositum. An elegant and useful stimulant application in paralytic, spasmodic, and rheumatic diseases.

Līnīmentum opiātum. A resolvent anodyne embrocation, adapted to remove indolent tumours of the joints, and those weaknesses which remain after strains and chilblains before they break.

Līnīmentum sapōnis compositum. This is a more pleasant preparation, to rub parts affected with rheumatic pains, swellings of the joints, &c. than any of the foregoing, and at the same time not inferior, except where a rubifacient is required.

Līnīmentum simplex. An emollient application for chapped lips, hands, &c.

Linnæa, (*Linnæa, æ*, f. so named in honour of Linnæus). This plant, *Linnæa borealis*, has a bitter subastringent taste, and is used in some places in the form of fermentation, to rheumatic pains, and an infusion with milk is much esteemed in Switzerland in the cure of sciatica.

Linnæa borealis. The systematic name of the plant named in honour of the immortal Linnæus. See *Linnæa*.

Linseed. See *Linum*.

Linum, (*Linum, i*, n. from λειος, soft, smooth; so called from its soft,

ſmooth texture). Common flax. *Linum uſitatiſſimum* of Linnæus. *Linum calycibus capſuliſque mucronatis, petalis crenatis, foliis lanceolatis alternis, caule ſubſolitario.* Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Pentagynia.* The ſeeds of this uſeful plant, called linſeed, have an unctuous, mucilaginous, ſweetiſh taſte, but no remarkable ſmell; on expreſſion they yield a large quantity of oil, which, when carefully drawn, without the application of heat, has no particular taſte or flavour: boiled in water they yield a large proportion of a ſtrong flavourleſs mucilage, which is in uſe as an emolient or demulcent in coughs, hoarſeneſſes, and pleuritic ſymptoms, that frequently prevail in catarrhal affections; and it is likewiſe recommended in nephritic pains and ſtranguries. The meal of the ſeeds is alſo much uſed externally in emollient and maturating cataplaſms. The expreſſed oil is an officinal preparation, and is ſuppoſed to be of a more healing and balſamic nature than the other oils of this claſs: it has, therefore, been very generally employed in pulmonary complaints, and in colics and conſtipations of the bowels.

Linum catharticum. Purging flax, or mill-mountain. This ſmall plant, *Linum catharticum, foliis oppoſitis ovato-lanceolatis, caule dichotomo, corollis acutis* of Linnæus, is an effectual and ſafe cathartic. It has a bitteriſh and diſagreeable taſte. A handful infuſed in half a pint of boiling water is the doſe for an adult.

Linum usitatissimum. The ſyſtematic name of the common flax. See *Linum.*

Liparis, (*Liparis, is*, f. λιπαρις, from λιπος, fat, ſo named from its unctuous quality). See *Pinguicula.*

Liparocele, (*Liparocele, es*, f. λιπαροκηλη, from λιπος, fat and κηλη, a tumour). That ſpecies of ſarcocele in which the ſubſtance conſtituting the diſeaſe is fat.

Lipoma, (*Lipoma, ătis*, n. from λιπος, fat). A ſolitary, ſoft, unequal, indolent tumour, ariſing from a luxuriancy of adeps in the celular membrane. The adipoſe ſtructure forming the tumour is ſometimes diſeaſed towards its centre, and more fluid than the reſt. At other times it does not appear to differ in any reſpect from adipoſe membrane, except in the enlargement of the cells containing the fat. Theſe tumours are always many years before they arrive at any ſize.

Lippitudo, (*Lippitudo, ĭnis*, f. from *lippus*, blear-eyed). An exudation of a puriform humour from the margin of the eye-lids. The proximate cauſe is a depoſition of acrimony on the glandulæ meibomianæ in the margin of the eyelids. This humour in the night agglutinates the tarſi of the eyelids together. The margins of the eyelids are red and tumefy, are irritated and excite pain. Ophthalmia, fiſtula lachrymalis, and ſometimes an ectropium, are the conſequences. The ſpecies of the lippitudo are, 1ſt, *Lippitudo infantum*, which is familiar to children, particularly of an acrimonious habit. The lippitudo of infants is moſtly accompanied with tinea, or ſome ſcabby eruption, which points out that the diſeaſe originates, not from a local, but general or conſtitutional affection: 2d, *Lippitudo adultorum or ſenilis.* This ariſes from various acrimonies, and is likewiſe common to hard drinkers: 3d, *Lippitudo venerea*, which ariſes from a ſuppreſſed gonorrhœa or fluor albus, and is likewiſe obſerved in children born of parents with venereal complaints: 4th, *Lippitudo ſcrophuloſa*, which accompanies other ſcrophulous ſymptoms: 5th, *Lippitudo ſcorbutica*, which affects the ſcorbutic, and is cured by the means uſed for the ſea or land ſcurvy. Vegetable diet and pure air, freſh meats, and exerciſe, for the former; but mineral alteratives, antiphlogiſtics, and a dry ſtrict regimen, is the cure for the latter.

Liquidamber. See *Liquidambra.*

Liquidamber styraciflua. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords both the liquidamber and liquid ſtorax. See *Liquidambra.*

Liquidambra, (*Liquidambra, æ*, f. from *liquidus* and *amber*). Liquid amber. A reſinous juice, of a yellow colour inclining to red, at firſt about the conſiſtence of turpentine, by age hardened into a ſolid brittle maſs. It is obtained by wounding the bark of the *Liquidamber ſtyraciflua*; *foliis palmato-angulatis*; *foliis indiviſis, acutis*, of Linnæus. This juice has a moderately pungent, warm, balſamic taſte, and a very fragrant ſmell, not unlike that of the *Storax calamita* heightened by a little ambergris. It is ſeldom uſed medicinally. The *Styrax liquida* is alſo obtained by boiling from this plant. There are two ſorts diſtinguiſhed by authors; the one, the purer part of the reſinous matter that riſes to the ſurface in boiling, ſeparated by a ſtrainer, of the conſiſtence of honey, tenacious like turpentine, of a reddiſh or aſh-brown colour, moderately tranſparent, of an acrid unctuous taſte, and a fragrant ſmell, faintly reſembling that of the ſolid ſtorax, but ſomewhat diſagreeable. The other, the more impure part which remains on the ſtrainer, untranſparent, and in ſmell and taſte much weaker than the former. Their uſe is chiefly as ſtomachics, in the form of plaſter.

Liquiritĭa, (*Liquiritia, æ*, f. from *liquor*, juice, or from *elikoris*, Welſh). See *Glycyrrhiza.*

Liquor amnĭi, (*Liquor, ōris*, m.). All that fluid which is contained in the membranaceous ovum ſurrounding the fœtus in utero, is called by the general name of the waters, the water of the amnion or ovum, or liquor amnii. The quantity, in proportion to the ſize of the different parts of the ovum, is greateſt by far in early pregnancy. At the time of parturition, in ſome caſes, it amounts to or exceeds four pints, and in others it is ſcarcely equal to as many ounces. It is uſually in the largeſt quantity when the child has been ſome time dead, or is born in a weakly ſtate. This fluid is generally tranſparent, often milky, and ſometimes of a yellow or light brown colour, and very different in conſiſtence; and theſe alterations ſeem to depend upon the ſtate of the conſtitution of the parent. It does not coagulate with heat like the ſerum of the blood; and, chemically examined, it is found to be compoſed of phlegm, earthy matter, and ſea ſalt, in different proportions in different ſubjects, by which the varieties in its appearance and conſiſtence are produced. It has been ſuppoſed to be excrementitious; but it is generally thought to be ſecreted from the internal ſurface of the ovum, and to be circulatory as in other cavities. It was formerly imagined, that the fœtus was nouriſhed by this fluid, of which it was ſaid to ſwallow ſome part frequently; and it was then aſſerted, that the qualities of the fluid were adapted for its nouriſhments But there have been many example. of children born without any paſſage to the ſtomach; and a few, of children in which the head was wanting, and which have nevertheleſs arrived at the full ſize. Theſe caſes fully prove, that this opinion is not juſt, and that there muſt be ſome other medium by which the child is nouriſhed beſides the waters. The incontrovertible uſes of this fluid are, to ſerve the purpoſe of affording a ſoft bed for the reſidence of the fœtus, to which it allows free motion, and prevents any external injury during pregnancy: and incloſed in the membranes, it procures the moſt gentle, yet efficacious dilatation of the os uteri, and ſoft parts, at the time of parturition. Inſtances have been recorded, in which the waters of the ovum are ſaid to have been voided ſo early as in the ſixth month of pregnancy,

without prejudice either to the child or parent. The truth of these reports seems to be doubtful, because, when the membranes are intentionally broken, the action of the uterus never fails to come on, when all the water is evacuated. A few cases have occurred to me, says Dr. Denman, in practice, which might have been construed to be of this kind; for there was a daily discharge of some colourless fluid from the vagina for several months before delivery; but there being no diminution of the size of the abdomen, and the waters being regularly discharged at the time of labour, it was judged that some lymphatic vessel near the os uteri had been ruptured, and did not close again till the patient was delivered. He also met with one case, in which, after the expulsion of the placenta, there was no sanguineous discharge, but a profusion of lymph, to the quantity of several pints, in a few hours after delivery; but the patient suffered no inconvenience except from surprise.

LIQUOR VOLATĬLIS CORNU CERVI. This preparation of the volatile alkali, commonly termed hartshorn, possesses the same virtues as the aqua ammæniæ. It is in common use to smell at in faintings, &c. See *Carbonas ammoniacæ liquidus.*

LIQUORICE. See *Glycyrrhiza.*

LIQUORICE, SPANISH. See *Glycyrrhiza.*

LITHARGŸRUM. See *Lead.*

LITHARGŸRUS, (*Lithargyrus, i*, m. λιθαργυρον, from λιθος, a stone, and αργυρος, silver). White lead, the scum of silver. See *Lead*, and *Oxydum plumbi semivitreum.*

LITHIATS, (*Lithias, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the lithic acid, or acid of the stone sometimes found in the human bladder, with different bases; thus, *lithiat of alumine*, *lithiat of ammoniac*, &c.

LITHOLOGY, (*Lithologia, æ*, f. λιθολογια, from λιθος, a stone, and λογος, a discourse). A discourse or treatise on stones.

LITHONTRIPTICS, (*Lithontriptica*, sc. *medicamenta*, λιθοντριπτικα, from λιθος, a stone, and θρυπτω, to break) From the strict sense and common acceptation of the word, this class of medicines should comprehend such as possess a power of dissolving calculi in the urinary passages. It is, however, a question, whether there be in nature any such substances. By this term, then, is meant those substances which possess a power of removing a disposition in the body to the formation of calculi. The different articles referred to this class are comprehended under two orders: 1. *Antacid lithontriptics*, as *lime-water* and *caustic alkali*, which are best suited to such constitutions as are disposed to acidity in the primæ viæ. 2. *Adstringent lithontriptics*, as *uva ursi*, &c. which are mostly selected for the relaxed fibre, but which may be given with obvious advantage where there are no manifest marks indicating laxity.

LITHOSPERMUM, (*Lithospermum, i*, n. λιθοσπερμον, from λιθος, a stone, and σπερμα, seed, named from the hardness of its seed). *Milium solis.* Common gromwell. The seeds of this officinal plant, *Lithospermum officinale*; *seminibus lævibus, corollis vix calycem superantibus, foliis lanceolatis*, of Linnæus, were formerly supposed, from their stony hardness, to be efficacious in calculous and gravelly disorders. Little credit is given to their lithontriptic character, yet they are occasionally used as diuretic for clearing the urinary passages, and for obviating strangury, in the form of emulsion.

LITHOSPERMUM OFFICINĀLE. The systematic name of the officinal gromwell. See *Lithospermum.*

LIXIVĬA VITRĬŎLĀTA SULPHŪREA. *Sal polychrestus.* Its virtues are delivered under the head of *Kali vitriolatum.*

LIXIVIATION. *Leſſive.* The proceſs employed by chemiſts of diſſolving, by means of warm water, the ſaline and ſoluble particles of cinders, the reſidues of diſtillation and combuſtion, coals and neutral earths, in order to obtain thoſe particles which are termed *lixivial ſalts.*

LIXIVĬUM, (*Lixivium, i,* n. from *lix,* wood-aſh). The liquor in which ſaline and ſoluble particles of the reſidues of diſtillation and combuſtion are diſſolved.

LIXIVĬUM SAPONARĬUM. See *Aqua kali.*

LIXIVĬUM TARTĂRI. See *Aqua kali.*

LIVER, (*Hepar,* ἧπαρ). A large viſcus of a deep red colour, of great ſize and weight, ſituated under the diaphragm, in the right hypochondrium, its ſmaller portion occupying part of the epigaſtric region. In the human body the liver is divided into two principal lobes, the right of which is by far the largeſt. They are divided on the upper ſide by a broad ligament, and on the other ſide by a conſiderable depreſſion or foſſa. Between theſe two lobes is a ſmaller lobe, called *lobulus Spigelii.* In deſcribing this viſcus it is neceſſary to attend to ſeven principal circumſtances: I. Its ligaments. II. Its ſurfaces. III. Its margins. IV. Its tubercles. V. Its fiſſure. VI. Its ſinus; and VII. The pori biliarii. The ligaments of the liver are four in number, all ariſing from the peritoneum. 1. *The right lateral ligament,* which connects the thick right lobe with the poſterior part of the diaphragm. 2. *The left lateral ligament,* which connects the convex ſurface and margin of the left lobe with the diaphragm, and in thoſe of whom the liver is very large with the œſophagus and ſpleen. 3. *The broad* or *middle ſuſpenſory ligament,* which paſſes from the diaphragm into the convex ſurface, and ſeparates the right lobe of the liver from the left. It deſcends from above through the large fiſſure to the concave ſurface, and is then diſtributed over the whole liver. 4. *The round ligament,* which in adults conſiſts of the umbilical vein indurated into a ligament. The liver has two *ſurfaces,* one ſuperior, which is convex and ſmooth, and one inferior, which is concave, and has holes and depreſſions to receive not only the contiguous viſcera, but the veſſels running into the liver. The *margins* of the liver are alſo two in number; the one, which is poſterior and ſuperior, is obtuſe; the other, ſituated anteriorly and inferiorly, is acute. The *tubercles* of the liver are likewiſe two in number, and are found near the vena portæ. Upon looking on the concave ſurface of this viſcus a conſiderable fiſſure is obvious, known by the name of the *fiſſure of the liver*; but, in order to expoſe the *ſinus,* it is neceſſary to remove the gall-bladder, when a conſiderable ſinus, before occupied by the gall-bladder, will be apparent. The *blood-veſſels* of the liver are the hepatic artery, the vena portæ, and the cavæ hepaticæ, which are deſcribed under their proper names. The *abſorbents* of the liver are very numerous. The liver has *nerves* from the great intercoſtal and eighth pair, which ariſe from the hepatic plexus, and proceed along with the hepatic artery and vena portæ into the ſubſtance of the liver. With regard to the ſubſtance of the liver, various opinions have been entertained. It is, however, now pretty well aſcertained to be a large gland, compoſed of leſſer glands connected together by cellular ſtructure. The ſmall glands which thus compoſe the ſubſtance of the liver are termed penicilli, from the arrangement of the arterial ramifications of the vena portæ compoſing each gland, reſembling that of the hairs of a pencil. The chief uſe of this large viſcus is to ſup-

ply a fluid, named bile, to the inteſtines, which is of the utmoſt importance in chylification. The ſmall penicilli perform this function by a ſpecific action on the blood they contain, by which they ſecrete in their very minute ends the fluid termed *hepatic bile*; but whether they pour it into what is called a follicle, or not, is yet undecided, and is the cauſe of the difference of opinion reſpecting the ſubſtance of the liver. If it be ſecreted into a follicle, the ſubſtance is truly glandular, according to the notions of the older anatomiſts; but if it be ſecreted merely into a ſmall veſſel, called a biliary pore (whoſe exiſtence can be demonſtrated), correſponding to the end of each penicilli, without any intervening follicle, its ſubſtance is then, in their opinion, vaſcular. According to our notions in the preſent day, in either caſe, the liver is ſaid to be glandular; for we connect to our ſenſes the idea a gland, when any arrangement of veſſels performs the office of ſeparating from the blood a fluid or ſubſtance different in its nature from the blood. The ſmall veſſels which receive the bile ſecreted by the penicilli, are called *pori biliarii*; theſe converge together throughout the ſubſtance of the liver towards its under ſurface, and, at length, form one trunk, called *ductus hepaticus*, which conveys the bile into either the *ductus communis choledochus*, or *ductus cyſticus*. See *Gall-bladder*.

Liver-wort. See *Hypatica terreſtris*.

Liver-wort, ash-coloured. See *Lichen cinereus terreſtris*.

Liver-wort, ground. See *Lichen cinereus terreſtris*.

Liver-wort, Iceland. See *Lichen iſlandicus*.

Liver-wort noble. See *Hepatica terreſtris*.

Lobelĭa, (*Lobelia, æ*, f. named in honour of Lobel, a botaniſt). Blue lobelia, or cardinal flower. The root of this plant, *Lobelia ſyphilitica*, is the part directed by the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia for medicinal uſe; in taſte it reſembles tobacco, and is apt to excite vomiting. It derived the name of *ſyphilitica* from its efficacy in the cure of ſyphilis, as experienced by the North American Indians, who conſidered it a ſpecific in that diſeaſe, and with whom it was long an important ſecret, which was purchaſed by Sir William Johnſon, and ſince publiſhed by different authors. The method of employing this medicine is ſtated as follows: A decoction is made of a handful of the roots in three meaſures of water. Of this, half a meaſure is taken in the morning faſting, and repeated in the evening: and the doſe is gradually increaſed till its purgative effects become too violent, when the decoction is to be intermitted for a day or two, and then renewed, until a perfect cure is effected. During the uſe of this medicine a proper regimen is to be enjoined, and the ulcers are alſo to be frequently waſhed with the decoction, or, if deep and foul, to be ſprinkled with the powder of the inner bark of the New Jerſey tea-tree, *Ceanothus americanus*. Although the plant thus uſed is ſaid to cure the diſeaſe in a very ſhort time, yet it is not found that the antiſyphilitic powers of the lobelia have been confirmed in any inſtance of European practice.

Lobelĭa syphilĭtica. The ſyſtematic name of the blue lobelia of the pharmacopœias. See *Lobelia*.

Locāles. The fourth claſs of Cullen's noſology, which comprehends morbid affections that are partial, and includes eight genera, viz. dyſæſtheſiæ, dyſorexia, dyſcineſia, apocenoſes, epiſcheſes, tumores, ectopia, and dialyſes.

Lochĭa, (*Lochia, orum*, n. pl.

λοχια, from λοχευω, to bring forth). The cleanſings. The ſerous, and for the moſt part green-coloured, diſcharge that takes place from the uterus and vagina of women, during the firſt four days after delivery.

Lochiorrhœa, (*Lochiorrhœa, æ*, f. λοχιορροια, from λοχια, and ῥεω, to flow). An exceſſive diſcharge of the lochia.

Locked jaw. *Triſmus*. A ſpecies of tetanus. See *Tetanus*.

Logwood. See *Lignum campechenſe*.

Longissimus dorsi. This muſcle, which is ſomewhat thicker than the ſacro-lumbalis, greatly reſembles it, however, in its ſhape and extent, and ariſes, in common with that muſcle, between it and the ſpine. It aſcends upwards along the ſpine, and is inſerted by ſmall double tendons into the poſterior and inferior part of all the tranſverſe proceſſes of the vertebræ of the back, and ſometimes of the laſt vertebra of the neck. From its outſide it ſends off ſeveral bundles of fleſhy fibres, interſperſed with a few tendinous filaments, which are uſually inſerted into the lower edge of the ten uppermoſt ribs, not far from their tubercles. In ſome ſubjects, however, they are found inſerted into a leſs number, and in others, though more rarely, into every one of the ribs. Towards the upper part of this muſcle is obſerved a broad and thin portion of fleſhy fibres, which croſs and intimately adhere to the fibres of the longiſſimus dorſi. This portion ariſes, from the upper and poſterior part of the tranſverſe proceſſes of the five or ſix uppermoſt vertebræ of the back, by as many tendinous origins, and is uſually inſerted by ſix tendinous and fleſhy ſlips, into the tranſverſe proceſſes of the ſix inferior vertebræ of the neck. This portion is deſcribed by Winſlow and Albinus as a diſtinct muſcle; by the former under the name of *tranſverſalis major colli*, and by the latter under that of *tranſverſalis cervicis*. But its fibres are ſo intimately connected with thoſe of the longiſſimus dorſi, that it may very properly be conſidered as an appendage to the latter. The uſe of this muſcle is to extend the vertebræ of the back, and to keep the trunk of the body erect; by means of its appendage it likewiſe ſerves to turn the neck obliquely backwards, and a little to one ſide.

Longitudinal sinus. Longitudinal ſinus of the dura mater. A triangular canal, proceeding in the falciform proceſs of the the dura mater, immediately under the bones of the ſkull, from the criſta galli to the the tentorium, where it branches into the lateral ſinuſſes. The longitudinal ſinus has a number of trabeculæ or fibres croſſing it. Its uſe is to receive the blood from the veins of the pia mater, and convey it into the lateral ſinuſſes, to be carried through the internal jugulars to the heart.

Longus colli. This is a pretty conſiderable muſcle, ſituated cloſe to the anterior and lateral part of the vertebræ of the neck. Its outer edge is in part covered by the rectus internus major. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy within the thorax, from the bodies of the three ſuperior vertebræ of the back, laterally; from the bottom and fore part of the tranſverſe proceſſes of the firſt and ſecond vertebræ of the back, and of the laſt vertebra of the neck: and likewiſe from the upper and anterior points of the tranſverſe proceſſes of the ſixth, fifth, fourth, and third vertebræ of the neck, by as many ſmall diſtinct tendons; and is inſerted tendinous into the fore part of the ſecond vertebra of the neck, near its fellow. This muſcle, when it acts ſingly, moves the neck to one ſide; but, when both

act, the neck is brought directly forwards.

Lonicēra diervilla. The ſyſtematic name of a ſpecies of honey ſuckle. See *Diervilla*.

Lonicēra periclimĕnum. Honeyſuckle. This beautiful and common plant was formerly uſed in the cure of aſthma, for cleanſing ſordid ulcers, and removing diſeaſes of the ſkin, virtues it does not now appear to poſſeſs.

Lopez radix. *Radix lopeziana. Radix indica lopeziana.* The root of of an unknown tree, growing, according to ſome, at Goa. It is met with in pieces of different thickneſs, ſome at leaſt of two inches diameter. The woody part is whitiſh, and very light; ſofter, more ſpongy, and whiter next the bark, including a denſer, ſomewhat reddiſh, medullary part. The bark is rough, wrinkled, brown, ſoft, and, as it were, woolly, pretty thick, covered with a thin paler cuticle. Neither the woody nor cortical part has any remarkable ſmell or taſte, nor any appearance of reſinous matter. It appears that this medicine has been remarkably effectual in ſtopping colliquative diarrhœas which had reſiſted the uſual remedies. Thoſe attending the laſt ſtage of conſumptions were particularly relieved by its uſe. It ſeemed to act, not by an aſtringent power, but by a faculty of reſtraining and appeaſing ſpaſmodic and inordinate motions of the inteſtines. Dr. Gaubius, who gives this account, compares its action to that of ſimarouba, but thinks it more efficacious than this medicine.

Lopez root. See *Lopez radix.*

Lopeziana radix. See *Lopez radix.*

Love apple. The fruit of the *Solanum lycoperſicum* of Linnæus. It is ſo much eſteemed by the Portugueſe and the Spaniards, that it is an ingredient in almoſt all their ſoups and ſauces, and is deemed cooling and nutritive.

Lovage. See *Leviſticum.*

Lues venerĕa, (*Lues, is*, f. from λυω, to diſſolve, becauſe it produces diſſolution). The venereal diſeaſe. See *Syphilis* and *Gonorrhœa.*

Lujŭla, (*Lujula, æ*, f. corrupted or contracted from *allelujah, praiſe the Lord*; ſo called from its many virtues). *Acetoſella.* Wood-ſorrel. *Oxalis acetoſella* of Linnæus. This delicate indigenous plant is totally inodorous, but has a grateful acid taſte, which is more agreeable than the common ſorrel, and approaches nearly to that of the juice of lemons, or the acid of tartar, with which it alſo correſponds in a great meaſure in its medical effects, being eſteemed refrigerant, antiſcorbutic, and diuretic. Its principal uſe, however, is to allay inordinate heat, and to quench thirſt; for this purpoſe a pleaſant whey may be formed by boiling the plant in milk. An eſſential ſalt is prepared from this plant, known by the name of Eſſential Salt of Lemons, and commonly uſed for taking ink-ſtains out of linen.

Lumbāgo, (*Lumbago, ĭnis*, f. from *lumbus*, the loin). A rheumatic affection of the muſcles about the loins.

Lumbāris externus. See *Quadratus lumborum.*

Lumbāris internus. See *Pſoas magnus.*

Lumbricāles manus, (*Lumbricales*, ſc. *muſculus*, from their reſemblance to the *lumbricus*, or earthworm). *Fidicinales.* The four ſmall fingers of the flexors of the fingers which aſſiſt the bending of the fingers when the long flexors are in full action. They ariſe thin and fleſhy from the outſide of the tendons of the flexor profundus, a little above the lower edge of the carpal ligaments, and are inſerted by long ſlender ten-

dons into the outer ſides of the broad tendons of the interoſſeal muſcles about the middle of the firſt joint of the fingers.

LUMBRICĀLES PEDIS. Four muſcles like the former, that increaſe the flexion of the toes, and draw them inwards.

LUMBRĪCUS, (*Lumbricus, i,* m. *à lubricitate,* from its ſlipperineſs). *Aſcaris lumbricoides. Lumbricus teres.* A ſpecies of worm which inhabits occaſionally the human inteſtines. It has three nipples at its head, and a triangular mouth in its middle. Its length is from four to twelve inches, and its thickneſs, when twelve inches long, about that of a gooſe-quill. They are ſometimes ſolitary, at other times very numerous.

LUMBRĪCUS TERRESTRIS. See *Earth worm.*

LUMBUS VENĔRIS. See *Millefolium.*

LUNA, (*Luna, æ,* f. ſo named from its reſemblance in brightneſs to ſilver). The old alchemiſtical name of ſilver. See *Silver.*

LUNAR CAUSTIC. See *Argentum nitratum.*

LUNGS, (*Pulmo, nis,* m.). Two viſcera ſituated in the cavities of the cheſt, by means of which we breathe. The lung in the right cavity of the cheſt is divided into three lobes, that in the left cavity into two. They hang in the cheſt, attached at their ſuperior part to the neck, by means of the trachea, and are ſeparated by the mediaſtinum. They are alſo attached to the heart by means of the pulmonary veſſels. The ſubſtance of the lungs is of four kinds, viz. veſicular, vaſcular, bronchial, and a parenchymatous ſubſtance. The veſicular ſubſtance is compoſed of the air-cells. The vaſcular inveſts thoſe cells like a net-work. The bronchial is throughout the lungs, having the air-cells at their extremities: and the ſpongy ſubſtance that connects the ſpaces between theſe parts is termed the *parenchyma.* The lungs are covered with a fine membrane, a reflexion of the pleura, called *pleura pulmonalis.* The internal ſurface of the air-cells is covered with a very fine, delicate, and ſenſible membrane, which is continued from the larynx through the trachea and bronchia. The arteries of the lungs are the pulmonary, which circulate the blood through the air-cells to undergo a certain change, and the bronchial artery, a branch of the aorta, which carries blood to the lungs for their nouriſhment. The pulmonary veins return the blood that has undergone this change, by four trunks, into the left auricle of the heart. The bronchial veins terminate in the vena azygos. The nerves of the lungs are from the eighth pair and great intercoſtal. The abſorbents are of two orders; the ſuperficial and deep-ſeated: the former are more readily detected than the latter. The glands of theſe viſcera are called bronchial. They are muciparous, and ſituated about the bronchia.

LUNGWORT, SPOTTED. See *Pulmonaria maculata.*

LUPĬA, (*Lupia, æ,* f. λυπια: from λυπεω, to moleſt). A genus of diſeaſe, including encyſted humours, whoſe contents are very thick, and ſometimes ſolid, as *meliceris, atheroma, ſteatoma,* and *ganglion.*

LUPĪNUS, (*Lupinus, i,* m. from λυπη, grief, or diſlike; ſo called from its extreme bitterneſs). Under this term the white lupin is directed in ſome pharmacopœias. The ſeed, the ordinary food of mankind in the days of Galen and Pliny, is now forgotten. Its farinaceous and bitter meal is occaſionally exhibited to remove worms from the inteſtines, and made into poultices to reſolve indolent tumours.

LUPĪNUS ALBUS. The ſyſtematic name of the white lupin. See *Lupinus.*

LUPŬLUS, (*Lupulus, i,* m. from λυπη, diſlike, ſo named from its bitterneſs). The hop. It is the floral leaf or bractea of this plant, *Humulus lupulus* of Linnæus, that is dried and uſed in various kinds of ſtrong beer. Hops have a bitter taſte, leſs ungrateful than moſt of the other ſtrong bitters, accompanied with ſome degree of warmth and aromatic bitter, and are highly intoxicating. The hop flower alſo exhales a conſiderable quantity of its narcotic power in drying, hence thoſe who ſleep in the hop-houſes are with difficulty rouſed from their ſlumber. A pillar ſtuffed with theſe flowers was ſaid to have laid our preſent monarch aſleep when other remedies had failed.

LUTĔA CORPŎRA. See *Corpora lutea.*

LYCOPERDON, (*Lycoperdon, i,* n. λυκοπερδον; from λυκος, a wolf, and πεςδω, to break wind; ſo named becauſe it was ſuppoſed to ſpring from the dung of wolves). *Crepitus lupi.* The puff-ball. A round or egg-ſhaped fungus, the *Lycoperdon boviſta* of Linnæus, when freſh, of a white colour, with a very ſhort or ſcarcely any pedicle, growing in dry paſture grounds. When young it is ſometimes covered with tubercles on the outſide, and is pulpy within. By age it becomes ſmooth externally, and dries internally into a very fine, light, browniſh duſt, which is uſed by the common people to ſtop hemorrhages.

LYCOPERDON BOVISTA. The ſyſtematic name of the puff-ball. See *Lycoperdon.*

LYCOPERDON TUBER. The ſyſtematic name of the truffle. See *Truffle.*

LYCOPODĬUM, (*Lycopodium, i,* n. λυκοποδιον; from λυκος, a wolf, and πες, a foot, ſo called from its ſuppoſed reſemblance). *Muſcus clavatus.* Club moſs. Wolf's claw. This plant, *Lycopodium clavatum* of Linnæus, affords a great quantity of pollen, which is much eſteemed in ſome places to ſprinkle on young children, to prevent, and in the curing parts which are fretting. A decoction of the herb is ſaid to be a ſpecific in the cure of the plica polonica.

LYCŎPODĬUM CLAVĀTUM. The ſyſtematic name of the club moſs. See *Lycopodium.*

LYCOPODĬUM SELAGO. The ſyſtematic name of the upright club-moſs. See *Muſcus erectus.*

LYMPH. *Lympha.* The liquid contained in the lymphatic veſſels. It has a fatuous ſmell, no taſte, and is of a cryſtalline colour. Its ſpecific gravity is greater than water; in conſiſtence it is thin and ſomewhat plaſtic. The quantity appears to be very great, as the ſyſtem of the lymphatic veſſels forms no ſmall part of the human body. Its conſtituent principles appear to be gelatinous albuminous water. The lymphatic veſſels abſorb this water from the tela celluloſa of the whole body, from all the viſcera and the cavities of the viſcera; and convey it to the thoracic duct, where it is mixed with the chyle.

The uſe of the lymph is to return the ſuperfluous nutritious jelly from every part, and to mix it with the chyle in the thoracic duct, there to be further converted into the nature of the animal; and laſtly, it has mixed with it the ſuperfluous aqueous vapour, which is expired into the cavity of the cranium, thorax, and abdomen.

LYMPHATIC GLANDS. (*Glandŭlæ lymphatĭcæ*). See *Conglobate glands.*

LYMPHATICS. Abſorbents that

carry a tranſparent fluid or lymph. They are ſmall tranſparent veſſels, which originate in every part of the body. With the lacteal veſſels of the inteſtines they form what is termed the *abſorbent ſyſtem*. Their termination is in the thoracic duct. See *Abſorbent veſſels*, *Lacteals*, and *Thoracic duct*.

Lymphatics of the head and neck. Abſorbents are found on the ſcalp and about the viſcera of the neck, which unite into a conſiderable *branch* that accompanies the jugular vein. Abſorbents have not been detected in the human brain: yet there can be no doubt of there being ſuch veſſels: it is probable that they paſs out of the cranium through the canalis caroticus and foramen lacerum in baſi cranii, on each ſide, and join the above *jugular branch*, which paſſes through ſome glands as it proceeds into the cheſt to the angle of the ſubclavian and jugular veins

Lymphatics of the upper extremities. The abſorbents of the upper extremities are divided into ſuperficial and deep-ſeated. The *ſuperficial abſorbents* aſcend under the ſkin in every direction to the wriſt, from whence a *branch* proceeds upon the poſterior ſurface of the fore-arm to the head of the radius, over the internal condyle of the humerus, up to the axilla, receiving ſeveral branches as it proceeds. Another *branch* proceeds from the wriſt along the anterior part of the fore-arm, and forms a *net-work* with a *branch* coming over the ulna from the poſterior part, and aſcends on the inſide of the humerus to the glands of the axilla. The *deep-ſeated abſorbents* accompany the larger blood-veſſels, and paſs through two glands about the middle of the humerus, and aſcend to the glands of the axilla. The ſuperficial and deep-ſeated abſorbents having paſſed through the axillary glands, form *two trunks*, which unite into *one*, to be inſerted with the jugular abſorbents into the thoracic duct, at the angle formed by the union of the ſubclavian with the jugular vein.

Lymphatics of the inferior extremities. Theſe are alſo ſuperficial and deep-ſeated. The *ſuperficial ones* lie between the ſkin and muſcles. Thoſe of the toes and foot form a *branch* which aſcends upon the back of the foot over the tendon of the cruræus anticus, forms with other branches *a plexus* above the ancles, then proceeds along the tibia over the knee, ſometimes paſſes through a gland, and proceeds up the inſide of the thigh to the ſubinguinal glands. The *deep-ſeated* abſorbents follow the courſe of the arteries, and accompany the femoral artery, in which courſe they paſs through ſome glands in the leg and above the knee, and then proceed to ſome deep-ſeated ſubinguinal glands. The abſorbents from about the external parts of the pubis, as the penis, perineum, and from the external parts of the pelvis, in general proceed to the inguinal glands. The ſubinguinal and inguinal glands ſend forth ſeveral branches, which paſs through the abdominal ring into the cavity of the abdomen.

Lymphatics of the abdominal and thoracic viſcera. The abſorbents of the lower extremities accompany the external iliac artery, where they are joined by many branches from the *uterus*, *urinary bladder*, *ſpermatic chord*, and ſome branches accompanying the internal iliac artery: they then aſcend to the ſacrum, where they form a *plexus*, which proceeds over the pſoas muſcles, and meeting with the lacteals of the meſentery form the thoracic duct, or trunk of the abſorbents, which is of a ſerpentine form, about the ſize of a crow-quill, and runs up the dorſal verte-

bræ, through the poſterior opening of the diaphragm, between the aorta and vena azygos, to the angle formed by the union of the ſubclavian and jugular veins. In this courſe it receives *the abſorbents of the kidneys*, which are ſuperficial and deep-ſeated, and unite as they proceed towards the thoracic duct. *The abſorbents of the ſpleen*, which are upon its peritoneal coat, and unite with thoſe of the pancreas. A *branch* from a plexus of veſſels paſſing above and below the duodenum, and formed by the abſorbents of the *ſtomach*, which come from the leſſer and greater curvature, and are united about the pylorus with thoſe of the pancreas and liver, which converge from the external ſurface and internal parts towards the portæ of the liver, and alſo by ſeveral branches from the *gall-bladder*.

Uſe of Lymphatics. The office of theſe veſſels is to take up ſubſtances which are applied to the mouths; thus the vapour of circumſcribed cavities, and of the cells of the cellular membrane are removed by the lymphatics of thoſe parts; and thus mercury and other ſubſtances are taken into the ſyſtem when rubbed on the ſkin.

The principle by which this abſorption takes place is a power inherent in the mouths of abſorbing veſſels, a vis inſita, dependent on the high degeee of irritability of their internal membrane by which the veſſels contract and propel the fluid forwards. Hence the uſe of this function appears to be of the utmoſt importance, viz. to ſupply the blood with chyle; to remove the ſuperfluous vapour of circumſcribed cavities, otherwiſe dropſies, as hydrocephalus, hydrothorax, hydrocordis, aſcites, hydrocele, &c. would conſtantly be taking place: to remove the ſuperfluous vapour from the cells of the cellular membrane diſperſed throughout every part of the body, that anaſarca may not take place: to remove the hard and ſoft parts of the body, and to convey into the ſyſtem medicines which are applied to the ſurface of the body.

Lypōma, (*Lypoma, ătis*, n.) See *Lipoma*.

Lyra, (*Lyra, æ*, f. from λυρα, a lyre, or muſical inſtrument). *Pſalterium*. The triangular medullary ſpace between the poſterior crura of the fornix of the cerebrum, which is marked with prominent medullary fibres that give the appearance of a lyre.

Lysimachĭa nummularĭa. The ſyſtematic name of the money-wort. See *Nummularia*.

Lysimachĭa purpurĕa, (*Lyſimachia, æ*, f. from *Lyſimachus*, who firſt diſcovered it). The herb, root, and flowers of this plant, *Lythrum ſalicaria* of Linnæus, poſſeſs a conſiderable degree of aſtringency, and are uſed medicinally in the cure of diarrhæas and dyſenteries, fluor albus, and hymoptyſis.

Lythrum salicārĭa, (*Lithrum, i*, n. from λυθρον, blood, ſo called from its reſemblance in color, and *Salicaria*, from *ſalix*, a willow, from the reſemblance of its leaves to thoſe of the willow). The ſyſtematic name of the common or purple willow herb. See *Lyſimachia purpurea*.

M.

M. THIS letter has two ſignifications: when herbs, flowers, chips, or ſuch-like ſubſtances are ordered, in a preſcription, and M. follows them, it ſignifies *manipulus*, a handful; and when any quantity of other ingredients is directed, it is a contraction of *miſce*; thus *m. f. miſt.* ſignifies, mix and make a mixture.

MACEDONIAN PARSLEY. See *Petroſelinum macedonicum.*

MACER, (μακερ; from *maſa*, Heb.) Grecian macer. The root which is imported from Barbary by this name, is ſuppoſed to be the ſimarouba.

MACERATION, (*Maceratio, onis*, f. from *macero*, to ſoften by water). In a pharmaceutical ſenſe this term implies an infuſion either with or without heat, wherein the ingredients are intended to be almoſt wholly diſſolved in order to extract their virtues.

MACĬES, (*Macies, ei*, f.). A waſting of the body. See *Atrophy* and *Tabes.*

MACIS, (*Macis, ĭdis*, f.) Mace. A thick, tough, reticulated, unctuous membrane, of a lively, reddiſh, yellow colour, approaching to that of ſaffron, which envelopes the ſhell of the nutmeg. See *nux moſchata.* The mace, when freſh, is of a blood-red color, and acquires its yellow hue in drying. It is dried in the ſun upon hurdles fixed above one another, and then, it is ſaid, ſprinkled with ſea water, to prevent its crumbling in carrying. It has a pleaſant aromatic ſmell, and a warm, bitteriſh, moderately pungent taſte. It is in common uſe as a grateful ſpice, and appears to be in its general qualities nearly ſimilar to the nutmeg. The principal difference conſiſts in the mace being much warmer, more bitter, leſs unctuous, and ſitting eaſier on weak ſtomachs.

MACROPIPER, (*Macropiper, eris*, n. μακροπιπερ; from μακρος, long, and πιπερις, pepper.) See *Piper longum.*

MACŬLA, (*Macula, æ*, f.). A permanent diſcolouration of ſome portion of the ſkin, often with a change of its texture, but not connected with any diſorder of the conſtitution.

MACŬLA VENERĔA. The venereal eruption.

MAD-APPLE. The oblong egg-ſhaped fruit of the *Solanum melongena* of Linnæus. They are often boiled in their native places in ſoups and ſauces, the ſame as the love-apple, are accounted very nutritive, and are much ſought after by the votaries of Venus.

MADARŌSIS, (*Madaroſis, is*, f. μαδαρωσις, from μαδος, bald, without

hair). A defect or loss of eyebrows, or eyelashes, causing a disagreeable deformity, and painful sensation of the eyes, in a strong light.

MADDER. See *Rubia*.

MADNESS. See *Melancholia*, *Insania*, and *Mania*.

MADOR, (*Mador*, *oris*, m.) A sweating. See *Ephidrosis*.

MAGELLANICANUS CORTEX. See *Winteranus cortex*.

MAGISTERY, (*Magisterium*, *i*, n. from *magister*, a master). The ancient chemists used this word to signify a peculiar and secret method of preparing any medicine as it were by a masterly process. A subtle preparation, as a precipitate or solution by menstruum.

MAGISTRANTIA, (*Magistrantia*, *æ*, f. from *magistro*, to rule, so called by way of eminence as exceeding all others in virtues). See *Imperatoria*.

MAGNES, (*Magnes*, *etis*, m. from *Magnes*, its inventor). The magnet or load stone. A muddy iron ore, in which the iron is modified in such a manner as to afford a passage to a fluid called the magnetic fluid. The magnet exhibits certain phenomena; it is known by its property of attracting steel filings, and is found in Auvergne, in Biscay, in Spain, in Sweden, and Siberia.

MAGNESIA, (*Magnesia*, *æ*, f. from *magnes*, a loadstone). The substance which is thus called in the scientific chemical nomenclature is pure magnesian earth, and not the magnesia of the shops. It is given as an absorbent, antacid, and eccoprotic, in cardialgia, spasms, convulsions, and tormina of the bowels of infants; pyrosis, flatulencies, and other diseases of the primæ viæ; obstipation, leucorrhœa, rickets, scrofula, crusta lactea, and podagra. See *Magnesia alba*.

MAGNESIA ALBA, (*Magnesia*, *æ*, from *magnes*, a loadstone). The ancient alchemists gave this name to such substances as they conceived to have the power of attracting any principle from the air. Thus an earth, which from being exposed to the air, increased in weight, and yielded vitriol, they called *magnesia vitriolata*: and later chemists, observing in their process, that a nitrous acid was separated, and an earth left behind, supposing it had attracted the acid, called it *magnesia nitri*, which from its colour soon obtained the name of *magnesia alba*. The magnesia alba of the pharmacopœias is a carbonate of magnesia, and is usually obtained from Epsom salt. It is in form of very fine powder, considerably resembling flour in its appearance and feel; it has no sensible taste on the tongue; it gives a faint greenish colour to the tincture of violets, and converts turnsole to a blue. It is employed medicinally as an absorbent, antacid, and purgative.

MAGNESIA CALCINĀTA. See *Magnesia usta*.

MAGNESIA USTA. *Magnesia calcinata*. *Magnesia pura*. Burnt magnesia. This preparation is the pure magnesian earth, and therefore termed *magnesia* simply in the new chemical nomenclature. It is antacid and eccoprotic, and may be given with advantage in cardialgia, spasms, convulsions, and tormina of infants, flatulencies, and other disorders of the primæ viæ. It is likewise recommended in the cure of leucorrhœa, rickets, scrophula, crusta lactea, and podagra.

MAGNESIA VITRIOLĀTA. *Sal cathartic amarus*. *Sal Epsomensis*. This very common purging salt is obtained in great abundance from the Epsom water in Surrey. It is a sulphate of magnesia, and therefore called sulphas magnesiæ in the new

chemical nomenclature. It is moſtly given as a cathartic in ſuburra of the primæ viæ, conſtipation, &c. Its nauſeous ſtate is completely overcome by rubbing two or three bitter almonds to an ounce, and mixing them. Vitriolated magneſia is alſo employed to obtain magneſia.

MAGNETISM. The property which iron poſſeſſes of being attracted by the magnet.

MAGNUM OS. The third bone of the lower row of the bones of the carpus, reckoning from the thumb towards the little finger.

MAHAGONI. The ſyſtematic name of the tree whoſe wood bears this name, and is ſo well known, is the *Swietenia mahagoni* of Linnæus. Its bark, when dried, has an adſtringent bitter taſte, ſimilar to that of peruvian bark, but ſtronger, for which it appears it may be ſubſtituted in the cure of fevers and other diſeaſes.

MAIDENHAIR. See *Adianthum.*

MAIDENHAIR, CANADA. *Adianthum Canadenſe.* This is the *Adianthum pedatum* of Linnæus. It is in common uſe in France for the ſame purpoſes as the common adianthum is in the country, and appears to be far ſuperior to it.

MAIDENHAIR, ENGLISH. See *Adianthum.*

MAIDENHAIR-TREE. *Ginkgo. Ginan Itſio.* In China and Japan, where this tree grows, the fruit acquires the ſize of a damaſk plumb, and contains a kernel reſembling that of our apricot. Theſe kernels always make part of the deſert at all public feaſts and entertainments. They are ſaid to promote digeſtion, and to cleanſe the ſtomach and bowels.

MAJANTHEMUM. See *Lilium convallium.*

MAJORĀNA, (*Majorana, æ*, f. corrupted from *majorano, quod menſe Maia floreat*, becauſe it flowers in May). Sweet marjoram. *Origanum majorana* of Linnæus. *Origanum foliis ovatis obtuſis, ſpicis ſubrotundis compactis pubeſcentibus.* Claſs *Didynamia.* Order *Gymnoſpermia.* This plant has been long cultivated in our gardens, and is in frequent uſe for culinary purpoſes. The leaves and tops have a pleaſant ſmell, and a moderately warm, aromatic, bitteriſh taſte. The medicinal qualities of the plant are ſimilar to thoſe of the wild plant (ſee *Origanum*); but being much more fragrant, it is thought to be more cephalic. It is directed in the *pulvis ſternutatorius* by both Pharmacopeias, with a view to the agreeable odour which it diffuſes to the aſarabacca, rather than to its errhine power, which is very inconſiderable. In its recent ſtate it is ſaid to have been ſucceſsfully applied to ſchirrous tumours of the breaſt.

MAJORĀNA SYRIACA. See *Marum ſyriacum.*

MALABAR PLUM. This fruit which is the produce of the *Eugenia jambos*, ſmells, when ripe, like roſes. On the coaſt of Malabar, where the trees grow plentifully, theſe plums are in great eſteem. They are not only eaten freſh off the trees, but are preſerved in ſugar, in order to have them eatable all the year. Of the flowers a conſerve is prepared, which is uſed medicinally as a mild adſtringent.

MALABATHRUM, (*Malabathrum, i*, n. μαλαβαθρον; from *Malabar*, in India, whence it was brought, and *betre*, a leaf, Ind.). The leaf of the tree whoſe bark is called caſſia. See *Caſſia lignea.*

MALACA BEAN. See *Anacardium orientale.*

MALACHITE, (*Malachites*, from μαλαχη, the mallow, from its reſemblance in colour to the mallow). A ſpecies of copper ore found in Siberia.

MALACOSTĔON, (*Malacoſteon, i*, n. μαλακοστεον; from μαλακος, ſoft, and οστεον, a bone. See *Molities oſſium.*

MALÆ OS, (*Mala, æ*, f. from *malus*, ſo called from its roundneſs). The cheek bone. See *Jugale os.*

MALATS, (*Malas, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the malic acid, or acid of apples, with different baſes; thus *malat of copper*, *malat of lead*, &c.

MALE FERN. See *Filix.*

MALE ORCHIS. See *Satyrion.*

MALE SPEEDWELL. See *Veronica.*

MALIC ACĬD. *Acĭdum malĭcum.* This acid is obtained by ſaturating the juice of apples with alkali, and pouring in the acetous ſolution of lead, until it occaſions no more precipitate. The precipitate is then to be edulcorated, and ſulphuric acid poured on it, until the liquor has acquired a freſh acid taſte, without any mixture of ſweetneſs. The whole is then to be filtered, to ſeparate the ſulphate of lead. The filtered liquor is the malic acid, which is very pure, remains always in a fluid ſtate, and cannot be rendered concrete. The union of this acid with different baſes conſtitutes what are called malats.

MALIGNANT. (*Malignus*). A term which may be applied to any diſeaſe whoſe ſymptoms are ſo aggravated as to threaten the deſtruction of the patient. It is frequently uſed to ſignify a dangerous epidemic.

MALIS, (*Malis, is*, f.). A diſeaſe of the ſkin produced by an inſect lodging underneath. It is very common in Perſia, where the diſeaſe is produced by the worm called *Gordius medinenſis*, or *Dracunculis perſicus*; in America, by the *Pulex*; and it is ſometimes produced in Europe by the *Pediculus.*

MALLEABILITY, (*Malleabilitas*, from *malleus*, a hammer). The property which ſeveral metals poſſeſs of being extended under the hammer into thin plates, without cracking.

MALLĔI ANTERĬOR. See *Laxator tympani.*

MALLĔI EXTERNUS. See *Laxator tympani.*

MALLĔI INTERNUS. See *Tenſor tympani.*

MALLEŎLUS, (*Malleolus, i*, m. dim. of *malleus*, a mallet; ſo called from its ſuppoſed reſemblance to a mallet). The ankle, diſtinguiſhed into external and internal, or *malleolus externus* and *internus.*

MALLĔUS, (*Malleus, i*, m. *quaſi molleus*, from *mollio*, to ſoften; ſo called from its likeneſs to a little hammer). A bone of the internal ear is ſo termed. It is diſtinguiſhed into a head, neck, and manubrium. The *head* is round, and encruſted with a thin cartilage, and annexed to another bone of the ear, the incus, by ginglymus. Its *neck* is narrow, and ſituated between the head and manubrium or handle; from which a long ſlender proceſs ariſes, adheres to a furrow in the auditory canal, and is continued as far as the fiſſure in the articular cavity of the temporal bone. The *manubrium* is terminated by an enlarged extremity, and connected to the membrana tympani by a ſhort conoid proceſs.

MALLOW, COMMON. See *Malva.*

MALLOW, ROUND-LEAVED. See *Malva rotundifolia.*

MALLOW, VERVAIN. See *Malva alcea.*

MALPHIGĬA GLABRA. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords an eſculent cherry. See *Barbadoes cherry.*

MALUM MORTUŪM. A diſeaſe that appears in the form of a puſtule, which ſoon forms a dry, brown, hard, and broad cruſt. It is ſeldom attended with pain, and remains fixed for a long time before it can be detach-

ed. It is moſtly obſerved on the tibia and os coccygis, and ſometimes on the face.

Malva, (*Malva, æ*, f. *quaſi molva*, from *mollis*, ſoft; named from the ſoftneſs of its leaves). *Malva vulgaris*. Common mallow. *Malva ſylveſtris* of Linnæus. *Malva caule erecto herbaceo, foliis ſeptemlobatis acutis, pedunculis petioliſque piloſis*. Claſs *Monadelphia*. Order *Polyandria*. This indigenous plant has a ſtrong affinity to the althæa, both in a botanical and a medical reſpect. See *Althæa*. It is principally uſed in fomentations, cataplaſms, and emollient enemas.

Malva alcea. The vervain mallow. The flowers of this plant are uſed medicinally in ſome countries.

Malva arborĕa. The mallow tree. This beautiful tree is the *alcea roſacea* of Linnæus. The flowers are ſaid to poſſeſs adſtringent and mucilaginous virtues. They are ſeldom uſed medicinally.

Malva rotundĭfolĭa. Round-leaved mallow. The whole herb and root poſſeſs ſimilar virtues to, and may be ſubſtituted for the common mallow. See *Malva*.

Malva sylvestris. The ſyſtematic name of the common mallow. See *Malva*.

Malva vulgāris. See *Malva*.

Malvern water. This mineral water is claſſed amongſt the ſimple cold waters. Its contents, as well as that of Holywell in the county of Flint, are ſome carbonic acid, a very ſmall portion of earth, either lime or magneſia, united with the carbonic and marine acids; perhaps a little neutral alkaline ſalt, and a very large proportion of water. Malvern water is principally employed *externally* in ſcrofulous inflammations of the eyes, and all cutaneous eruptions; *internally* it is preſcribed in painful affections of the kidneys and bladder, attended with bloody, purulent, or fetid urine, irritating ſores of the ſurface, and fiſtulas of long ſtanding.

Mamillæ, (*Mamilla, æ*, f. dim. *mamma*, the breaſt). The breaſts of men are ſo termed. It is likewiſe applied ſometimes to the nipple.

Mamma, (*Mamma, æ*, f.). See *Breaſt*.

Mammary arteries. *Arteriæ mammillares*. The internal mammary artery is a branch of the ſubclavian, and gives off the mediaſtinal, thymal, and pericardiac arteries. The external mammary is a branch of the axillary artery.

Mammary veins. *Venæ mammillares*. Theſe veſſels accompany the arteries, and evacuate their blood into the ſubclavian vein.

Mammea americāna. The ſyſtematic name of the tree on which the mammee fruit grows. See *Mammee*.

Mammee. A delicious fruit, the produce of the *Mammea Americana* of Linnæus. They have a very grateful flavour when ripe, and are much cultivated in Jamaica, where they are generally ſold in the markets for one of the beſt fruits of the iſland.

Man. Man is compounded of ſolids, fluids, a vital principle, and, what diſtinguiſhes him from every other animal, a ſoul.

The ſolids are divided into hard and ſoft, which analyſis demonſtrates to be formed of earthy particles, connected together by an intermediate gluten. The hard parts are the bones and cartilages. The ſoft parts, muſcles, nerves, the viſcera, and every other part except the fluids. The fluids are very various. See *Fluids*. Anatomy demonſtrates the ſtructure of the various parts of which the human body conſiſts, theſe the reader will find under their reſpective heads, as muſcles, bones, cartilages, &c. and of late great progreſs has been made towards aſcertaining, by chemi-

cal criteria, its principles and elements. The conſtituent principles of man are, 1. *The water*, which conſtitutes the greateſt part of the humours, and is the vehicle of the other principles. 2. *The Animal gas*, which conſiſts of carbonated hydrogene, and is found not only in the blood, but in all the other fluids. 3. *The Inflammable gas*, emitted from the large inteſtines, *in flatu*. 4. *The Animal gluten*, which conſiſts of carbone, and azote, and forms the fibres of the ſolid parts; the caſeous portion of the milk; and the cruor of the blood. 5. *The Albumen*, preſent in the ſerum of the blood. 6. *The Jelly*, found in the ſerum of the blood; lymph of the lymphatic veſſels, and other fluids; and the interſtices of all the fibres. 7. *The Cruor*, which is the animal gluten impregnated with oxydated iron. 8. *The Mucus*, which lubricates the primæ viæ; the aerial ſurfaces of the lungs; the parts of generation, and the urinary paſſages. 9. *The Animal oil*, which fills the cells of the adipoſe membrane. 10. *The Reſin*, found in the bile. 11. *The Sebacic acid*, which is preſent in animal oil. 12. *The Phoſphoric acid*, which enters into the compoſition of the animal earth of the bones, and the phoſphorated ſalts of the urine. 13. *The Lactic acid*, in the ſugar of the ſerum of the milk. 14. *The Sugar*, latent in the ſerum of the milk. 15. *The Animal earth*, which is a phoſphorated calx, and not only forms the greateſt part of the bones, but alſo is found in the fibres of the ſoft parts, and in all the fluids. 16. *Phoſphorated volatile alkali*, and 17. *Phoſphorated ſoda*, both of which are detected in the urine. 18. *Culinary ſalt*, obtained from the urine, gaſtric juice, ſemen, and other humours.

The Elementary Principles of our body hitherto known, are, 1. *Azot*, an element which combined with hydrogene conſtitutes volatile alkali; with the matter of heat, azotic air; with carbon, the gluten of animal fibres. *Azot* is the primary element of the animal body, for it may be extracted from almoſt every part of the animal, by means of the nitrous acid, this having a greater affinity with the elements than the azot itſelf. The mucus, jelly, membranes, tendons, ligaments, and cartilages, afford it in a leſs degree by means of the nitrous acid. The lymph, ſerum of the blood, the water of hydropic patients, the liquor amnii, and cheeſe, give out more. The greateſt quantity of azot is obtained from the coagulable lymph of the blood, and from muſcle. The fleſh of young animals contain leſs than that of old; and it is in greater quantity in ſarcophagous, than in the fleſh of phytophagous animals and fiſh. It is not probable that the azot is produced by the decompoſition of the nitre; for after having performed the ſeparation, it is capable of ſaturating the ſame quantity of ſalt of tartar as before. 2. *The matter of heat*, which enters into the compoſition of both ſolids and fluids, and which, in a ſeparate form, conſtitutes the animal heat. 3. *The matter of light*, which in its free ſtate produces viſion, and, when compounded, enters as an element into the compoſition of oil and all other inflammable parts. The eyes of animals, which ſhine in the night time, owe this property to the matter of light. 4. *The electric matter*, which enters into all bodies, and affords the phenomena of animal electricity. 5. *Oxygen*, which, in combination with the matter of heat, conſtitutes vital air; with hydrogen, forms water; with acefcent baſes, the acid ſalts of our fluids. 6. *Hydrogen*, which, combined with oxygen, forms water; with azote, volatile alkali; with the matter of heat, inflammable air, which is emitted from

the large inteſtines; and with carbon, animal gas: and laſtly, combined with carbon and the ſebacic acid, conſtitutes the oil of the adipoſe membrane. 7. *Carbon*, which, in combination with hydrogen and the ſebacic acid, conſtitutes the oil of the adipoſe membrane; with hydrogen alone, animal gaz; with azot, animal gluten. 8. *Sulphur*, which, combined with inflammable air, conſtitutes the hepatic air, that exhales from muſcular fibres, hair, incubated eggs, animal gluten, and, according to Lavoiſier, human excrement. 9. *Phoſphorus*, which, with oxygen, forms the phoſphoric acid; and, with inflammable air, phoſphoric air. The lucid ſweat of ſome men, the phoſphoreſcence or light given out by the putrifying bodies of ſome animals, and the phoſphorus obtained from cheeſe and human bones, ſufficiently ſhew that phoſphorus conſtitutes an element of our body. 10. *Soda*, or the fixed mineral alkali. 11. *Potaſh*, or the fixed vegetable alkali. Each of theſe is found in ſeveral of the fluids of the human body. 12. *An Earthy element*. Of the earths, no kind is ſo frequently detected as the *calcareous*, which is found in the bones and other parts. 13. *A metallic element*. Of ſo great a number of metals, iron and manganeſe alone are found in an organized body, whether animal or vegetable. Iron is in greater quantity in the fleſh than in the bones; but in the greateſt proportion in the cruor or red part of the blood. 14. *An odorous principle*, perceptible in all the animal fluids; but of a peculiar kind in the human urine and excrements. 15. *The nervous fluid*, contained in the nerves, and which appears to be an element *ſui generis*, diſtinct from all known fluids, and not to be collected by art. 16. *The vital principle*. In all ſolid and fluid parts of a living body there exiſts an element, with properties peculiar to itſelf, which conſtitutes life; hence it is juſtly called vital. This principle induces a mode of union in the other elements, widely differing from that which ariſes from the common laws of chemical affinity. By the aid of this principle nature produces the animal fluids, as blood, bile, ſemen, and the reſt, which can never be produced by the art of chemiſtry. But if, in conſequence of death, the laws of vital attraction or affinity ceaſe to operate, then the elements, recovering their former properties, become again obedient to the common laws of chemical affinity, and enter into new combinations, from which new principles, or the production of putrefaction, are produced. Thus the hydrogen, combining itſelf with the azot, forms volatile alkali; and the carbonated hydrogen, with the azot, putrid air, into which the whole body is converted. It alſo appears from hence, why organized bodies alone, namely animal and vegetable, are ſubject to putridity; to which inorganic or mineral ſubſtances are in no degree liable, the latter not being compounded according to the laws of vital affinity, but only according to thoſe of chemical affinity. For the fatiſcenſe or reſolution of the pyrites or ferrum ſulphuratum in the atmoſpheric air, is not putrefaction, but only the oxygen, furniſhed by the air, combining with the ſulphur, and forming ſulphuric acid. Fire, as well as putridity, ſeparates the conſtituent principles of animal bodies into their elements; but theſe, by a peculiar law, under the action of fire again combine in a different manner, and form peculiar conſtituent principles, called the products of fire. Thus the hydrogen, combining with azot, is changed into volatile alkali; but with a large proportion of carbon, it forms empyreumatic oil. From what has hitherto been ſaid, it will alſo appear, that the true conſtituent

principles of an animal body cannot be detected, either by putrefaction or the action of fire; for by these means we only discover the elements of those principles. Thus, whenever volatile alkali is found to be generated, azot and hydrogen may be supposed to have been present in the natural state of the animal substance; and when empyreumatic oil is obtained, it may be concluded it is furnished by the hydrogen and carbon of the animal part.

MANDIBŬLA, (*Mandibula*, æ, f. from *mando*, to chew). The lower jaw. See *Maxilla inferior*.

MANDRAGŎRA, (*Mandragora*, æ, f. μανδραγορας, from μανδρα, a den, and αγειρω, to collect, because it grows about caves and dens of beasts; or from the German *man dragen*, bearing man). Mandrake. *Atropa mandragora* of Linnæus. The boiled root is employed in the form of poultice, to discuss indolent tumours.

MANDRAKE. See *Mandragora*.

MANGANESE, (*Manganesium*, i, n.). A gray dark-coloured mineral oxyd, which soils the fingers, and is employed in glass-houses in different proportions, either to colour or take away colour from glass. It ought to be considered as a peculiar semimetal, because its analysis has not yet been made, and it is found to possess properties common to no other metallic substance. As it contains vital air in very large quantity, it is chiefly employed in medicine to obtain that air for respiration in diseases of debility, &c. With this view, the manganese is first powdered, then dried over the fire in a pipkin, and then put into the iron crucible to be placed in the fire. A tube continued from the crucible is conveyed to an inverted tub filled with water. As the heat extricates the vital air from the manganese, it passes along the tube to the tub, and forces the water out by the opening through which the tube enters. This air will keep for ages if the tub be kept moist and air-tight. One pound of the mineral gives off twenty gallons of air.

MANGĬFERA INDĬCA. The systematic name of the mango tree. See *Mango*.

MANGO. The fruit of the *Mangifera indica* of Linnæus, which is cultivated all over Asia. When ripe, they are juicy, of a good flavour, and so fragrant as to perfume the air to a considerable distance. They are eaten either raw or preserved with sugar. Their taste is so luscious, that they soon pall the appetite. The unripe fruits are pickled in the milk of the cocoa nut that has stood until sour, with salt, capsicum, and garlick.

MANGOSTANA. See *Mangosteen*.

MANGOSTEEN. A fruit about the size of an orange, which grows in great abundance on the tree called *Garcinia Mangostana* by Linnæus, in Java and the Molucca islands. According to the concurring testimonies of all travellers, it is the most exquisitely flavoured, and the most salubrious of all fruits, it being such a delicious mixture of the tart and sweet. The flesh is juicy, white, almost transparent, and of a more delicate and agreeable flavour than the richest grape. It is eaten in almost every disorder, and the dried bark is used medicinally in dysenteries and tenesmus, and a strong decoction of it is much esteemed as a gargle in ulcerated sore throats.

MANGOSTEEN BARK. See *Mangosteen*.

MANĬA, (*Mania*, æ, f. μανια, from μαινομαι, to rage). Raving or furious madness. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses* and order *vesaniæ* of Cullen, characterized by a conception of false relations, and an erroneous judgment, arising from imaginary perceptions or recollections, exciting the passions, and producing unreasonable actions or emotions, with a hurry

of mind in purſuing a train of thought and in running from one train of thought to another; attended with incoherent and abſurd ſpeech, called raving, and violent impatience of either contradiction or reſtraint.

MANNA, (*Manna, æ*, f. μαννα, from *mana*, a gift, Syr. it being the food given by God to the children of Iſrael in the wilderneſs; or from *mahna*, what is it? an exclamation occaſioned by their wonder at its appearance). The condenſed juice of the flowering aſh, or, *Fraxinus ornus, foliis ovato-oblongis ſerratis petiolatis, floribus corollatis*. Hort. Kew. Claſs *Polygamia*. Order *Dioecia*; which is a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, particularly Sicily and Calabria. Many other trees and ſhrubs have likewiſe been obſerved to emit a ſweet juice, which concretes upon expoſure to the air, and may be conſidered of the manna kind, eſpecially the *Fraxinus rotundifolia* and *excelſior*. In Sicily theſe three ſpecies of fraxinus are regularly cultivated for the purpoſe of procuring manna, and with this view are planted on the declivity of a hill with an eaſtern aſpect. After ten years growth, the trees firſt begin to yield the manna, but they require to be much older before they afford it in any conſiderable quantity. Although the manna exudes ſpontaneouſly upon the trees, yet in order to obtain it more copiouſly, inciſions are made through the bark by means of a ſharp crooked inſtrument; and the ſeaſon thought to be moſt favourable for inſtituting this proceſs is a little before the dog-days commence, when the weather is dry and ſerene. Manna is generally diſtinguiſhed into different kinds, viz. the manna in tear, the canulated and flaky manna, and the common brown or fat manna. All theſe varieties ſeem rather to depend upon their reſpective purity, and the circumſtance in which they are obtained from the plant, than upon any eſſential difference of the drug. The beſt manna is in oblong pieces, or flakes, moderately dry, friable, very light, of a whitiſh or pale yellow colour, and in ſome degree tranſparent: the inferior kinds are moiſt, unctuous, and brown. Manna is well known as a gentle purgative, ſo mild in its operation, that it may be given with ſafety to children and pregnant women.

MANNA BRIGANTIACA. A ſpecies of manna brought from Brianconois in Dauphiny.

MANTILE. The name of a bandage.

MAPPLE, See *Saccharum canadenſe*.

MARANTA GALANGA. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal galangal. See *Galanga*.

MARASMUS, (*Maraſmus, i*, m. μαρασμος, from μοραινω, to grow lean). Emaciation. A waſting away of the fleſh.

MARANTA. Indian arrow root. A genus of the *Monogynia* order, belonging to the *Monandria* claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the eighth order, *Scitaminea*. The corolla is ringent and quinquefid, with two ſegments alternately patent. There are three ſpecies, the *Arundinacea*, *Galanga*, and *Comeſa*, all of them herbaceous, perennial exotics of the Indies, kept here in hot-houſes for curioſity; they have thick, knotty, creeping roots, crowned with long, broad, arundinaceous leaves, ending in points, and upright ſtalks half a yard high, terminated by bunches of monopetalous, ringent, five-parted flowers. They are propagated by parting the roots in ſpring, and planting them in pots of light rich earth, and then plunging them in the bark-bed. The root of the *Maranta Galanga* is uſed by the Indians to extract the virus communicated by their poiſoned arrows, from whence it has obtained its name of arrow root. The *Maranta Arun-*

dinacea, or ſtarch plant, riſes to two feet, has broad pointed leaves, ſmall white flowers, and one ſeed; it is cultivated in gardens and proviſion grounds in the Weſt-Indies; and the ſtarch is obtained from it by the following proceſs: The roots, when a year old, are dug up, well waſhed in water, and then beaten in a large deep wooden mortar, to a pulp; this is thrown into a large tub of clean water: the whole is then well ſtirred, and the fibrous part wrung out by the hands and thrown away. The milky liquor being paſſed through a hair ſieve, or coarſe cloth, is ſuffered to ſettle, and the clear water drained off. At the bottom of the veſſel is a white maſs, which is again mixed with clean water, and drained: laſtly, the maſs is dried on ſheets in the ſun, and is pure ſtarch. A decoction of the freſh roots makes an excellent ptiſan in acute diſeaſes. See *Arrow root*.

MARATHROPHYLLUM, (*Marathrophyllum, i*, n. μαραθροφυλλον, from μαραθον, fennel, and φυλλοι, a leaf; ſo named becauſe its leaves reſemble thoſe of the common fennel). See *Peucedanum*.

MARATHRUM, (*Marathrum, i*, n. μαραθρον, from μαραινω, to wither; ſo called becauſe its ſtalk and flowers wither in the autumn). See *Fœniculum*.

MARATHRUM SYLVESTRE. See *Peucedanum*.

MARBLE. Powdered marble, which is a carbonate of lime, is uſed in pneumatic medicine, to give out carbonic acid gaz.

MARCASITE. See *Biſmuth*.

MARCASSĪTA, (*Marcaſita, æ*, f. from *marcaſite*, Germ.). See *Biſmuth*.

MARCHANTĬA POLŸMORPHA. The ſyſtematic name of the liver-wort. See *Hepatica terreſtris*.

MARCŌRES, (*Marcor, ōris*, m. from *marceo*, to become lean). Univerſal emaciation. The firſt order in the claſs *cachexiæ* of Cullen's noſology.

MARESTAIL. See *Equiſetum*.

MARGARITA, (*Margarita, æ*, f: μαργαριτης, from *margalith*, Rab.). *Perla. Unio.* The pearl. A ſmal calcareous concretion, of a bright tranſparent whiteneſs, found on the inſide of the ſhell *Concha margaritifera* of Linnæus, or mother-of-pearl fiſh. Pearls were formerly exhibited as antacids.

MARGARITA. A tumour upon the eye reſembling a pearl.

MARIGOLD, MARSH. *Caltha paluſtris* of Linnæus. The flower-buds of this very common plant may be pickled as a good ſubſtitute for capers.

MARIGOLD, SINGLE. See *Calendula*.

MARINE SALT. *Sal commune. Sal culinaris. Sal fontium. Sal gemmæ. Sal marinus. Sal foſſile. Murias ſodæ*, New Ch. Nom. Common culinary ſalt. This ſalt is more abundant in nature than any other. It is found in prodigious maſſes in the internal parts of the earth, in Calabria, in Hungary, in Muſcovy, and more eſpecially Weilicſka, in Poland, near Mount Capax, where the mines are very large, and afford immenſe quantities of ſalt. It is alſo obtained by ſeveral artificial means from ſea-water. See *Murias ſodæ*.

MARJORAM, SWEET. See *Majorana*.

MARJORAM, WILD. See *Origanum*.

MARMALADE. The pulp of quinces, oranges, or any other fruit boiled into a conſiſtence with honey.

MARROW, (*Medulla, æ*, f.). The fat ſubſtance ſecreted by the ſmall arteries of its proper membrane, and contained in the medullary cavities of the long cylindrical bones. Its uſe is not known.

MARROW, SPINAL. See *Medulla ſpinalis*.

MARRŪBĬUM, (*Marrubium, i*, n. from *mar rob*, a bitter juice, Heb.). *Marrubium album*. Common white horehound. *Marrubium vulgare, dentibus calcynis ſetaceis uncinatis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnoſpermia*. The leaves of this indigenous plant have a moderately ſtrong ſmell of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable, which by drying is improved, and in keeping for ſome months is in great part diſſipated; their taſte is very bitter, penetrating, diffuſive, and durable in the mouth. That horehound poſſeſſes ſome ſhare of medicinal power may be inferred from its ſenſible qualities, but its virtues do not appear to be clearly aſcertained. It is a favorite remedy with the common people in coughs and aſthmas.

MARRUBĬUM ALBUM. See *Marrubium*.

MARRUBĬUM VULGĀRIE. The ſyſtematic name of the common horehound. See *Marrubium*.

MARS, (*Mars, tis*, m.) The alchemiſts gave this name to iron.

MARSEILLES HART WORT. See *Seſeli maſſilienſe*.

MARSHMALLOW. See *Althea*.

MARSHTREFOIL. See *Trefolium paludoſum*.

MARSUPIALIS, (*Marſupialis*, ſc. *muſculus*; from *marſupium*, a purſe, ſo named from its reſemblance). See *Obturator internus*.

MARTAGON LILY. *Lilium martagon* of Linnæus, who informs us the root makes part of the daily food of the Siberians.

MARUM SŸRIĂCUM, (*Marum, i*, n. μαρον; from *mar*, bitter, Heb.) *Majorana ſyriaca*. *Marum verum*. Marum germander, or Syrian herb maſtich. This ſhrub is the *Teucrium marum* of Linnæus, *Teucrium foliis integerrimis ovatis acutis petiolatis, ſubtus tomentoſis, floribus racemoſis ſecundis*. Claſs *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnoſpermia*. It grows plentifully in Greece, Ægypt, Crete, and Syria. The leaves and younger branches when recent, on being rubbed betwixt the fingers, emit a volatile aromatic ſmell, which readily excites ſneezing; to the taſte they are bitteriſh, accompanied with a ſenſation of heat and acrimony. Judging from theſe ſenſible qualities of the plant, it may be ſuppoſed to poſſeſs very active powers. It is recommended as a ſtimulant, aromatic, and deobſtruent; and Linnæus, Roſenſtein, and Bergius ſpeak highly of its utility. At preſent, however, marum is chiefly uſed as an errhine, and is an ingredient in the *pulvis aſari compoſitus* of the London Pharmacopœia.

MARUM VERUM. See *Marum ſyriacum*.

MARUM VULGĀRE. Common herb maſtich. *Thymus maſtichina* of Linnæus. A low ſhrubby plant, a native of Spain, which is employed as an errhine. It has a ſtrong agreeable ſmell like maſtich.

MASLACH. A medicine of the opiate kind, in uſe amongſt the Turks.

MASSA, (*Maſſa, æ*, f. μαζα; from μασσω, to blend together). A term generally applied to the compound out of which pills are to be formed.

MASSA CARNĔA JACOBI SYLVII. See *Flexor longus digitorum pedis*.

MASSĒTER, (*Maſſeter, eris*, m. μασσητης; from μασσαομαι, to chew, becauſe it aſſiſts in chewing). A muſcle of the lower jaw, ſituated on the ſide of the face. It is a ſhort thick muſcle, which ariſes, by fleſhy and tendinous fibres, from the lower edge of the malar proceſs of the maxillary bone, the lower horizontal edge of the os malæ, and the lower edge of the zygomatic proceſs of the temporal bone, as far backwards as the eminence belonging to the

articulation of the lower jaw. From ſome little interruption in the fibres of this muſcle, at their origin, ſome writers deſcribe it as ariſing by two, and others by three diſtinct portions, or heads. The two layers of fibres of which it ſeems to be compoſed, croſs each other as they deſcend, the external layer extending backwards, and the internal one ſlanting forwards. It is inſerted into the baſis of the coronoid proceſs, and into all that part of the lower jaw which ſupports the coronoid and condyloid proceſſes. Its uſe is to raiſe the lower jaw, and, by means of the above mentioned decuſſation, to move it a little forwards and backwards in the act of chewing.

MASSOY CORTEX. See *Cortex maſſoy*.

MASTERWORT. See *Imperatoria*.

MASTICATION, (*Maſticatio, onis*, f. from *maſtico*, to chew). Chewing. A natural function. The mixing together and dividing of the particles of the food in the mouth, by the action of the jaws, tongue, lips, and cheeks. By means of this function the food is lacerated and mixed with the ſaliva and the mucus of the mouth and fauces, and thus made into a bole of ſuch a conſiſtence as to be formed into a convenient ſize to be ſwallowed. See *Deglutition*.

MASTICATORIES, (*Maſticatoria, ſc. medicamenta*; from *Maſtico*, to chew). Such medicines as are intended for chewing.

MASTICHE, (*Maſtiche, es*, f. μαστιχη: from ματτω, to expreſs). *Maſtix*. Maſtich. The tree which affords this reſin is the *Piſtachia lentiſcus*; *foliis abrupte pinnatis, foliis lanceolatis*, of Linnæus. Claſs *Dioecia*. Order *Pentandria*, a native of the ſouth of Europe. In the iſland of Chio the officinal maſtich is obtained moſt abundantly, and, according to Tournefort, by making tranſverſe inciſions in the bark of the tree, from whence the maſtich exudes in drops, which are ſuffered to run down to the ground, when, after ſufficient time is allowed for their concretion, they are collected for uſe. Maſtich is brought to us in ſmall, yellowiſh, tranſparent, brittle tears or grains; it has a light agreeable ſmell, eſpecially when rubbed or heated; on being chewed it firſt crumbles, ſoon after ſticks together, and becomes ſoft and white, like wax, without impreſſing any conſiderable taſte. It is conſidered to be a mild corroborant and adſtringent; and as poſſeſſing a balſamic power it has been recommended in hæmoptyſis, proceeding from ulceration, leucorrhœa, debility of the ſtomach, and in diarrhœas and internal ulcerations. Chewing this drug has likewiſe been ſaid to have been of uſe in pains of the teeth and gums, and in ſome catarrhal complaints; it is, however, in the preſent day, ſeldom uſed either externally or internally. The wood abounds with the reſinous principle, and a tincture may be obtained from it, which is eſteemed in ſome countries in the cure of hæmorrhages, dyſenteries, and gout.

MASTICH TREE. See *Lentiſcus*.

MASTICH HERB, COMMON. See *Marum vulgare*.

MASTICH HERB, SYRIAN. See *Marum ſyriacum*.

MASTICH WOOD. See *Lentiſcus*.

MASTIX, (μαστιξ). See *Maſtiche*.

MASTODŸNĬA, (*Maſſadynia, æ*, f. μαστοδυνια; from μαστος, a breaſt, and οδυνη, pain). Phlegmon of the breaſt of women. It is characterized by all the ſymptoms of acute inflammation, and moſtly terminates in abſceſs.

MASTOID, (*Maſtoideus*; μαστος, a breaſt, and ειδος, reſemblance). Thoſe proceſſes of bones are ſo termed that are ſhaped like the nipple of the breaſt.

MASTOIDĒUS, (μαστοειδαιος; from μαστοειδης, the maſtoid proceſs). Inſerted into, or belonging to the maſtoid proceſs. See *Sterno cleido-maſtoideus*.

MATALISTA RADIX. A root ſaid to be imported from America, where it is given as a purgative, its action being rather milder than that of jalap.

MATER, (*Mater, ris*, f. μητηρ, a mother). Two membranes of the brain had this epithet given to them by the Arabians, who thought they gave origin to all other membranes of the body. See *Dura mater* and *pia mater*. Alſo a name of the herb mugwort, becauſe of its virtue in diſorders of the womb.

MATER DŬRA. See *Dura mater*.

MATER PĬA. See *Pia mater*.

MATERĬA MEDĬCA. Subſtances which are ordered for medicinal uſes.

A Syſtematic Arrangement of the Vegetable MATERIA MEDICA, *according to the* LINNÆAN *Syſtem.*

CLASS I.

MONANDRIA.

Order Monogynia.

AMOMUM zingiber.
— cardamomum.
— granum paradiſi.
Coſtus arabicus.
Maranta galanga.
Curcuma longa.
Kaempferia rotunda.

CL. II. DIANDRIA.
O. Monogynia.

Jaſminum officinale.
Olea Europæa.
Veronica officinalis.
— beccabunga.
Gratiola officinalis.
Verbena officinalis.
Monarda fiſtuloſa.
Roſmarinus officinalis.
Salvia officinalis.
— horminum.
— ſclarea.
Collinſonia canadenſis.

Trigynia.

Piper nigrum.
Piper longum.
— cubeba.
— betel.

CL. III. TRIANDRIA.
O. Monogynia.

Valeriana officinalis.
— phu.
— celtica.
Tamarindus indica.
Crocus ſativus.
Iris florentina.
— tuberoſa.
— Germanica.
— pſeudacorus.
— fœtidiſſima.
Gladiolus communis.
Cyperus longus.
— rotundus.

Digynia.

Arundo phragmitis.
Saccharum officinarum.
Phalaris canarienſis.
Panicum italicum.
— dactylon.
— miliaceum.
Avena ſativa.
Secale cereale.
Hordeum diſtichon.
Triticum hybernum.
Triticum Repens.

CL. IV. TETRANDRIA
O. Monogynia.

Globularia alypum.
Dipſacus fullonum.
Scabioſa ſucciſa.
— arvenſis.
Aſperula odorata.
Galium verum.
— mollugo.
— aparine.
Rubia tinctorum.
Penæa ſarcocolla.
Plantago major.
— media.
— lanceolata.
— pſyllium.
Fagara octandra.
Hediotis auricularia.
Sanguiſorba officinalis.
Bankſia abyſſinica.
Trapa natans.
Dorſtenia contrayerva.
Santalum album.
Camphoroſma Monſpelienſis.
Alchemilla vulgaris.

Digynia.

Cuſcuta Europæa.

Cuscuta epithymum.

Tetragynia.

Ilex aquifolium.
— cassine.

CL. V. PENTANDRIA.

O. Monogynia.

Lithospermum officinal.
Anchusa officinalis.
— tinctoria.
Cynoglossum officinale.
Pulmonaria officinalis.
Symphytum officinale.
Borago officinalis.
Primula veris.
Soldanella alpina.
Cyclamen Europæum.
Menyanthes trifoliata.
Lysimachia mummularia.
Anagallis arvensis.
Spigelia anthelmintica.
— marilandica.
Ophiorrhiza mungos.
Onosma echioides.
Plumbago Europæa.
Convolvulus scammonia.
— turpethum.
— Jalapa.
— mechoacanna.
— soldanella.
Cinchona officinalis.
— carybæa.
— angustifolia.
— corymbifera.
— floribunda.
— montana.
— tecamez.
Coffea Arabica.
— occidentalis.
Psychotria emetica.
Lonicera periclymenum.
— symphoricarpos.
— diervilla.
Verbascum thapsus.
— nigrum.
Datura stramonium.
Hyoscyamus niger.
Hyoscyamus albus.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Atropa mandagora.
— belladona.
Physalis alkekengi.
Solanum dulcamara.
— nigrum.
Capsicum annuum.
— baccatum.
Strychnos nux vomica.
— colubrina ?
— volubilis ?
— atia amara ?
Coris Monspellienſis.
Cordia mixa.
Rhamnus catharticus.
— frangula.
— zizyphus.
Ceanothus Americanus.
Ribes rubrum.
— nigrum.
Hedera helix.
Vitis vinifera.
— apyræna.
Lagoecia cuminoides.
Allamanda cathartica.
Vinca minor.
Nerium antidysenteric.
Plumeria alba.
Echites syphilitica.

Dyginia.

Asclepias asthmatica.
— vincetoxicum.
Herniaria glabra.
Chenopodium bonus henricus.
— rubrum.
— botrys.
— ambrosioides.
— anthelminthicum.
— vulvaria.
Beta vulgaris.
— cicla.
Salsola kali.
— sativa.
— soda.
Ulmus campestris.
Gentiana lutea.
— asclepeadea.
— centaurium.
Gentiana purpurea.
— cruciata.
— amarella.
Eryngium campestre.
Sanicula Europæa.
Bupleurum rotundifolium.
Tordylium officinale.
Daucus carota.
Conium maculatum.
Cachris odontalgica.
Athamanta annua.
— oreoselinum.
Peucedanum officinale.
Ferula assa fœtida.
Laserpitium siler.
— latifolium.
Heracleum spondilium.
Ligusticum levisticum.
Angelica archangelica.
— sylvestris.
Sium ninsi.
— nodiflorum.
Sison amomum.
Ammi majus.
Bubon macedonicum.
— galbanum.
Cuminum cyminum.
Œnanthe crocata.
Phellandrium aquaticum.
Cicuta virosa.
Æthusa meum.
Coriandrum sativum.
Scandix cerefolium.
Chærophyllum sylvestre.
Imperatoria ostruthium.
Seseli tortuosum.
Pastinaca sativa.
— opopanax.
Anethum graveolens.
— Fœniculum.
Carum carui.
Pimpinella saxifraga.
— magna.
— anisum.
Apium petroselinum.
— graveolens.

Trigynia.

Semecarpus anacardium.

Rhus coriaria.
— typhinum.
— vernix.
Caſſine peragua.
Sambucus ebulus.
— nigra.
Tamarix gallica.
Alſine media.

Tetragynia.
Parnaſſia paluſtris.

Pentagynia.
Statice limonium.
Linum uſitatiſſimum.
— catharticum.
Droſera rotundifolia.

Cl. VI. Hexandria.
O. Monogynia.
Bromelia ananas.
Allium victoriale.
— ſativum.
— porrum.
— cepa.
Lilium candidum.
Scilla maritima.
Aſphodelus ramoſus.
Aſparagus officinalis.
Dracæna draco.
Convallaria majalis.
— polygonatum.
Aloë perfoliata.
Burſera gummifera.
Acorus calamus.
Calamus rotang.
Achras ſapota.
Berberis vulgaris.

Digynia.
Oryza ſativa.

Trigynia.
Rumex criſpus.
— ſanguineus.
— patientia.
— acutus.
— hydrolapathum.
— ſcutatus.
— alpinus.
— acetoſa.

Colchicum autumnale.
— illyricum.

Tetragynia.
Petivera alliacea.

Cl. VII. Heptandria.
O. Monogynia.
Æſculus hyppocaſtanum

Cl. VIII. Octandria.
O. Monogynia.
Tropæolum majus.
Amyris elemifera.
— gileadenſis.
— opobalſamum.
— zeylanica.
— kataf.
Lawſonia inermis.
Vaccinium myrtillus.
— vitis idæa.
— oxycoccos.
Daphne mezereum.
— thymelæa.
— laureola.
— gnidium.

Trigynia.
Polygonum fagopyrum.
— biſtorta.
— hydropiper.
— perſicaria.
— aviculare.
Sapindus ſaponaria.

Tetragynia.
Paris quadrifolia.

Cl. IX. Enneandria.
O. Monogynia.
Laurus cinnamomum.
— caſſia.
— myrrha ?
— camphor.
— culilawan.
— nobilis.
— ſaſſafras.
— pecurim.
Anacardium occidentale.

Trigynia.
Rheum palmatum.
Rheum rhaponticum.
— undulatum.

Cl. X. Decandria.
O. Monogynia.
Sophora heptaphylla.
Hymenæa courbaril.
Caſſia fiſtula.
— ſenna.
Poinciana pulcherrima.
Cæſalpinia ſappan.
— criſta.
Myroxylon peruiferum.
Guilandina moringa.
Guajacum officinale.
— ſanctum.
Dictamnus albus.
Ruta graveolens.
Toluifera balſamum.
Hæmatoxylum campechianum.
Swietenia mahogani.
— febrifuga.
Quaſſia amara.
— ſimaruba.
— dioica ?
Ledum paluſtre.
Rhododendron chryſanthum.
— ferrugineum.
Arbutus uva urſi.
Pyrola rotundifolia.
Styrax officinalis.
— Benzoin.
Copaifera officinalis.

Digynia.
Saxifraga granulata.
— craſſifolia.
Saponaria officinalis.
Dianthus caryophillus.

Pentagynia.
Sedum telephium.
— acre.
Oxalis acetoſella.
— cernua.
— corniculata.

Decagynia.
Phytolacca decandra.

Cl. XI. Dodecandria.

O. Monogynia.

Asarum Europæum.
Canella alba?
Portulaca oleracea.
Lythrum salicaria.
Garcinia mangostana.

Digynia.

Agrimonia eupatoria.

Trigynia.

Euphorbia officinarum.
— canescens.
— parviflora.
— esula.
— Lathyris.
— palustris.

Dodecagynia.

Sempervivum tectorum.

Cl. XII. Icosandria.

O. Monogynia.

Cactus opuntia.
Myrtus communis.
— caryophyllata.
— pimenta.
Punica granatum.
Amygdalus communis.
— nana.
— persica.
Prunus avium.
— cerasus.
— domestica.
— lauro-cerasus.
— padus.
— spinosa.

Trigynia.

Sorbus aucuparia.
— domestica.

Pentagynia.

Mesembryanthemum crystallinum.
Mespillus germanica.
Pyrus malus.
— cydonia.
Spiræa filipendula.
— ulmaria.

Polygynia.

Rosa alba.
— canina.
— centifolia.
— damascena.
— gallica.
Rubus arcticus.
— chamæmorus.
— idæus.
Fragaria vesca.
Potentilla anserina.
— reptans.
Tormentilla erecta.
Geum rivale.
— urbanum.

Cl. XIII. Polyandria.

O. Monogynia.

Capparis spinosa.
Chelidonium majus.
Papaver rhœas.
— somniferum.
Cambogia gutta.
Nymphæa alba.
Bixa orellana.
Tilia Europæa.
Myristica officinalis.
Thea bohea.
— viridis.
Caryophillus aromaticus.
Cistus creticus.

Digynia.

Pæonia officinalis.

Trigynia.

Delphinium consolida.
— staphisagria.
Aconitum anthora.
— cammarum.
— napellus.

Tetragynia.

Cimicifuga fœtida.

Pentagynia.

Aquilegia vulgaris.
Nigella sativa.

Polygynia.

Illicium anisatum.
Uvaria zeylanica.
Liriodendron tulipifera.
Anemone hepatica.
— nemorosa.
— pratensis.
Clematis recta.
— vitalba.
Thalictrum flavum.
Ranunculus abortivus.
— acris.
— alpinus.
— arvensis.
— bulbosus.
— ficaria.
— flammula.
— illyricus.
— lingua.
— sceleratus.
— thora.
Helleborus fœtidus.
— niger.
— viridis.
Wintera aromatica.
— canella.
Adonis verna.
— appenina.

Cl. XIV. Didynamia.

O. Gymnospermia.

Ajuga pyramidalis.
Teucrium chamædrys.
— chamæpitys.
— creticum.
— marum.
— polium.
— scordium.
Satureja capitata.
— hortensis.
Hyssopus officinalis.
Nepeta cataria.
Lavandula spica.
— stœchas.
Mentha auricularis.
— cervina.
— crispa.
— piperita.
— pulegium.
— sativa.
— sylvestris.

Mentha viridis.
Glecoma hederacea.
Lamium album.
Betonica officinalis.
Stachys annua.
— recta.
— ſylvatica.
Marrubium vulgare.
Leonurus cardiaca.
Origanum creticum.
— dictamnus.
— majorana.
— ſyriacum.
— vulgare.
Thymus ſerpillum.
— vulgaris.
Meliſſa calaminthus.
— officinalis.
Dracocephalum Canarienſe.
— Moldavicum.
Melittis meliſſophyllum.
Ocymum baſilicum.
Prunella vulgaris.
Scutellaria galericulata.

Angioſpermia.

Acanthus mollis.
Euphraſia officinalis.
Lathræa ſquammaria.
Pedicularis paluſtris.
Anthirrhinum linaria.
Scrophularia aquatica.
— nodoſa.
Digitalis purpurea.
Linnæa borealis.
Seſamum orientale.
Vitex agnus caſtus.
Avicennia tomentoſa.
Bignonia ophthalmica.

CLASS XV.

TETRADYNAMIA.

O. Siliculoſa.

Lepidium ſativum.
Thlaſpi arvenſe.
— burſa paſtoris.
Cochlearia armoracia.
— officinalis.

Siliquoſa.

Dentaria pentaphyllos.
Cardamine pratenſis.
Siſymbrium naſturtium.
— ſophia.
— tenuifolium.
Eryſimum aliaria.
— barbarea.
— officinale.
Cheiranthus cheiri.
Braſſica eruca.
— oleracia,
— rapa.
Sinapis alba.
— nigra.
Raphanus ſativus.
Crambe orientalis.

CLASS XVI.

MONADELPHIA.

Decandria.

Geranium moſchatum.
— robertianum.

Dodecandria.

Pentapetes muhucunda.

Polyandria.

Althæa officinalis.
Alcea roſea.
Malva alcea.
— rotundifolia.
— ſylveſtris.
Goſſypium herbaceum.
Hibiſcus abelmoſchus.

CLASS XVII.

DIADELPHIA.

Hexandria.

Fumaria bulboſa.
— officinalis.

Octandria.

Polygala amara.
— ſenega.
— vulgaris.

Decandria.

Pterocarpus draco.
— ſantalinus.
Spartium ſcoparium.
Geniſta canarienſis ?
— tinctoria.
Ononis ſpinoſa.
— arvenſis.
Lupinus albus.
Phaſeolus vulgaris.
Dolichos pruriens ?
— urens ?
— ſoja.
Vicia faba.
Glycyrrhiza glabra.
— echinata.
Cytiſus laburnum.
Ervum ervilia.
— lens.
Piſum ſativum.
Geoffroya inermis.
— Surinamenſis.
Indigofera tinctoria.
Galega officinalis.
Aſtragalus exſcapus.
— gummifer.
— tragacantha.
Trifolium melilotus officinalis.
— repens.
Trigonella Monſpellien.
— fœnum græcum.

CLASS XVIII.

POLYADELPHIA.

Pentandria.

Theobroma cacao.

Icoſandria.

Citrus medica.
— aurantium.

Polyandria.

Melaleuca leucadendron.
Hypericum bacciferum.
— guttiferum ?
— perforatum.

CLASS XIX.

SYNGENESIA.

Polygamia æqualis.

Tragopogon pratenſe.
Scorzonera Hiſpanica.
— humilis.

Lactuca ſativa.
— ſcariola.
— viroſa.
Sonchus oleraceus.
Leontodon taraxacum.
Hieracium pilofella.
Cichorium intybus.
— endivia.
Arctium lappa.
Serratula amara.
Carduus marianus.
Onopordum acanthium.
Cynara ſcolymus.
Carlina acaulis.
Carthamus tinctorius.
Spilanthus acmella.
Eupatorium cannabinum.
Santolina chamæcyparifſus.

Polygamia ſuperflua.

Tanacetum vulgare.
— balſamita.
Artemiſia abrotanum.
— abſynthium.
— campeſtris.
— dracunculus.
— glacialis.
— maritima.
— pontica.
— rupeſtris.
— ſantonica.
— vulgaris.
Gnaphalium arenarium.
— dioicum.
Erigeron acre.
Tuſſilago farfara.
— petaſites.
Senecio vulgaris.
Solidago virga aurea.
Inula helenium.
— dyſenterica.
Arnica montana.
Doronicum latifolium.
— pardalianches.
Bellis perennis.
Chryſanthemum leucanthemum.
Matricaria chamomilla.
— parthenium.
Anthemis cotula.
Anthemis nobilis.
— pyrethrum.
Achillea ageratum.
— atrata.
— millefolium.
— moſchata.
— ptarmica.
Sigeſbeckia orientalis.

Polygamia fruſtranea.

Centaurea behen.
— benedicta.
— calcitrappa.
— cyanus.

Polygamia neceſſaria.

Calendula officinalis.

Monogynia.

Lobelia ſyphilitica.
Lobelia longiflora.
— tupa.
Viola canina.
— ipecacuanha.
— odorata.
— tricolor.

Cl. XX. Gynandria.

Diandria.

Orchis bifolia.
— maſcula.
— militaris.
— morio.
Satyrium hircinum.
Epidendrum vanilla.

Hexandria.

Ariſtolochia anguicida.
— clematitis.
— longa.
— rotunda.
— odoratiſſima.
— ſerpentaria.
— trilobata.

Dodecandria.

Cytinus hypociſtis.

Polyandria.

Arum maculatum.

Zoſtera marina.

Cl. XXI. Monœcia.

Monandria.

Cynomorium coccineum.

Triandria.

Carex arenaria.
Phyllanthus emblica.

Tetandria.

Betula alba.
— alnus.
Buxus ſempervirens.
Urtica dioica.
— pilulifera.
— urens.
Morus nigra.

Pentandria.

Xanthium ſtrumarium.

Polyandria.

Poterium ſanguiſorba.
Quercus robur.
— cerris.
— ſuber.
Juglans regia.
Fagus caſtanea.
— ſylvatica.
Corylus avellana.
Liquidambar ſtyraciflua.

Monadelphia.

Pinus abies.
— balſamea.
— canadenſis.
— cembra.
— larix.
— picea.
— pinea.
— ſylveſtris.
— munglos.
Stillingia ſylvatica.
Cupreſſus ſempervirens.
Thuja occidentalis.
— articulata.
Croton caſcarilla.

Croton lacciferum,
— tiglium.
— tinctorium.
Jatropha curcas.
— elastica.
— manihot.
Ricinus communis.

Syngenesia.
Momordica elaterium.
Cucurbita lagenaria.
— citrullus.
— pepo.
Cumumis colocynthis.
— melo.
— sativus.
Bryonia alba.

Cl. XXII. Diœcia.
Diandria.
Salix alba.
— caprea.
— fragilis.
— pentandria.
— vitulina.

Triandria.
Excœcaria agallocha.

Tetrandria.
Viscum album.
Myrica gale.
Brucea ferruginea, s. antidysenterica.

Pentandria.
Pistacia vera.
— terebinthus.
— chio.
— lentiscus.
Spinacea oleracea.
Cannabis sativa.
Humulus lupulus.
Fevillea trilobata.

Hexandria.
Smilax sarsaparilla.
— china.

Octandria.
Populus nigra.
Populus balsamifera.
Rhodiola rosea.

Enneandria.
Mercurialis annua.

Decaandria.
Carica papaya.

Dodecandria.
Menispermum cocculus.

Monodelphia.
Juniperus sabina.
— communis.
— Lycea ?
Cissampelos pareira.
— caapeba.

Syngenesia.
Ruscus aculeatus.
— hypoglossum.

Gynandria.
Clutia eluteria ?

CLASS XXIII.
Polygamia.
Monœcia.
Veratrum album.
— nigrum.
— sabadilla ?
Andropogon schœnanthus.
— nardus.
Parietaria officinalis.
Ophioxylum serpentinum.
Mimosa cathechu.
— nilotica.
— senegal.

Diœcia.
Fraxinus excelsior.
— ornus.
— rotundifolia.
Panax quinquefolium.

Triœcia.
Ceratonia siliqua.
Ficus carica.
Ficus indica.
— religiosa.

CLASS XXIV.
Cryptogamia.
Filices.
Equisetum arvense.
Osmunda regalis.
Pteris aquilina.
Asplenium ceterach.
— ruta muraria.
— scolopendria.
— trichomanoides.
Polypodium vulgare.
— filix mas.
— fragans.
Adianthum capillus veneris.
— pedatum.

Musci.
Lycopodium clavatum.
— selago.
Polytrichum commune.

Algæ.
Lichen aphthosus.
— caninus.
— cocciferus.
— islandicus.
— plicatus.
— pulmonarius.
— roccella.
Conferva rivularis.
— helminthocorton.
Fucus vesiculosus.

Fungi.
Agaricus muscarius.
Boletus laricinus.
— igniarius.
— suaveolens.
Peziza auricula.
Lycoperdon bovista.
— tuber.

Cl. XXV. Palmæ.
Cocos butyracea.
— nucifera.
Phœnix dactylifera.
Sagus farinaria.

A Syſtematical Arrangement of the Animal MATERIA MEDICA, *according to the* LINNÆAN *Syſtem.*

CLASS I.
MAMMALIA.
Bruta.
Trichecus manatus.

Feræ.
Viverra zibetha.

Gliris.
Caſtor Fiber.

Pecora.
Moſchus moſchiferus.
Cervus alces.
— dama.
— elaphus.
— tarandus.
Capra domeſtica.
Ovis aries.
Bos taurus.

Belluæ.
Equus aſinus.
Sus ſcrofa.

Ceti.
Phyſeter macrocephalus, aliæque ſpecies.

II. AVES.
Gallinæ.
Phaſianus gallus.

III. AMPHIBIA.
Reptilia.
Rana eſculenta.
— buſo.
Lacerta ſcincus.
— agilis.
— iguana.

Serpentes.
Coluber vipera.
— blerus.

IV. PISCES.
Chontropterygii.
Accipenſer ſturio, aliæque ſpecies.

Abdominales.
Eſox lucius.

V. INSECTA.
Coleoptera.
Meloë majalis.
— proſcarabæus.
Lytta veſicatoria.
Curculio antiodontalgicus.
— bacchi.
— jaceæ.
Carabus chryſocephalus.
— ferrugineous.
Chryſomela populi.
— ſeptempunctata.

Hymiptera.
Coccus cacti.
— lacca.
— ilicis.

Hymenoptera.
Cyneps cerris.
Cyneps roſæ.
Chryſis ignita.
Apis mellifera.
Formica rufa.

Aptera.
Cancer aſtacus.
— gamarus.
— macrurus.
— pagurus.
Oniſcus aſellus.

VI. VERMES.
Inteſtina.
Lumbricus terreſtris.
Hirudo medicinalis.
— ſanguiſuga.

Moluſca.
Sepia officinalis.
Limax maximus terreſtris.

Teſtacea.
Oſtrea edulis.
— maxima.
Helix pomatia.

Lithophyta.
Madrepora oculata.

Zoophyta.
Corallina officinalis.
Iſis nobilis.
Spongia officinalis.

A Syſtematical Arrangement of the Mineral MATERIA MEDICA, *and of the Chemical Preparations.*

ACIDA.
ACIDUM acetum.
— acetoſum.
Acidum benzoicum.
— boracicum.
— carbonicum.
Acidum citricum.
— muriaticum.
— — oxygenatum.

Acidum nitricum.
— nitroſum.
— oxalicum.
— phoſphoricum.
— ſuccinicum.
— ſulfuricum.
— tartaroſum.

ALCALIA.
Ammoniaca.
Potaſſa.
Soda.

TERRÆ.
Alumina.
Baryta.
Calx.
Magneſia.

METALLA.
Argentum.
Arſenicum.
Aurum.
Cuprum.
Ferrum.
Hydrargyrum.
Manganeſium.
Plumbum.
Stannum.
Stibium s. antimonium.
Wiſmuthum.
Zincum.

SALES NEUTRI.
Acetis ammoniacæ.
Carbonas ammoniacæ.
Citras ammoniacæ.
Murias ammoniacæ.
Nitras ammoniacæ.
Succinas ammoniacæ.
Sulfas ammoniacæ.
Tartris ammoniacæ.

Acetis potaſſæ.
Carbonas potaſſæ.
Citras potaſſæ.
Murias potaſſæ.
Murias hyperoxygenatus potaſſæ.
Nitras potaſſæ.
Oxalas potaſſæ acidulus.
Sulfas potaſſæ.
Tartris potaſſæ.
— — acidulus.
Acetis ſodæ.
Boras ſodæ alcaleſcens s. Borax.
Carbonas ſodæ.
Murias ſodæ.
Nitras ſodæ.
Phoſphas ſodæ.
Sulfas ſodæ.
Tartris ſodæ.

SALES TERREI.
Carbonas aluminæ.
Sulfas aluminæ acidulus cum potaſſa s. Alumen.

Carbonas barytæ.
Murias barytæ.
Sulfas barytæ.

Carbonas calcis.
Citras calcis.
Murias calcis.
Phoſphas calcis.
Carbonas magneſiæ.
Sulfas magneſiæ.

OXYDA METALLICA.
Oxydum arſenici album.
— Cupri viride.
— Ferri nigrum.
— — luteum.
— — rubrum.
— Hydrargyri nigrum.
— — album.
— — luteum.
— — rubrum.
— Manganeſii nigrum.
— Plumbi ſemivitr.
— — album.
— — rubrum.
— Stanni.
— Stibii album.
— — griſeum.
— — ſemivitreum.
— — ſulfuratum.
— — præcipitatum.
— Wiſmuthi.
Oxydum Zinci album.
— — ſublimatum.

SALES METALLICI.

Nitras argenti.
— — fuſus.
Acetis cupri.
Sulfas cupri.
— — ammoniacalis.

Acetis ferri.
Malas ferri.
Murias ferri ammoniacalis.
Sulfas ferri.
Tartris potaſſæ acidulus ferratus.

Acetis hydrargyri.
Murias hydrargyri.
— — oxygenatus.
Nitras hydrargyri.
Sulfas hydrargyri.
Tartris hydrargyri.

Acetis plumbi.

Murias ſtibii hyperoxygenatus.
Phoſphas calcis ſtibiatus.
Tartris potaſſæ acidulus ſtibiatus.

Acetis zinci.
Sulfas zinci.

SULFURETA.
a. *Salina.*
Sulfuretum ammoniacæ.
— potaſſæ.
— ſodæ.

b. *Terreæ.*
Sulfuretum calcis.
c. *Metallica.*
Sulfuretum hydrargyri nigrum.
— — rubrum.
Sulfuretum hydrargyri ſtibiatum rubrum.

Sulfuretum ſtibiatum nigrum.
— ſtibii nativum s. nigrum.
Hydro-ſulfuretum ſtibii rubrum.
— — luteum.

SAPONES.

Sapo amygdalinus.
Sapo ammoniacialis ſeu Linimentum ammoniacale.
Saponuli.
Sapones acidi.

INFLAMMABILIA.

Sulphur.
Phoſphorus.
Petroleum.
Succinum.
Carbo.
Alkohol.
Acida alkoholiſata.
Æther.

GAZA s. FLUIDA ELASTICA.

Gaz azotum.
— acidum carbonicum.
— hydrogenium.
Gaz hydrogenium carbonatum.
— — ſulphuratum.
Gaz oxygenium.
Aër s. Gaz atmoſphæricum.

AQUA ET AQUOSA.

Aqua frigida.
— gelida.
— tepida.
— calida.
Aqua deſtillata ſimplex.
Aquæ deſtillatæ odoriferæ aut aromatiſatæ.
Aqua picea.
— calcis.
— marina.
Aquæ minerales.
Aquæ acidulæ.
— — ferruginoſæ.
— — ſalinæ.
— — ſulphureæ.
— — alkaliſatæ.

AUXILLA EXTERNA.

Nix aut glacies.
Balnea. Gelida,
Semicupia. Frigida,
Pediluvia. Tepida,
Fotus. Calida,
Fervida.
Balnea medicata.
Aſperſio aquæ frigidæ.
Embrocationes.
Thermæ minerales.
— ſimplices.
— ſalinæ.
Thermæ alcalinæ.
— ſulfuratæ.
Lotiones.
Injectiones.
Enemata.
Frictiones ſiccæ.
— oleoſæ.
— medicatæ.
Electricitas.
Galvaniſmus.
Arteriotomia.
Venæſectio.
Cucurbitæ ſcarificatæ.
Sanguiſugæ.
Fonticulus.
Setaceum.
Veſicatorum.
Epiſpaſticum.
Cauſticum.
Moxa.
Ferrum candens.

MATLOCK WATER is found to contain a ſmall quantity of a neutral ſalt, probably muriat of ſoda, and about as much of an earthy ſalt, which is chiefly calcareous. No traces of iron are diſcoverable by any teſt, nor does there appear to be any exceſs of carbonic acid, as in the

Briſtol Hotwell It may be employed in all thoſe caſes where a pure diluent drink is adviſable; but it is principally uſed as a tepid bath, or at leaſt one that comes to the extreme limits of a cold bath.

MATRICARĬA, (*Matricaria, æ*, f. from *matrix*, the womb, ſo called from its uſes in diſorders of the womb). *Parthenium*. Fever few. Mother's wort. The leaves and flowers of this plant, *Matricaria parthenium*; *foliis compoſitis, planis; foliolis ovatis, inciſis*; *pedunculis ramoſis* of Linnæus, have a ſtrong, not agreeable ſmell, and a moderately bitter taſte, both which they communicate, by warm infuſion, to water and rectified ſpirit. The watery infuſions, inſpiſſated, leave an extract of conſiderable bitterneſs, and which diſcovers alſo a ſaline matter, both to the taſte, and in a more ſenſible manner by throwing up to the ſurface ſmall cryſtalline efflorescences in keeping. The peculiar flavour of the matricaria exhales, in the evaporation, and impregnates the diſtilled water, on which alſo a quantity of eſſential oil is found floating. The quantity of ſpiritous extract, according to Cartheuſer's experiments, is only about one ſixth the weight of the dry leaves, whereas the watery extract amounts to near one half. This plant is evidently the *Parthenium* of Dioſcorides, ſince whoſe time it has been very generally employed for medical purpoſes. In natural affinity it ranks with cammomile and tanſy, and its ſenſible qualities ſhew it to be nearly allied to them in its medicinal character. Bergius ſtates its virtues to be tonic, ſtomachic, reſolvent, and emmenagogue. It has been given ſucceſsfully as a vermifuge, and for the cure of intermittents; but its uſe is moſt celebrated in female diſorders, eſpecially in hyſteria; and hence it is ſuppoſed to have derived the name matricaria. Its ſmell, taſte, and analyſis prove it to be a medicine of conſiderable activity; we may therefore ſay with Murray; *Rarius hodie præſcribitur, quam debetur.*

MATRICARĬA CAMMOMILLA. The ſyſtematic name of the common fever few. See *Chamæmælum vulgare.*

MATRICARĬA PARTHENĬUM. The ſyſtematic name of the fever few. See *Matricaria.*

MATRIX, (*Matrix, cis*, f. μητρη). The womb. See *Uterus.*

MATURATION, (*Maturatio, onis*, f. from *maturo*, to make ripe). A term in ſurgery, ſignifying that proceſs which ſucceeds inflammation, by which pus is collected in an abſceſs.

MAUDLIN. See *Ageratum.*

MAXILLA, (*Maxilla, æ*, f. from μαϭϭαω, to chew). The jaw.

MAXILLA INFERĬOR. *Os maxillare inferius. Mandibula.* The maxilla inferior, or lower jaw, which, in its figure, may be compared to a horſe-ſhoe, is at firſt compoſed of two diſtinct bones; but theſe, ſoon after birth, unite together at the middle of the chin, ſo as to form only one bone. The ſuperior edge of this bone has, like the upper jaw, a proceſs, called the *alveolar* proceſs. This, as well as that of the upper jaw, to which it is in other reſpects a good deal ſimilar, is likewiſe furniſhed with cavities for the reception of the teeth. The poſterior part of the bone on each ſide, riſes perpendicularly into two proceſſes, one of which is called the *coronoid*, and the other the *condyloid* proceſs. The firſt of theſe is the higheſt: it is thin and pointed; and the temporal muſcle, which is attached to it, ſerves to elevate the jaw. The condyloid proceſs is narrower, thicker, and ſhorter than the other, terminating in an oblong, rounded head, which is formed for a moveable articulation with the cranium, and

is received into the fore part of the foſſa deſcribed in the temporal bone. In this joint there is a moveable cartilage, which being more cloſely connected to the condyle than to the cavity, may be conſidered as belonging to the former. This moveable cartilage is connected with both the articulating ſurface of the temporal bone and the condyle of the jaw, by diſtinct ligaments ariſing from its edges all round. Theſe attachments of the cartilage are ſtrengthened, and the whole articulation ſecured, by an external ligament, which is common to both, and which is fixed to the temporal bone, and to the neck of the condyle. On the inner ſurface of the ligament, which attaches the cartilage to the temporal bone, and backwards in the cavity, is placed what is commonly called the gland of the joint; at leaſt the ligament is there found to be much more vaſcular than at any other part. At the bottom of each coronoid proceſs, on its inner part, is a foramen or canal, which extends under the roots of all the teeth, and terminates at the outer ſurface of the bone near the chin. Each of theſe foramina affords a paſſage to an artery, vein, and nerve, which ſend off branches to the ſeveral teeth.

This bone is capable of a great many motions. The condyles, by ſliding from the cavity towards the eminences on each ſide, bring the jaw horizontally forwards, as in the action of biting; or the condyles only may be brought forwards, while the reſt of the jaw is tilted backwards, as is the caſe when the mouth is open. The condyles may alſo ſlide alternately backwards and forwards from the cavity to the eminence, and *vice verſa*; ſo that while one condyle advances, the other moves backwards, turning the body of the jaw from ſide to ſide, as in grinding the teeth. The great uſe of the cartilages ſeems to be that of ſecuring the articulation, by adapting themſelves to the different inequalities in theſe ſeveral motions of the jaw, and to prevent any injuries from friction. This laſt circumſtance is of great importance where there is ſo much motion, and accordingly this cartilage is found in the different tribes of carnivorous animals, where there is no eminence and cavity, nor other apparatus for grinding.

The aveolar proceſſes are formed of an external and internal plate, united together by thin bony partitions, which divide the proceſſes at the fore part of the jaw into as many ſockets as there are teeth. But, at the poſterior part, where the teeth have more than one root, each root has a diſtinct cell. Theſe proceſſes in both jaws, begin to be formed with the teeth, accompany them in their growth, and diſappear when the teeth fall. So that the loſs of the one ſeems conſtantly to be attended with the loſs of the other.

MAXILLA SUPERIOR. *Os maxillare ſuperius.* The ſuperior maxillary bones conſtitute the moſt conſiderable portion of the upper jaw, are two in number, and generally remain diſtinct through life. Their figure is exceedingly irregular, and not eaſily to be deſcribed. On each of theſe bones is obſerved ſeveral eminences. One of theſe is at the upper and fore part of the bone, and, from its making part of the noſe, is called the *naſal* proceſs. Internally, in the inferior portion of this proceſs, is a foſſa, which, with the os unguis, forms a paſſage for the lachrymal duct. Into this naſal proceſs likewiſe is inſerted the ſhort round tendon of the *muſculus orbicularis palpebrarum*. Backwards and outwards, from the root of the naſal proceſs, the bone helps to form the lower ſide of the orbit, and this part

is therefore called the *orbitar* proceſs. Behind this orbitar proceſs the bone forms a conſiderable tuberoſity, and at the upper part of this tuberoſity is a channel, which is almoſt a complete hole. In this channel paſſes a branch of the fifth pair of nerves, which, together with a ſmall artery, is tranſmitted to the face through the external orbitar foramen, which opens immediately under the orbit. Where the bone on each ſide is joined to the os malæ, and helps to form the cheeks, is obſerved what is called the *malar* proceſs. The lower and anterior parts of the bone make a kind of circular ſweep, in which are the *alveoli* or ſockets for the teeth; this is called the *alveolar* proceſs. This alveolar proceſs has poſteriorly a conſiderable tuberoſity on its internal ſurface. Above this alveolar proceſs, and juſt behind the fore teeth, is an irregular hole, called the *foramen incifivum*, which ſeparating into two, and ſometimes more holes, ſerves to tranſmit ſmall arteries and veins, and a minute branch of the fifth pair of nerves to the noſtrils. There are two horizontal lamellæ behind the alveolar proceſs, which, uniting together, form part of the roof of the mouth, and divide it from the noſe. This partition being ſeated ſomewhat higher than the lower edge of the alveolar proceſs, gives the roof of the mouth a conſiderable hollowneſs. Where the offa maxillaria are united to each other, they project ſomewhat forwards, leaving between them a furrow, which receives the inferior portion of the ſeptum naſi. Each of theſe bones is hollow, and forms a conſiderable ſinus under its orbitar part. This ſinus, which is uſually, though improperly, called *antrum Highmorianum*, is lined with the pituitary membrane. It anſwers the ſame purpoſes as the other ſinuſes of the noſe, and communicates with the noſtrils by an opening, which appears to be a large one in the ſkeleton, but which in the recent ſubject is much ſmaller. In the fœtus, inſtead of theſe ſinuſes, an oblong depreſſion only is obſerved at each ſide of the noſtrils, nor is the tuberoſity of the alveolar proceſs then formed. On the ſide of the palate in young ſubjects a kind of fiſſure may be noticed, which ſeems to ſeparate the portion of the bone which contains the dentes inciſores from that which contains the dentes canini. This fiſſure is ſometimes apparent till the ſixth year, but after that period it in general wholly diſappears.

The offa maxillaria not only ſerve to form the cheeks, but likewiſe the palate, noſe, and orbits; and, beſides their union with each other, they are connected with the greateſt part of the bones of the face and cranium, viz. with the offa naſi, offa malarum, offa unguis, offa palati, os frontis, os ſphenoides, and os ethmoides.

MAXILLARY ARTERIES. Theſe are branches of the external carotid. The *external maxillary* is the fourth branch of the carotid; it proceeds anteriorly, and gives off the facial or mental, the coronary of the lips, and the angular artery. The *internal maxillary* is the next branch of the carotid; it gives off the ſphæno-maxillar, the inferior alveolar, and the ſpinous artery.

MAXILLARY GLANDS. The glands ſo called are conglomerate, and are ſituated under the angles of the lower jaw. The excretory ducts of theſe glands are called Warthonian, after their diſcoverer.

MAXILLARY NERVES. The ſuperior and inferior maxillary nerves are branches of the fifth pair or trigemini. The former is divided into the ſphæno-palatine, poſterior alveolar, and the infra-orbital nerve. The latter is divided into two branches,

the internal lingual, and one more properly called the inferior maxillary.

MAYLILY. See *Lilium convallium*.

MAYS, INDIAN. See *Zea mays*.

MAYWEED. See *Cotula fœtida*.

MEADOW CROWFOOT. See *Ranunculus pratensis*.

MEADOW, QUEEN OF. See *Ulmaria*.

MEADOW SAFFRON. See *Colchicum*.

MEADOW SAXIFRAGE. See *Saxifraga vulgaris*.

MEADOW SWEET. See *Ulmaria*.

MEADOW THISTLE, ROUND LEAVED. The leaves of this plant, *Cnicus oleraceus* of Linnæus, are boiled, in the northern parts of Europe, and eaten as we do cabbage.

MEASLES. See *Rubeola*.

MEATUS AUDITORĬUS EXTERNUS. See *Ear*.

MEATUS AUDITORĬUS INTERNUS. The internal auditory paſſage is a ſmall bony canal, beginning internally by a longitudinal orifice at the poſterior ſurface of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, running towards the veſtibulum and cochlea, and there being divided into two leſs cavities by an eminence. The ſuperior and ſmaller of theſe is the orifice of the aquæduct of Fallopius, which receives the portio dura of the auditory nerve: the other inferior and larger cavity is perforated by many ſmall holes, through which the portio mollis of the auditory nerve paſſes into the labyrinth.

MEATUS URINARĬUS, (*Meatus, us*, m.). In women this is ſituated in the vagina, immediately below the ſymphyſis of the pubis, and behind the nymphæ. In men it is at the end of the glans penis.

MECCA BALSAMUM. See *Balſam of Gilead*.

MECHOACAN. See *Mechoacana*.

MĔCHOACĀNNA, (*Mechoacanna, æ*, f. from *Mechoacan*, a province in Mexico, whence it is brought). *Jalappa alba. Rhabarbarum album*. Mechoacan. The root of a ſpecies of convolvulus brought from Mexico. It poſſeſſes aperient properties, and was long uſed as the common purge of this country, but is now wholly ſuperceded by jalap.)

MECHOACANNA NIGRA. See *Jalapium*.

MECŌNĬUM, (*Meconium, i*, n.). The green excrementitious ſubſtance that is found in the large inteſtines of the fœtus.

MEDIAN NERVE. The ſecond branch of the brachial plexus.

MEDIAN VEINS. The ſituation of the veins of the arms is extremely different in moſt individuals. When a branch proceeds near the bend of the arm, inwardly from the baſilic vein, it is termed the *baſilic median*; and when a vein is given off from the cephalic in the like manner, it is termed the *cephalic median*. When theſe two veins are preſent, they moſtly unite juſt below the bend of the arm, and the common trunk proceeds to the cephalic vein.

MEDIASTĪNUM, (*Mediaſtinum, i*, n. *quaſi in medio ſtare*). The membranous ſeptum, formed by the duplicature of the pleura, that divides the cavity of the cheſt into two parts. It is divided into an anterior and poſterior portion.

MEDICINE. Any ſubſtance that is exhibited with a view to cure or allay the violence of a diſeaſe. It is alſo very frequently made uſe of to expreſs the healing art, when it comprehends anatomy, phyſiology, and pathology. The following is the moſt approved claſſification of the various articles of the materia medica, according to their known qualities:

I. ACRID MEDICINES.

1. *Aromatic acrids.*
Acorus calamus.
Andropogon nardus.
Angelica archangelica.
— ſylveſtris.
Ariſtolochia ſerpentaria.
— trilobata.
Arnica montana.
Aſclepias vincetoxicum.
Athamanta cretenſis.
— oreoſelinum.
Capſicum annuum.
— baccatum.
Carlina acaulis.
Carum carvi.
Caryophillus aromaticus.
Centaurea behen.
Ciſtus creticus.
Coriandrum ſativum.
Croton caſcarilla.
Cuminum cyminum.
Fagara pterota.
Ferula aſſa fœtida.
Imperatoria oſtruthium.
Juniperus ſabina.
Laurus camphora.
— caſſia.
— nobilis.
— ſaſſaffras.
Liguſticum leviſticum.
Origanum creticum.
— dictamnus.
Phellandrium aquaticum.
Pimpinella saxifraga.
Seſeli tortuoſum.
b. Balſamic.
c. Reſins.

2. *Fixed acrids.*
a. Achillea ptarmica.
Aconitum anthora.
— cammarum.
— napellus.
Aloëxyllum verum.
Anacardium occidentale.
Anagallis arvenſis.
Anemone nemoroſa.
— pratenſis.
Anthemis pyrethrum.
Artemiſia ſantonica.
Aſclepias aſthmatica.
Atropa belladona.
— mandragora.
Avicennia tomentoſa.
Boletus laricinus.
Bryonia alba.
— dioica.
Cachrys odontalgica.
Ceanothus Americanus.
Clematis recta.
— vitalba.
Conium maculatum.
Cicuta viroſa.
Convolvulus jalappa.
— ſcammonia.
— ſepium.
— ſoldanella.
— turpethum.
Croton tiglium.
Cuſcuta Europæa.
Cyclamen Europæum.
Daphne gnidium.
— laureola.
— mezereum.
— thymelæa.
Datura ſtramonium.
Delphinium ſtaphyſagria.
Digitalis purpurea.
Droſera rotundifolia.
Eupatorium cannabinum.
Euphorbia caneſcens.
— eſula.
— officinarum.
— lathyris.
— paluſtris.
Gambogia gutta.
Gummi reſina ammon.
— — bdellium.
— — galbanum.
— — ſagapenum.
Jatropha curcas.
— manihot.
Inula dyſenterica.
Lactuca ſcariola.
— viroſa.
Momordica elaterium.
Nerium antidyſenteric.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Onopordium acanthium.
Polygala ſenega.
Penæa ſarcocolla.
Phytolacca decandra.
Pſychotria emetica.
Callicocca ipecacuanha.
Pulſatilla nigricans.
Plumbago Europæa.
Rhus vernix.
— toxicodendron.
Ranunculus abortivus.
— acris.
— alpinus.
— arvenſis.
— bulboſus.
— flammula.
— illyricus.
— lingua.
— thora.
Sambucus ebulus.
Strychnos colubrina.
— nux vomica.
— volubilis.
Viola ipecacuanha.
Vitex agnus caſtus.

3. *Volatile acrids.*
Allium cepa.
— ſativum.
— ſcorodopraſum.
— victorialis.

Arum maculatum.
Asarum Europæum.
Brassica eruca.
— rapa.
Cardamine pratensis.
Cochlearia armoracia.
— officinalis.
Colchicum illiricum.
— autumnale.
Convallaria majalis.
Crambe orientalis.
Dentaria pentaphyllos.
Erigeron acre.
Erysimum alliaria.
— barbarea.
— officinale.
Iris florentina.
— fœtida.
— germanica.
Iris pseudacorus.
— tuberosa.
Lepidium iberis.
— sativum.
Petivera alliacea.
Raphanus sativus.
Saxifraga granulata.
Scilla maritima.
Sedum acre.
Sempervivum tectorum.
Sinapis alba.
— nigra.
Sysimbrium nasturtium.
— sophia.
— Tenuifolium.
Thlaspi arvense.

4. *Animal acrids.*

Carabus chrysocephalus.
Carabus ferrugineus.
Chrysis ignita.
Chrysomela populi.
— sanguinolenta.
Coccinella bispunctata.
— septempunctata.
Coccus cacti.
— ilicis.
Curculio antiodontalgicus.
— bacchi.
— jaccæ.
Formica rufa.
Lytta vesicatoria.
Lumbricus terrestris.
Meloë majalis.
— proscarabæus.
Onisus asellus.

II. ADSTRINGENTS.

1. *Adstringents properly so called.*

Æsculus hypocastanum.
Agrimonia eupatoria.
Alchemilla vulgaris.
Arbutus uva ursi.
Asplenium ceterach.
— scolopendrium.
— trichomanoides.
Calamus rotang.
Capparis spinosa.
Cinchona officinalis, ejusque species.
Cortex pocgerebæ.
Cupressus sempervirens.
Cynomorium coccin.
Cytinus hypocistis.
Datisca cannabina.
Dracæno draco.
Equisetum arvense.
— hyemale.
Fragaria vesca.
Fraxinus excelsior.
Galium aparine.
— verum.
Garcinia mangostana.
Geranium Robertianum.
Geum rivale.
Geum urbanum.
Hæmatoxylum campechianum.
Hedera helix.
Ilex aquifolium.
Juglans regia.
Kino.
Lawsonia inermis.
Lichen cocciferus.
— plicatus.
Lonicera symphoricarpos.
Lycoperdon bovista.
Lysimachia nummularia.
Lythrum salicaria.
Mespilus germanicus.
Mimosa catechu.
— nilotica (succus).
Morus nigra.
Myrtus communis.
— caryophyllata.
Osmunda regalis.
Peziza auricula.
Phyllanthus emblica.
Plantago major.
— media.
— lanceolata.
Polygonum bistorta.
Potentilla reptans.
Poterium sanguisorba.
Prunella vulgaris.
Prunus spinosa.
Pterocarpus draco.
Punica granatum.
Pyrola rotundifolia.
Pyrus communis.
— cydonia.
Quassia simaruba.
Quercus cerris.
— robur.
— suber.
Rheum rhaponticum.
Rhodiola rosea.
Rhododendron chrysanthum.
Rhus coriaria.
— typhinum.
Rosa alba.
— canina.
— centifolia.
— damascena.
— gallica.
Rubia tinctorum.
Rumex acetosa.
— acutus.

Rumex alpinus.
— crispus.
— hydrolapathum.
— patientia.
— sanguineus.
— scutatus.
Ruscus aculeatus.
— hypoglossum.
Salix alba.
— amygdalina.
— caprea.
— fragilis.
— pentandria.
— vitulina.
Sanguisorba officinalis.
Sanicula Europæa.
Sorbus aucuparia.
— domestica.
Spiræa filipendula.
— ulmaria.
Stachis annua.
— recta.
Statice limonium.
Swietenia febrifuga.
— mahogani.
Tamarix gallica.
Thea bohea.
— viridis.
Tormentilla erecta.
Ulmus campestris.
Vaccinium myrtillus.
Verbena officinalis.
Viscum album.

2. *Bitter adstringents.*
Vide *Bitter Styptics.*

3. *Animal adstringents.*
Coccus lacca.
Cynips quercus.
— rosæ.

4. *Metallic and other adstringents.*
a. Oxydum arsenici.
— cupri.
— ferri.
— plumbi.
— zinci.
— wismuthi.
b. Acetis ferri.
— zinci.
c. Sulfas cupri.
— ferri.
— zinci.
d. Tartris ferri.
e. Vinum rubrum.
Alkohol.
f. Acida.
Acidum acetosum.
— gallicum.
— sulfuricum dilut.
— muriaticum oxygenatum.
g. Alumen.
h. Aquæ minerales ferruginosæ.
Sedimentum earundem.
i. Aqua frigida.
Glacies.
Balnea frigida.
Fotus frigidi.
Embrocationes frigidæ.
Affusio frigida.

III. ALEXIPHARMACS.

I. AGAINST VEGETABLE POISONS.

1. *Against narcotic poisons.*
a. Acidum citri.
Acida mineralia aqua diluta.
Acidum muriatic. oxygenatum.
Murias hyperoxygenatus potassæ.
Coffeæ infusum saturatum.
b. Emetica.
c. *Externally:*
Emetica epigastrio frictione adplicata.
Enemata irritantia.

2. *Against acrid poisons.*
a. Emetica.
b. Diluentia.
Aqua tepida.
c. Mucilaginosa.
d. Oleosa.
Lac.
Ova.
e. Acida.
f. Alkalia.

3. *Against poisonous funguses.*
a. Emetica.
b. Cathartica.
c. Haustus aquæ gelidæ.
d. Æther.

II. AGAINST ANIMAL POISONS.

1. *Against the bite of poisonous serpents.*
a. Aristolochia anguicida.
— serpentaria.
Ophioxylum serpentinum.
Polygala senega.
Strychnos colubrina.
— nux vomica.
Fraxinus excelsior (succus foliorum).
Atropa belladona.
Gentiana lutea?
b. Carbonas ammoniacæ.
c. Oxygenantia?

1. *Externally;*
Excisio.
Sectio.
Aduſtio.
Oxygenantia?
Cauſticum.
Lotio alkalina.
Oleum olivarum.
Saccharum.

2. *Againſt the bite of rabid animals.*
Internally:
Hydrargyri præparata ad ptyalismum?
Litta veſicatoria.
Meloë majalis.
— proſcarabæus.
Oxygenantia?
Alkalina?
Externally:
Excisio.
Aduſtio.
Oxygenantia?
Murias ſtibii oxygenatus.
Potaſſa.
Veſicans.
Inſpiratio gazis, acidi carbonici, azoti, vel hydrogenii?

3. *Againſt the ſting of inſects.*
Aduſtio.
Excisio.
Ammoniaca.
Acidum acetoſum.
Oleum olivarum.
Oleum camphoratum.
Alkohol camphoratum.
Acetis plumbi liquidus.

4. *Againſt animal poiſons taken into the ſtomach.*
a. Emetica.
b. Succus citri.
Acetum.
Acidum nitricum dilut.
— muriaticum oxygenatum.
Murias hyperoxygenatus potaſſæ.
c. Involventia.

III. AGAINST MINERAL POISONS.

1. *Againſt mercurial, antimonial, arſenical oxyds and ſalts.*
a. Decoctum cinchonæ, quercus, aliarumque plantarum principio adſtringente fœtarum.
b. Opium.
c. Oleoſa et mucilaginoſa.
Lac-butyrum.
Oleum ricini.
Enemata oleoſa.
d. Emetica.
e. Cathartica.
f. Sales alkalina.
Aquæ min. alkalinæ.
g. Sulfureta alkalina.
Thermæ ſulphureæ.

IV. ANTIMEPHITIC ALEXIPHARMICS.

1. *Againſt putrid vapors.*
Externally:
Vapor acidi acetici.
— — acetoſi.
— — muriatici.
— — — oxygenati.
— ætheris acetoſi.
Gaz oxygenium inflatum.
Internally:
Acidum nitricum.
— muriaticum oxygenatum.
Murias hyperoxygenatus potaſſæ.
Alkohol.
Vinum.

2. *Againſt acid vapors.*
Odor ammoniacæ aut ſuccinatis ammoniacæ.
Internally:
Antacida.

3. *Againſt the vapor of hydrogen, azotic, or carbonic gazes.*
a. Reſpiratio aut inflatio aeris oxygenio abundantis.
b. Odor ammoniacæ.
c. Frictiones corporis calidæ.

IV. ALTERANTS.

a. *Vegetables.*
Antirrhinum linaria.
Arctium lappa.
Carex arenaria.
Carlina acaulis.
Ceanothus Americanus.
Ciſſampelos pareira.
Daphne mezereum.
Eupatorium cannabin.
Galium aparine.
Guajacum officinale.
Inula helenium.
Juglans regia.
Juniperus communis.
Ledum paluſtre.
Lepidium iberis.
Lichen caninus.
Phellandrium aquatic.
Prunus padus.
Rhododendron chryſanthum.
Rubia tinctorum.
Scrophularia nodoſa.
Sium nodiflorum.
Smilax China.
— ſarſaparilla.
Solanum dulcamara.

Ulmus campeſtris.
Viola tricolor.
Xanthium Strumarium.
Zoſtera marina.

b. *Animals.*

Coluber vipera.
— berus.
Lacerta agilis.
— iguana.
Diæta ex cancris, oſtreis, ranis, teſtudinibus.

c. *Minerals.*

Carbonas ammoniacæ.
Carbonas potaſſæ.
— ſodæ.
Sulfureta alkalina.
Arſenici præparata.
Hydrargyri præparata.
Stibii præparata.
Murias barytæ.
— calcis.
Sales neutri.
Sulphur.

d. Antiſcorbutica.
e. Antiſyphilitica.
f. Deobſtruentia.
g. Oxygenantia.
h. Deoxygenantia.
i. Aqua marina.
k. Balneum marinum.
Balnea calida.
— fervida.
Balneum vaporis.
l. Aquæ min. acidulæ.
— — alkalinæ.
— — ferruginoſæ.
— — ſalinæ.
Thermæ ſimplices.
— alkalinæ.
— ſulphureæ.

V. BITTERS.

a. *Pure bitters.*

Aloë perfoliata, ſpicata, etc.
Bilis taurina.
Calendula officinalis.
Carduus marianus.
Centaurea benedicta.
— calcitrappa.
Chærophyllum ſylveſt.
Cichorium intybus.
Columbo radix.
Cucumis colocynthis.
Fumaria bulboſa.
— officinalis.
Gentiana amarella.
— aſclepiadea.
— centaurium.
— cruciata.
— lutea.
— purpurea.
Globularia alypum.
Hieracium piloſella.
Humulus lupulus.
Leonurus cardiaca.
Lupinus albus.
Menyanthes trifoliata.
Myrica gale.
Ophiorrhiza mungos.
Ophioxylum ſerpentinum.
Polygala amara.
Phyſalis alkekengi.
Quaſſia amara.
Sapindus ſaponaria.
Serratula amara.
Sophora heptaphylla.

b. *Styptic bitters.*

Achras ſapota.
Ajuga pyramidalis.
Brucea ferruginea s. antidyſenterica.
Capparis ſpinoſa.
Cinchona anguſtifolia.
— carybæa.
— corymbifera.
— floribunda.
— officinalis.
— Tecamez.
Cortex Chinæ flavus.
— — ruber.
— — Surinamenſis.
Croton caſcarilla.
Cupreſſus ſempervirens.
Ilex aquifolium.
— caſſine.
Lichen iſlandicus.
— pulmonarius.
Polypodium filix mas.
— vulgare.
Quaſſia ſimaruba.

Rhamnus frangula.
Rheum palmatum,
— rhaponticum.
Rheum undulatum.
Rhodendron chryſanthum.
Swietania mahogani.
— febrifuga.

c. *Aromatic bitters.*

Achillea millefolium.
— ageratum.
— atrata.
— moſchata.
Anthemis cotula.
— nobilis.
Citrus aurantium.
— medica.
Coſtus arabicus.
Ariſtolochia clematitis.
— longa.
— rotunda.
— odoratiſſima.
— ſerpentaria.
— trilobata.
Artemiſia abrotanum.
— abſynthium.
— campeſtris.
— dracunculus.
— maritima.
— rupeſtris.
— vulgaris.
Hyſſopus officinalis.

Matricaria chamomilla

Matricaria parthenium.
Hedera helix.
Mentha auricularis.
— crispa.
Santalum album.
Santolino chamæcyparissus.
Spilanthus acmella.
Sigesbeckia orientalis.
Tanacetum balsamita.
— vulgare.
Teucrium capitatum.
— chamædrys.
Teucrium chamæpitys.
— creticum.
— marum.
— polium.
— scordium.

d. *Acrid bitters.*
Allamanda cathartica.
Aloëxylum verum.
Anagyris fœtida.
Artemisia santonica.
Coris Monspellienſis.
Cucumis colocynthis.
Momordica elaterium.
Nerium antidysenteric.
Polygala senega.
Strychnos colubrina.
— nux vomica.
— volubilis.
Caffine peragua.
Gratiola officinalis.
Laserpitium latifolium.
Chiledonium majus.
Eupatorium cannabin.
Scutellaria galericulata.
Menispermum cocculus.

VI. ANALEPTICS.

a. Vinum.
Alkohol.
Æther.
— alkoholisatus.
Bromelia ananas.
Choccolada.
Epidendrum vanilla.
Laurus cinnamomum.
Panax quinquefolium.
Sium ninsi.
b. Odorifera grata.
Acetum.
Æther acetosus.
c. Aromatica.
d. Cardiaca.
e. Nervina.
f. Nutrientia eupepta.
g. Fructus acido dulces, eorumque præparata.
h. Saccarum, et saccharina.
i. Syrupus aceti rubri idæi.

ANODYNES, vide *SEDATIVES.*

VII. ANTACIDS,

a. *Earths:*
Calx.
Aqua calcis.
Conchæ aut testæ calcinatæ.
Magnesia.
Carbonas magnesiæ.
Carbonas calcis.
Cancrorum lapides.
— chelæ.
Ostrearum conchæ.
Ovorum testæ.
Creta.
Marmor album.
Corallia alba.
— rubra.
Os sepiæ officinalis.
b. *Alkalis:*
Ammoniaca.
Potassa.
Soda.
Carbonas ammoniacæ.
— potassæ.
— sodæ.
Borax.
Sapo.
Salsolæ species.
Spongia offic. usta.
Xanthium strumarium.
Zostera marina.
Balnea cum potassa aut soda.
Thermæ alkalinæ.
c. Amara.
Aloë.
Cinchona cum aqua calcis.
Rheum.
d. Ferri præparata.
Aquæ min. ferruginosæ.
e. Antizymica.
Acidum sulphuricum.
f. Acria volatilia.
g. Diæta animalis, præcipue ex piscibus, avibus, ferris.
h. Vinum generos. Hungaricum, Hispanicum.
i. Abstinentia ab accescentibus; vinis acidulis; acidis.

VIII. ANTHELMINTICS.

a. *Vegetable s.*
Allium cepa.
— ſativum.
Aloe perfoliata.
Aloexylum verum.
Amygdalus amara.
— perſica.
Artemiſia ſantonica.
Bankſia Abyſſinica.
Bryonia alba.
— dioica.
Cambogia gutta.
Chenopodium ambroſioides.
— anthelminthicum.
Conferva s. fucus helminthochorton.
Convolvulus jalappa.
Cortex angelinæ.
Cucumis colocynthis.
Cyclamen Europæum.
Daucus carota?
Delphinum ſtaphyſagria.
Dictamnus albus.
Dolichos?
Ferula aſſa fœtida.
Geoffroya inermis.
— Surinamenſis.
Gratiola officinalis.
Helleborus niger.
Hypericum perforatum.
Inula helenium.
Juglans regia.
Juniperus ſabina.
Kaempferia rotunda.
Labradia prurieus.
— urens.
Laurus camphora.
Lichen aphthoſus.
Marrubium vulgare.
Menyanthes trifoliata.
Nepeta cataria.
Nigella ſativa.
Polypodium filix mas.
Pteris aquilina.
Punica granatum.
Rhamnus frangula.
Rheum palmatum.
Ricinus communis.
Ruta graveolens.
Santolina chamæcyparifſus.
Saponaria officinalis.
Scrophularia nodoſa.
Senecio vulgaris.
Siſymbrium ſophia.
Spigelia anthelmia.
— Marilandica.
Strychnos colubrina.
— nux vomica.
— volubilis.
Tanacetum vulgare.
Teucrium ſcordium.
Valeriana celtica.
— officinalis.
— phu.
Veratrum album.
— nigrum.
— ſabadilla.

b. *Minerals.*
1. Murias hydrargyri.
Sulfuretum hydrargyri nigrum.
2. Sulfas ferri.
Aquæ min. ferruginoſæ.
3. Stannum raſum, aut ſemi-oxydatum.

c. *Externally:*
Frictiones ventris cum anthelminthicis.
Enemata cum anthelminthicis.
— cum muriatæ ſodæ.
Concuſſio electrica.

ANTICACHECTICS, vide *ALTERANTS.*
ANTIDOTES, vide *ALEXIPHARMICS.*

IX. ANTISCORBUTICS.

a. *Acrids.*
Allium cepa.
— ſativum.
— ſcordopraſum.
— victorialis.
Braſſica eruca.
— rapa.
Cardamine pratenſis.
Cochlearia amoracia.
— officinalis.
Crambe orientalis.
Dentaria pentaphyllos.
Erigeron acre.
Eryſimum alliaria.
— barbarea.
— officinale.
Galium aparine.
Lepidium iberis.
— ſativum.
Petivera alliacea.
Raphanus ſativus.
Saxifraga granulata.
Scilla maritima.
Sinapis alba.
Sinapis nigra.
Syſimbrium naſturtium.
— tenuifolium.
Thlapſi arvenſe.

b. *Acids and aceſcentis.*
Acidum citricum.
— oxalicum.
— tartaroſum.
Succus citri.
Fructus acidi.
Omphacium.

Braſſica oleracea fermentata.
Oxalis acetoſella.
Rumex acetoſa.
Cereviſia fermentans.
Vinum Campaniæ fermentans.
— Rhenanum, Moſellanum, etc.
Turiones pini.
Aqua picea.
Diæta vegetabilis.

c. *Sweets, and acid ſweets.*

Saccharum.
Mel.
Fructus horræi.
Decoctum malti.

d. *Bitters.*

Menyanthes trifoliata.
Cinchona officinalis, etc.

e. *Oxygenants.*

X. ANTISEPTICS.

a. Arnica montana.
Camphora.
Cinchona.
Daucus carota.
Fraxinus excelſior.
Geum urbanum.
Ruta graveolens.
Teucrium ſcordium.
b. Acida mineralia.
— vegetabilia.
Plantæ acidulæ.
Oxalis acetoſella.
Rumex acetoſa.
Fructus acidi et acidodulces.
Berberis vulgaris.
Vaccinium myrtillus.
Citrus medica.
— aurantium, etc.
c. Dulcia.
Fructus dulces.
Mel.
Oxymel.
Saccharum.
Infuſum malti.
d. Liquida fermentata.
Vinum.
Cereviſia.
Alkohol.
e. Oxygenantia.
f. Amara.
g. Acria volatilia.
h. Balſamica et reſinoſa.
i. Aromatica.
k. Adſtringentia.
l. Sales neutri.
m. Diæta acidula vegetabilis.

XI. ANTISPASMODICS.

a. *Vegetables.*

1. Anagyris fœtida.
Anthemis cotula.
— nobilis.
Chenopodium vulvaria.
Citrus aurantium.
Cuminum cyminum.
Cymicifuga fœtida.
Cardamine pratenſis.
Convallaria majalis.
Eryngium fœtidum.
Galium mollugo.
— verum.
Hyoſciamus niger.
Iris fœtida.
Matricaria chamomilla.
— parthenium.
Malaleuca leucadendron.
Pæonia officinalis.
Papaver ſomniferum.
Paris quadrifolia
Prunus lauroceraſus.
Radix caſſumaniar.
Ruta graveolens.
Tilia Europæa.
Teucrium marum.
Valeriana celtica.
— officinalis.
— phu.
Viſcum album?
2. Gummi-reſinæ fœtidæ.
Ferula aſſa fœtida.
Bubon galbanum.
Sagapenum.
3. Camphora.
Opium.
Crocus.

b. *Animals.*

Ambra griſea.
Caſtoreum.
Moſchus.
Zibethum.
Olea empyreumatica.
Oleum animale dipelii.
— cornu cervi volatile.

c. *Minerals.*

1. Æther acetoſus.
— muriaticus.
— nitricus.
— ſulfuricus.
Æther alkololiſatus.
— — camphoratus.
Acida mineralia alkoholiſata.
2. Oleum petrolei.
— ſuccini.
3. Acidum ſulfuricum.
4. Carbonas ammoniacæ.
5. Ferri præparata varia.
Aquæ minerales ferruginoſæ.

6. Oxydum zinci.
— wiſmuthi.
Sulfas zinci.
d. Refrigerantia.
e. Emetica.
f. Cathartica.
g. Anthelminthica.
h. Deobſtruentia.
i. Roborantia.

k. *Externally*:
1. Odorifera fœtida.
Aſſa fœtida.
Caſtoreum.
Olea empyreumatica.
Fumus plumarum aût offium accenſorum.
2. Acetum concentrat.
Æther acetoſus.
3. Venæſectio.
4. Oleum camphoratum cum opio.
Linimentum ex opio et æthere.
5. Balnea calida.
Semicupia.
Pediluvia.
Vapor aquæ genitalibus admiſſus.
Fotus emollientes.
6. Frictiones aromaticæ.
7. Enemata varia.
8. Injectiones ex antiſpaſmodicis et emollientibus.
9. Balnea frigida.
10. Veſicantia.

XII. ANTISYPHILITICS.

a. *Vegetables.*
Agave Americana.
Arundo phragmitis.
Aſtragalus exſcapus.
Bubon Macedonicum.
Buxus ſempervirens.
Ceanothus Americanus.
Clematis recta.
Coris Monſpellienſis.
Daphne Mezereum.
— laureola.
Echitis ſyphilitica.
Euphorbia caneſcens.
— parvula.
Geum rivale.
Gratiola officinalis.
Guajacum officinale.
— ſanctum.
Juglans regia.
Laurus ſaſſafras.
Lobelia ſyphilitica.
— longiflora.
— tupa.
Lonicera Diervilla.
Plumeria alba.
Prunus padus.
Ranunculus abortivus.
Serratula amara.
Stillingia ſylvatica.

b. *Animals.*
Lacerta agilis.
— Iguana.

c. *Minerals.*
Hydrargyri oxyda.
Hydrargyri ſales varii.
Carbonas ammoniacæ.
— potaſſæ.
— ſodæ.

d. *Oxygenants?*

e. *Externally.*
Oxydum hydrargyri alb.
— — rubrum.
Murias hydrargyri.
Unguentum hydrargyri.
Balnea cum muriate oxygenato hydrargyri.
Frictiones cum hydrargyro.
Enemata —
Fumigationes —

XIII. APHRODISIACS.

a. Cineraria ſibirica.
Eryngium campeſtre.
Fraxinus excelſior.
Gladiolus communis.
Lycoperdon tuber.
Orchis morio, aliæque ſpecies.

b. *Aromatics.*
Caryophillus aromaticus.
Epidendrum vanilla.
Laurus cinnamomum.
Panax quinquefolium.
Satureja hortenſis.

c. *Animals.*
1. Ambra griſea.
Caſtoreum.
Coccus cacti.
— ilicis.
Lacerta iguana.
— ſcincus.
Lytta veſicatoria.
Moſchus.
Zibethum.
2. Carnes juniorum animalium.
Gelatinæ.
Oſtreæ.
Ova.
Piſces.
d. Quies mentis et corporis.

e. *Externally.*
1. Scrotum corrugantia.

Alchemilla vulgaris
Anthemis pyrethrum.
Cachris odontalgica.
Hedera helix.
Vinca minor.

2. Alkohol.
Æther alkoholisatus.
Vinum.
Acetum.

3. Vesicantia.

4. Frictiones variæ.
Unctiones aromaticæ.
Flagellatio.
Urticatio.

XIV. AROMATICS.

a. Acorus calamus.
Amomum cardamomum.
— zingiber.
Angelica Archangelica.
— sylvestris.
Aristolochia longa.
— odoratissima.
— rotunda.
— serpentaria.
— trilobata.
Arnica montana.
Artemisia abrotanum.
— rupestris.
— vulgaris.
Caryophillus aromaticus.
Cistus creticus.
Citrus aurantium.
— medica.
Cyperus longus.
— odoratus.
— rotundus.
Doronicum latifolium.
— pardalianches.
Dracocephalum Canarienſe.
Fagara pterota.
Gnaphalium arenarium.
— dioicum.
Kaempferia rotunda.
Laurus cassia.
Laurus cinnamomum.
— culilawan.
— nobilis.
— pecurim.
— sassafras.
Lavandula spica.
— stoechas.
Melissa calamintha.
— officinalis.
Melittis melissophyllum.
Mentha auricularis.
— cervina.
— crispa.
— piperita.
— pulegium.
— sativa.
— Sylvestris.
— viridis.
Maranta galanga.
Marrubium vulgare.
Melaleuca leucadendron.
Monarda fistulosa.
Myristica moschata.
Myrtus caryophillata.
— communis.
— pimenta.
Ocymum basilicum.
Origanum creticum.
— dictamnus.
— majorana.
Origanum syriaticum.
— vulgare.
Pimpinella anisum.
— magna.
Rosmarinus officinalis.
Santalum album.
Santolina chamæcyparissus.
Satureja capitata.
— hortensis.
Salvia officinalis.
Tenacetum balsamita.
— vulgare.
Valeriana officinalis.
Wintera aromatica.
— canella.
Teucrium chamædrys.
— chamæpitys.
— marum.
Thymus serpillum.
— vulgaris.

b. Aromatica acria.
Vide *Aromatic acrids.*

c. Aromatica amara.
Vide *Aromatic bitters.*

d. Aromatica resinosa.
Vide *Resinosus Stimulants.*

e. Carminativa.

XV. BALSAMICS.

Amyris elemifera.
— zeylonica.
Balsamum de mecca?
Gummi resina bdellium.
Liquidambar styraciflua.
Myroxyllum peruiferum.
Styrax Benzoin.
— officinalis.
Toluifera balsamum.

XVI. CORDIALS.

a. Andropogon nardus.
Ariſtolochia ſerpentaria.
Laurus cinnamomum.
Panax quinquefolium.
Sium ninſi.
Teucrium marum.
b. Aromatica.
c. Neutrientia.
Diæta lenta.
d. Oxygenantia.
e. Roborantia.
f. Stimulantia.
g. Analeptica.
Vinum generoſum.
Alkohol.
Cereviſia generoſa.
h. Opium.
i. Oxygenantia.
k. *Externally:*
a. Aër purus.
Reſpiratio gazis oxygenii.
b. Enemata aromatica.
— nutrientia.
— alkoholiſata.
c. Balnea aromatica.
— alkoholiſata.
d. Frictiones corporis.

XVII. CARMINATIVES.

Æthuſa meum.
Ammi copticum?
— majus.
Amomum cardamomum.
— granum paradiſi.
— zingiber.
Anethum graveolens.
— fœniculum.
Andropogon ſchœnanthus.
Apium graveolens.
— petroſelinum.
Bubon Macedonicum.
Carum carvi.
Chenopodium ambroſioides.
— botrys.
Ciſtus creticus.
Coriandrum ſativum.
Cuminum cyminum.
Ferula aſſa fœtida.
Illicium aniſatum.
Juniperus communis.
Lagoecia cuminoides.
Laſerpitium latifolium.
— ſiler.
Liguſticum leviſticum.
Melaleuca leucadendron.
Panax quinquefolium.
Paſtinaca opopanax.
Pimpinella aniſum.
— magna.
— ſaxifraga.
Santolina chamæcypariſſus.
Semen adiowaen.
Scrophularia aquatica.
— nodoſa.
Siſon ammi.
— amomum.
Sium ninſi.
Tordylium officinale.
Wintera aromatica.
— canella.
b. *Acrid aromatics.*
c. *Bitter aromatics.*
d. Frictiones abdominis ſimplices vel aromaticæ.
e. Exercitium.
f. Diæta eupepta.
g. Alkohol et alkoholiſata.
Vinum generoſum.
h. Æther.
— alkoholiſatus.
i. Acidum ſulfuricum.
— — alkoholiſatum.
Acidum nitricum alkoholiſatum.
k. Alkalia.
l. Magneſia.
m. *Mild cathartics.*
n. Ferri præparata.

XVIII. CATHARTICS.

I. *The more mild.*

a. Caſſia alata.
— fiſtula.
— ſenna.
Cichorium endivia.
Prunus domeſtica.
Spinacia oleracea.
Thalictrum flavum.
Fructus acido-dulces crudi vel cocti.
Manna.
Oleum ſeminum ricini communis.
b. Infuſum coffeæ.

c. Aquæ frigidæ hauſtus omnni mane aut veſperi.
d. Emetica refracta dorſi.
e. *Minerals:*
Sulphur.
Magneſia.
Carbonas magneſiæ.
Sulfas magneſiæ.
— potaſſæ.
Sulfas ſodæ.
Tartris potaſſæ.
— ſodæ.
Phoſphas ſodæ, aliique ſales neutri.
Aquæ minerales ſalinæ.
f. Frictio abdominis cum catharticis acrioribus.
g. Enemata varia.
h. Aſperſio ventris nudi e longinguo aqua frigida.
Frictio ventris.
i. Lotio manuum in ſolutione muriatis oxygenati ſtibii aquoſa.

II. *Draſtics.*

Allamanda cathartica.
Aloë perfoliata.
— ſpicata.
Agaricus muſcarius.
Anagyris fœtida.
Aſarum Europæum.
Boletus laricinus.
Bryonia alba.
— dioica.
Buxus ſempervirens.
Cambogia gutta.
Carthamus tinctorius.
Caſſia ſenna.
Caſſine peragua.
Colchicum autumnale.
Convallaria majalis.
Convolvulus jalappa.
— ſepium.
— ſcammonia.
Convolvulus ſoldanella.
— turpethum.
Croton tiglium.
Cucumis colocynthis.
Cyclamen Europæum.
Delphinium ſtaphyſagria.
Digitalis purpurea.
Euphorbiæ ſpecies.
Gratiola officinalis.
Guttæfera vera.
Helleborus niger.
Iridis ſpecies.
Linum catharticum.
Lycopodium ſelago.
Mercurialis annua.
Momordica elaterium.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Pencæa ſarcocolla?
Phyllanthus emblica.
Polygala ſenega.
Rhamnus catharticus.
— frangula.
Rheum palmatum.
— rhaponticum.
— undulatum.
Sambucus ebulus.
Veratrum album.
— nigrum.
Viola tricolor.
b. Sales neutri.
c. Enemata acriora.
Fumus aut decoctum nicotianæ tabaci.
Decoctum mercurialis annuæ.

CEPHALICS, vide *NERVINES.*

XIX. CORROSIVES.

a. Allium cepa.
— ſativum.
Aloëxylum verum.
Anacardium occidentale.
Anemone nemoroſa.
— pratenſis.
Arum maculatum.
Bryonia alba.
Capſicum annuum.
Clematis recta.
Daphnes ſpecies.
Droſera rotundifolia.
Euphorbiæ ſpecies.
Juniperus ſabina.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Phytolacca decandra.
Plumbago Europæa.
Polygonum hydropiper.
Ranunculi ſpecies.
Ruta graveolens.
Semecarpus anacardium.
Sinapis alba.
— nigra.
Lytta veſicatoria.
b. *Acria varia.*
c. *Mineralia.*
Cauſtica ſtricte ſic dicta.
Ammoniaca.
Potaſſa.
Soda.
Calx.
Alumen fuſum.
Acidum muriaticum.
— nitricum.
— ſulphuricum.
Murias oxygenatus hydrargyri.
— — ſtibii.

Nitras argenti.
Sulfas cupri.
Oxydum arſenici.
Oxydum cupri.
— ferri rubrum.
— hydrargyri rubrum.
Ferrum candens.
Moxa.

XX. DEBILITANTS.

a. Diæta tenuis, vegetabilis.
Acida vegetabilia diluta.
Aquoſa tepida.
b. Refrigerantia.
c. Deoxygenantia.
d. Narcotica.
e. Nauſeantia.
Scilla maritima.
Digitalis purpurea, etc.
f. Cathartica repetita, et ſalium neutrorum uſus diutius continuatus.
g. Plumbi præparata.
h. Reſpiratio aeris gaze azoto, hydrogenio aut acido carbonico abundantis.
Reſpiratio ætheris ſulfurici.
Halitus putridi aut mephitici.
Secluſio in ſtabulis, aut loco humido aere non perflato.
i. Affectus animi triſtes.
k. Abuſus veneris.
— liquorum fermentatorum.
— opii, aliorumque narcoticorum.
Labor nimius.
Vita otioſa ſedentaria.
Defectus exercitii ſolitii.
l. Balnea frigida diutius adplicata.
Balneorum tepidorum abuſus.
m. Calor atmoſphæræ magnus.
Ventus auſtralis, præcipue ex deſertis Africæ.
n. Evacuationes ſanguineæ.
— gelatinoſæ vel mucilaginoſæ.
Fonticuli.

XXI. DEMULCENTS.

a. *Gelatinous.*
Gelatina cornu cervi.
— vitulina, etc.
Ichthyocolla accipenſerum.
Ova.
Helix pomatia.
Limax maximus.
b. *Mucilaginous.*
c. *Oiley.*
Olea veget. fixa.
Adipes et olea animalia.
d. *Sweet.*
Saccharum.
Mel.
Glycyrriza glabra.
— echinata.
Ficus carica.
Rhamnus zyzyphus.
e. *Externally.*
Cataplaſmata.
Fotus.
Frictiones oleoſæ.
— mucilaginoſæ.
Balnea calida.
Vapor aquæ.

XXII. DEOBSTRUENTS.

Chærophyllum ſylveſtre.
Chelidonium majus.
Cichorium intybus.
Cicuta viroſa.
Cimicifuga fœtida?
Conium maculatum.
Cucumis colycynthis.
Curcuma longa?
Cuſcuta epithymum.
— Europæa.
Ferula aſſa fœtida.
Gummi-reſina ammon.
— ſagapenum.
Fucus veſiculoſus.
Fumaria bulboſa.
— officinalis.
Gypſophilla ſtruthium.
Helleborus fœtidus.
— niger.
— viridis.
Iridis ſpecies.
Leontodon taraxacum.
Menyanthes trifoliata.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Panicum dactylum.
Polygala ſenega.

Prunus laurocerasus.
Rheum palmatum.
Sapindus saponaria.
Saponaria officinalis.
Scandix cerefolium.
Triticum repens.
b. Mel.
c. Vitellus ovi.
d. Amara.
e. Stomachica.
f. Alkalia.
g. Sales neutri.
h. — terrestres.
i. Præparata ferri.
— hydrargyri.
— stibii.
k. Thermæ alkalinæ.
— sulphureæ.
l. Aquæ minerales ferruginosæ.
— — salinæ.
— — acidulæ.
m. Frictiones simplices, et aromatisatæ.
n. Embrocatio.
o. Enemata varia.
p. Exercitium.

XXIII. DEOXYGENANTS.

1. Alkalia.
2. Sulfureta alkalina.
Sulfuretum ammoniacæ.
— potassæ.
3. Aquæ min. sulfureæ.
— — alkalinæ.
4. Respirario aeris azoto, hydrogenio, aut acido carbonico abundantis.
5. Seclusio in loco angusto ubi aer atmosphæricus non satis renovatur.
6. Adstringentia.
Decoctum cinchonæ.
Decoctum corticum viridium nucum juglandis.
— quercus, etc.
7. Diæta animalis.
8. Quies corporis.
9. Prunus laurocerasus ?
Digitalis purpurea ?

DIAPHORETICS, vide *SUDORIFICS.*

XXIV. DIURETICS.

a. Anemone pratensis.
Antirrhinum linaria.
Apium petroselinum.
Arum maculatum.
Asarum Europæum.
Asclepias vincetoxicum.
Asparagus officinalis.
Carthamus tinctorius.
Cissampelos pareira.
Clematis recta.
— vitalba.
Conium maculatum.
Copaifera officinalis.
Croton tiglium.
Colchicum Illyricum.
— autumnale.
Crysanthemum leucanthemum.
Cucumis colocynthis.
Curcuma longa.
Cynara scolymus.
Digitalis purpurea.
Equisetum arvense.
Equisetum hyemale.
Eryngeum campestre.
— fœtidum.
Eupatorium cannabinum.
Fragaria vesca.
Fraxinus excelsior.
Genista tinctoria.
Helleborus niger.
— viridis.
Iris florentina.
— fœtida.
— germanica.
— pseud-acorus.
— tuberosa.
Juniperus communis.
— sabina.
Lactuca scariola.
— virosa.
Linnæa borealis.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Ononis arventis.
— spinosa.
Parietaria officinalis.
Physalis alkekengi.
Polygala senega.
Polygonum hydropiper.
Pimpinella saxifraga.
Radix caligualæ.
— timac.
Rhamnus catharticus.
— frangula.
Ranunculus ficaria.
Ribes nigrum.
Rubia tinctorum.
Ruta graveolens.
Sambucus ebulus.
— nigra.
Saxifraga granulata.
Scandix cerefolium.
Scilla maritima.
Solanum dulcamara.
Solidago virga aurea.
Spartium scoparium.
Spilanthus acmella.
Strychnos nux vomica.

Toluifera balſamum.
Triticum repens.
Tropæolum majus.
Viola odorata.
— tricolor.
b. Acida vegetabilia.
c. — mineralia.
d. Æther ſulfuricus.
Acidum muriaticum alcoholiſatum.
— nitric. alcoholiſat.
e. Alkalia.
f. Sales neutri, refracta doſi.
Acetis potaſſæ.
— ſodæ.
Tartris potaſſæ acidulus.
— potaſſæ.
— ſodæ.
g. Sales terreſtris.
Murias et acetis calcis.
— — — barytæ.
h. Amara.
i. Acria volatilia.
k. Reſinoſa.
l. Balſamica.
m. Cathartica acriora.
n. Fricțio ventris cum ſcilla maritima.
— — cum oleo.
o. Frigus corporis ſuperficiei adplicatum.
p. Lytta veſicatoria ſub varia forma.
q. Oniſcus aſellus.

ECCOPROTICS, vide *CATHARTICS.*

EMMENAGOGUES, vide *MENAGOGUES.*

XXV. EMETICS.

a. Allium cepa.
Aſarum Europæum.
Betonica officinalis.
Cochlearia armoracia.
Colchicum autumnale.
— Illyricum.
Croton tiglium.
Digitalis purpurea.
Erigeron acre.
Gratiola officinalis.
Helleborus niger.
Momordica elaterium.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Pſycotria emetica.
Ranunculus flammula.
— lingua.
Sambucus ebulus.
Scilla maritima.
Sinapis alba.
— nigra.
Strychnos colubrina.
— nux vomica.
— volubilis.
Veratum album.
— nigrum.
Viola canina.
— ipecacuanha.
— odorata.
b. Amara.
c. Cathartica acria.
d. *Metallic.*
Oxydum hydrargyri luteum.
Tartris potaſſæ acidulus ſtibiatus.
Stibii præparata varia.
Sulfas zinci.
e. Aqua deſtillata ranunculi flammulæ aut linguæ.
Aqua calida.
f. Applicatio nicotianæ tabaci regioni epigaſtricæ.
Fricțio epigaſtrii cum emeticis mediante ſaliva.
Enema ex decocto tabaci.
g. Irritatio faucium mechanica.
h. Motus vertiginoſus.

XXVI. EMOLLIENTS.

a. Gelatinoſa.
b. Mucilaginoſa.
c. Oleoſa.
d. Aqua calida.
Balnea calida.
Thermæ.
Vapor aquæ.
— aceti.
Embrocatio.
Cataplaſmata.
Fotus.

EPISPATICS, vide *CORROSIVES.*

XXVII. ERRHINES.

a. Achillea ptarmica.
Afarum Europæum.
Beta vulgaris?
Betonica officinalis?
Calendula officinalis.
Convallaria majalis.
Euphorbia offic. (gummi-refina).
Guajacum officinale.
Iridis fpecies.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Nigella fativa.
Origanum majorana.
Primula veris.
Salvia fclarea.
Sinapis alba.
Sinapis nigra.
Teucrium marum.
Veratrum album.
— nigrum.
b. Acidum benzoicum.
Ammoniaca.
Succinus ammoniacæ.
Sulfas hydrargyri.

EXCITANTS, vide *CARDIACS & NERVINES.*

XXVIII. EXPECTORANTS.

a. Arum maculatum.
Afclepias afthmatica.
Caffine paragua.
Erysimum officinale.
Gummi-refina ammon.
Glecoma hederacea.
Glycyrrhiza glabra.
Hedera helix.
Hyffopus officinalis.
Ilex caffine.
Inula helenium.
Iridis fpecies.
Marrubium vulgare.
Meliffa calamintha.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Peucedanum officinale.
Polygala amara.
— fenega.
Polypodium vulgare.
Rubia tinctorum.
Scilla maritima.
Styrax benzoin.
Thuya occidentalis.
Tuffilago farfara.
— petafites.
Veronica officinalis.
b. Emetica (refracta dofi)
Hydro-fulfur ftibii.
Carbonas ammoniacæ.
Citras ammoniacæ.
c. Demulcentia.
d. Balfamica et refinofa.
Acidum benzoicum.
Sulphur.
Petroleum.
Oleum fuccini.
f. Vapor aquæ.
— aceti.
Fumus balfamicorum.
g. Veficantia.
h. Opium (pro re nata).

XXIX. GALACTOPHORA.

a. Anethum fœniculum.
— graveolens.
Carum carvi.
Liguftifcum levifticum.
Nigella fativa.
Pimpinella anifum.
Scandix cerefolium.
b. Diæta nutriens.
Gelatinofa.
Farinacea.
Lac.
Cerevifia generofa.
Potus aquæ frequens.
c. Suctio.

HYPNOTICS, vide *SEDATIVES.*
INVOLVENTS, vide *DEMULCENTS.*
LACTIFERA, vide *GALACTOPHORA.*

XXX. MENAGOGUES.

Aloë perfoliata.
Artemifia abrotanum.
Afarum Europæum.
Adonis appenina.
Adonis verna.
Anagyris fœtida.
Andropogon fchœnanthus.
Ariftolochia clematitis.
— longa.
— rotunda.
Afphodelus ramofus?

Bromelia ananas.
Bryonia alba.
— dioica.
Coſtus arabicus.
Crocus ſativus.
Cucumis colocynthis.
Curcuma longa?
Cytiſus laburnum.
Cyclamen Europæum.
Helleborus fœtidus.
— niger.
Juniperus ſabina.
Lycopodium ſelago.
Maranta galanga.
Momordica elaterium.
Nepata cataria.
Nigella ſativa.
Onoſma echioides?
Origanum creticum.
— dictamnus.
Paſtinaca opopanax.
Pimpinella ſaxifraga.
Rubia tinctorum.
Ranunculus ſceleratus.
Ruta graveolens.
Satureja hortenſis.
Spilanthus acmella.
Strychnos nux vomica.
Tanacetum vulgare.
Teucrii ſpecies.
Thymus ſepyllum.
— vulgaris.
Veratrum album.
— nigrum.
b. Aromatica.
c. Cathartica acriora.
d. Stimulantia.
e. Gummi reſinæ fœtidæ.
f. Caſtoreum.
g. Hydrargyri oxyda et ſales varii.
h. Ferri præparata.
Aquæ minerales ferruginoſæ.
i. Thermæ variæ.
Balnea calida.
Semicupia.
Pediluvia.
Vapor aquæ.
k. Frictiones.
l. Phlebotomia.
m. Electricitas.

XXXI. MUCILAGINOSA.

a. Alcea roſea.
Althæa officinalis.
Aſtragalus gummifer.
— tragacantha.
Anchuſa officinalis.
Aquilegia vulgaris.
Aſphodelus ramoſus.
Avena ſativa.
Cactus opuntia.
Cannabis ſativa.
Ceratonia ſiliqua.
Ciſſampelos caapeba.
Convallaria polygonat.
Cordia mixa.
Fucus helminthocort.
Guilandina moringa.
Hordeum diſtichon.
— vulgare.
Leucoidum vernum, etc.
Lichen Iſlandicus.
Lilium candidum.
Linum uſitatiſſimum.
Malva alcea.
— rotundifolia.
— ſylveſtris.
Mimoſa Nilotica.
— ſenegal.
Ocymum baſilicum.
Œnanthe crocata.
Orchis Morio, etc.
Oryza ſativa.
Plantago pſyllium.
Pyrus cydonia (ſemen).
Prunus ceraſus (gummi).
Pentapetes muhucunda?
Populus nigra.
Scorzonera Hiſpanica.
Symphytum officinale.
Trigonella Fœnum græcum.
Tuſſilago farfara.
Verbaſcum thapſus.
Verbaſcum nigrum.
Viſcum album.
b. Farina avenæ.
— hordei.
— panici.
— phalaris.
— ſagu.
— ſecalis.
— tritici.
c. Dulcia.
Daucus carota.
Ficus carica.
Phœnix dactilifera.
Rhamnus jujuba.
— zyzyphus.
Saccharum officinarum.
Mel.
d. Gelatinoſa.
Gelatina cornu cervi, etc.
Ichthyocolla.

XXXII. NARCOTICS.

a. Amygdalus amara.
— perſica.
Anethum graveolens.
Atropa belladona.
Atropa mandragora.
Cicuta viroſa.
Colchicum autumnale.
— illyricum.
Conium maculatum.
Convallaria majalis.
Crocus ſativus.
Cynogloſſum officinale.

Datura ſtramonium,
Humulus lupulus.
Hyoſciamus albus.
— niger.
Jaſminum officinale.
Lactuca ſcariola.
— viroſa.
Ledum paluſtre.
Laurus camphora.
Mercurialis annua,
Myrica gale.
Myriſtica moſchata.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Nymphæa alba.
— lutea.
Pæonia officinalis.
Paris quadrifolia.
Papaver rhœas.
— ſomniferum.
Prunus avium.
— laurocerafus.
Sambucus ebulus,
Solanum nigrum.
Stachys ſylvatica.
Strychnos nux vomica.
— volubilis ?
Thea Bohea,
— viridis.
b. Vinum et liquores fermentati (majori doſi).
Alkohol.
Opium (majori doſi).

XXXIII. NERVINES.

a. Ammi copticum ?
Caſſumaniar (radix).
Camphoroſma Monſpelienſis.
Chenopodium ambroſioides.
Cheyranthus cheiri.
Citrus aurantium.
Coffea Arabica.
— occidentalis.
Dictamnus albus.
Dracocephalum canarienſe.
— Moldavicum.
Epidendrum vanilla.
Geranium moſchatum.
Gnaphalium arenarium.
Hymenæa courbaril.
Jubabæ (cortex).
Kikekunemalo (gummireſina).
Laurus, camphora.
Lavandula ſpica.
— ſtoechas.
Melaleuca leucadendron.
Meliſſa officinalis.
Monarda fiſtuloſa.
Nepeta cataria.
Polypodium fragrans.
Roſmarinus officinalis.
Salvia officinalis.
— ſclarea.
Satureja capitata.
— hortenſis.
Teucrium marum.
— Syriacum.
Thymus ſerpyllum.
— vulgaris.
Valeriana officinalis.
— phu.
b. Balſamica.
c. *Animals.*
Fiber caſtor.
Moſchus moſchiferus.
Vivera zibethum.
Ambra griſea.
d. Vinum.
Alkohol.
e. Æther.
— alkoholiſatus.
— — camphoratus.
f. Opium.
g. *Externally.*
Odorifera grata.
— fœtida.
Oleum animale.
Veſicantia.
Unguenta varia.
Opium et opiata.
Balnea calida.

XXXIV. OLEOSA.

a. Amygdalus communis.
— nana.
— perſica.
Braſſica rapa.
Cannabis ſativa.
Cocos butyracea.
— nucifera.
Corylus avellana.
Cucumis melo.
— ſativus.
Cucurbita citrullus.
— lagenaria.
— pepo.
Guilandina moringa.
Linum uſitatiſſimum.
Olea Europæa.
Papaver ſomniferum.
Piſtacia vera.
Seſamum orientale.
Semecarpus anacardium.
Theombroma cacao.
b. *Animals.*
Adeps.
Adipocera Phyſeterum.
Axungia ſuilla.
Butyrum.
Cera.
Lac.
Sevum ovillum.
Vitellus ovorum.

XXXV. OXYGENANTS.

a. Acidum nitricum.
— muriaticum oxygenatum.
Murias hyperoxygenatus potaſſæ.
b. Exercitium.
c. Reſpiratio aëris majori quantitate oxygenii mixti.
d. Thermæ minerales?

PAREGORICS, vide *SEDATIVES.*
PTARMICS, vide *ERRHINES.*
PURGATIVES, vide *CATHARTICS.*

XXXVI. REFRIGERANTS.

1. Caſſia fiſtula.
Lactuca ſativa.
Meſembryanthemum cryſtallinum.
Nymphæa alba.
— lutea.
Oxalis acetoſella.
Parietaria officinalis.
Portulacca oleracea.
Rumex acetoſa.
— ſcutatus.
Tamarindus Indica.
2. Fructus acido-dulces.
Morus nigra.
Prunus avium.
— ceraſus.
Pyrus communis.
— malus.
Ribes nigrum.
— rubrum.
Rubus arcticus.
— chamæmorus.
— idæus.
Sambucus nigra.
Vaccinium vitis idæa.
Vitis apyrena.
— vinifera.
3. Lac ebutyratum.
Serum lactis.
4. *Acids.*
Omphacium.
Vinum pomaceum.
Vinum Campaniæ, aqua dilutum.
Aquæ minerales acidulæ.
Acidum acetoſum.
Oxycratum.
Oxymel.
Syrupus aceti.
Acidum citricum dilutum.
Limonada.
Acidum tartaroſum.
— muriaticum alkoholiſatum dilutum.
5. *Neutral ſalts.*
Nitras potaſſæ.
— ſodæ.
Acetis potaſſæ.
— ſodæ.
Tartris ſodæ.
— potaſſæ.
— — acidulus.
6. Diæta levis.
7. Potus aquæ frigidæ copioſus.
8. *Externally.*
Balnea tepida.
— frigida.
Glacies.
Nix.
Fotus frigidi.
Pulvis nitratis potaſſæ aqua frequenter humectatus.
Murias ammoniacæ.
Acetum aqua dilutum.
Aëris acceſſus liber.

RELAXANTS, vide *EMOLLIENTS, OLEOSA & MUCILAGINOSA.*

XXXVII. RESOLVENTS.

1. Acria.
2. Adſtringentia.
3. Corroſiva.
4. Emollientia.
5. Refrigerantia.
6. Sedativa.
7. Stimulantia.
8. Evacuantia chirurgica.
9. Varia:
Linimentum ſaponaceum.
Linimentum ammoniacale.
Linimentum ex Petroleo et alkohole.
— ex gummi-reſina ammon. et aceto ſcilliticO.
Unguentum hydrargyri.
Vinum.
Alkohol.
Cereviſia generoſa.
Acetum.
Camphora.
Murias ammoniacæ.
Plumbi præparata varia.
Fotus frigidus.
Fotus calidi varii.
Embrocationes variæ.
Cataplaſmata varia.
Frictiones variæ.
Cucurbitæ.
Emetica.
Cathartica acriora.
Sudorifica.
Calor.
Vapor aquæ, aceti, etc.

XXXVIII. ROBORANTS.

1. Ventriculum et ſyſtema gaſtricum roborantia, vide *Stomachics.*
2. Syſtema arterioſum roborantia, vide *Cordials.*
3. Syſtema nervoſum roborantia, vide *Nervines*, *Analeptics*, *Antiſpaſmodics.*

Hinc pro re nata.
a. Amara ſtomachica.
b. Aromatica cardiaca.
c. Odorifera nervina.
d. Ferri præparata.
Aquæ minerales ferruginoſæ.
e. Oxygenantia.
f. Adſtringentia.
g. *Externally.*
Frictiones.
Exercitium.
Conſtrictio, ſeu Ligatura membrorum.
Balnea frigida.
— alkoholiſata.
— aromatica.
Fotus ex vino, alkohole.
Linimenta varia aromatica.

XXXIX. SEDATIVES.

a. Narcotica.
Opium.
Hyoſciamus.
b. Vinum.
Alkohol.
Æther.
Æther alkoholiſatus.
c. Camphora.
Æther camphoratus.
— alkoholiſatus camphoratus.
Acetum camphoratum.
d. Olea fixa.
e. Mucilaginoſa.
Gelatinoſa.
f. Refrigerantia.
g. Antiſpaſmodica.
h. *Externally.*
Æther.
Oxyda et ſales plumbi.
Friciones oleoſæ.
Alkohol camphoratum.
Oleum camphoratum.
Unguentum opiatum.
Emplaſtrum opiatum.
Enemata.
Fotus.
Cataplaſmata.
Thermæ.
Balnea calida.
Vapor aquæ.
— aceti.

XL. SIALAGOGES.

a. *Internally:*
Hydrargyri præparata.
Smilax China?
Murias hyperoxygenatus potaſſæ?
b. *Externally:*
Amomum zingiber.
Angelica Archangelica.
Anthemis pyrethrum.
Cathris odontalgica.
Caryophillus aromaticus.
Cochlearia armoracia.
Imperatoria oſtruthium.
Iridis ſpecies.
Nicotiana Tabacum.
Nigella ſativa.
Sinapis alba.
— nigra.
Polygala ſenega.
Gargariſma ex ſcilla.
— ex muriate ammoniacæ.

STHENICS, vide *ROBORANTS, STIMULANTS, CARDIACS,* and *NERVINES.*

XLI. STIMULANTS.

a. *Aromatics:*
Ammi copticum?
Amomum zingiber.
— cardamomum.
Ariſtolochia clematitis.
— longa.
— rotunda.
— odoratiſſima.
— ſerpentaria.
Ariſtolochia trilobata.
Angelica Archangelica.
Arnica montana.
Artemiſia abrotanum.
— campeſtris.
— dracunculus.
— glacialis.
— rupeſtris.
— vulgaris.
Capſicum annuum.
Carlina acaulis.
Coſtus Arabicus.
Croton caſcarilla.
Doronicum latifolium.
— pardalianches.
Dorſtenia contrayerva.
Ilex caſſine.
Illicium aniſatum.

Imperatoria oſtruthium.
Inula Helenium.
Kaempferia rotunda.
Laurus caſſia.
— cinnamomum.
— culilawan.
— nobilis.
— pecurim.
Lavandula ſpica.
— ſtoechas.
Liguſticum leviſticum.
Maranta galanga.
Malaleucaleucadendron.
Meliſſa calamintha.
— officinalis.
Mentha criſpa.
— pulegium.
Myrtus pimenta.
Origanum creticum.
— dictamnus.
Semen adiowaen.
— ajavæ.
Piper cubeba.
— longum.
— nigrum.
Roſmarinus officinalis.
Salvia ſclarea.
Tanacetum balſamita.
— vulgare.
Teucrium chamædrys.
— chamæpitys.
— creticum.
— marum.
— polium.
Thymus ſerpyllum.
— vulgaris.
Wintera aromatica.
— canella.

b. *Gum-reſins.*

Gummi-reſina ammon.
— aſſa fœtida.
— bdellium.
— caranna.
— galbana.
Gummi-reſina galda.
— guajaci.
— juniperi.
— hederæ.
— kikekunemalo.
— look.
— myrrha.
— Olibanum s. Thus.
— opopanacis.
— Rakaſira.
— ſagapenum.

c. *Reſins.*

Æthuſa meum.
Amomum granum paradiſi.
Amyris kataf?
Angelica Archangelica.
— ſylveſtris.
Balſamea Meccanenſis?
Copaifera officinalis.
Caryophillusaromaticus.
Ciſtus creticus.
Geniſta Canarienſis.
Guajacum officinale.
Juniperus communis.
— ſabina.
Laurus myrrha?
— ſaſſafras.
Pimpinella ſaxifraga.
Pinus abies.
— balſamea.
— Canadenſis.
— cembra.
— larix.
— mungos.
— picea.
— ſylveſtris.
Piſtacia chio.
— lentiſcus.
— terebinthus.
Polygala ſenega.
Santalum album.
Thuja articulata.

d. Balſamica.

e. Carminativa.
f. Cardiaca.
g. Nervina.
Opium.
Vinum.
Alkohol.
Æther.
— alkoholiſatus.
b. Oxygenantia.
i. Ferri præparata.
Aquæ min. ferruginoſæ
k. *Externally.*
Reſpiratio aut inflatio gazis oxygenii.
Acria.
Errhina.
Epiſpaſtica.
Veſicantia.
Enemata acria.
Acidum aceticum.
Æther acetoſus.
— ſulphuricus.
— nitricus.
Ammoniaca.
Succinas ammoniacæ
Olea empreumatica.
Fumus plumarum aſſium accenſorum
Caſtoreum.
Moſchus.
l. Balnea fervida.
— aromatica.
— alkoholiſata.
— frigida, gelida.
Thermæ ſimplices.
— ſulphureæ.
— alkalina.
m. Frictiones ſimplices
— aromatica.
Urticationes.
Exercitia varia.
n. Calor externus.
o. Lumen ſolare.
p. Electricitas.

XLII. STOMACHICS.

Amomum zingiber.
Angelica Archangelica.
Caryophillusaromaticus.
Cinchonæ ſpecies variæ.
Dorſtenia contrayerva.
Dracocephalum Canarienſe.
Fagara pterota.
Fumaria bulboſa.
— officinalis.
Geum urbanum.
Lauri ſpecies variæ.

Maranta galanga.
Melissa calamintha.
Melittis melissophyllum.
Menthæ species.
Menyanthes trifoliata.
Monarda fistulosa.
Myristica moschata.
Myrtis caryophillata.
— pimenta.
Polygala amara.
Quassia amara.
Radix cassumaniar.
— chynlen.
— columbo.
Rosmarinus officinalis.
Satureja hortensis.
— capitata.
Scrophularia aquatica.
Strychnos colubrina.
— nux vomica.
Thymus serpyllum.
— vulgaris.
b. Amara varia.
c. Amara adstri.
d. Adstringentia.
e. Aromatica.
f. Carminativa.
g. Stimulantia.
h. Antacida.
i. Vinum.
Alkohol.
k. Ferrum.

STYPTICS, vide *ADSTRINGENTS.*

XLIII. SUDORIFICS.

1. Agaricus muscarius.
Aristolochia serpentaria.
Buxus sempervirens.
Calendula officinalis.
Carex arenaria.
Carlina acaulis.
Crocus sativus.
Dorstenia contrayerva.
Genista Canariensis.
Guajacum officinale.
Laurus sassafras.
Ledum palustre.
Papaver somniferum.
Phytolacca decandra.
Psycotria emetica.
Rhododendrum chrysanthum.
Ruta graveolens.
Salvia officinalis.
Sambucus nigra.
Spiræa ulmaria.
Strychnos nux vomica.
— volubilis.
Teucrium scordium.
Thuja occidentalis.
b. Infusa aromat. calida.
Serum lactis vinosum.
c. Aqua calida.
d. Aqua frigida hausta.
e. Balnea calida.
Thermæ variæ.
Balneum vaporis.
Balnea terræ.
f. Stibii præparata.
Stibium cum opio.
Psycotria emetica cum opio.
g. Ammoniaca.
Acetis ammoniacæ.
Carbonas ammoniacæ.
Murias ammoniacæ.
h. Vestimenta et stragula calida.

TONICS, vide *ROBORANTS.*
VESICANTS, vide *CORROSIVES.*

XLIV. EVACUANTIA CHIRURGICA.

1. Venæsectio.
Arteriotome.
Hirudines.
Cucurbitæ scarificatæ.
2. Vesicantia.
Fonticulus.
Setaceum.
Moxa.

LXV. VARIOUS.

Balnea frigida.
— calida.
— fervida.
Thermæ variæ.
Frictiones corporis simplices et medicatæ.
Balnea terræ, etc.
Expositio partis affectæ radiis solaribus, reliquo corpore tecto.
Caustica.
Ferrum candens.
Moxa.
Embrocationes variæ.
Exercitia gymnastica.
Electricitas.
Galvanismus.
Musica.

MEDINENSIS VENA, (*Medinensis, nensis* of Linnæus. The muscular
so called because it is frequent at Me- hair-worm. A very singular animal,
dina). *Dracunculus. Gordius medi-* which, in some countries, inhabits

the cellular membrane between the ſkin and muſcles.

Meditullĭum, (*Meditullium, i,* n. from *medius*, the middle). See *Diploë*.

Medlar. See *Meſpilus*.

Medulla, (*Medulla, æ,* f. *quaſi in medio oſſis*). The marrow. See *Marrow*. The pith or pulp of vegetables.

Medulla oblongāta. The medulary ſubſtance of the ſame uſe as the cerebrum, that lies within the cranium, upon the baſillary proceſs of the occipital bone. It is formed by the connection of the crura cerebri and crura cerebelli, and terminates in the ſpinal marrow. It has ſeveral eminences, viz. pons varolii, corpora pyramidalia, and corpora olivaria.

Medulla spinālis. The ſpinal marrow. A continuation of the medulla oblongata, which deſcends into the ſpecus vertebralis from the foramen magnum occipitale, to the third vertebra of the loins, where it terminates in a number of nerves, which, from their reſemblance, are called *cauda equina*. The ſpinal marrow is compoſed, like the brain, of a cortical and medullary ſubſtance: the former is placed internally. It is covered by a continuation of the dura mater, pia mater, and tunica arachnoidea. The uſe of the ſpinal marrow is to give off, through the lateral or intervertebral foramina, thirty pairs of nerves, called cervical, dorſal, lumbar, and ſacral nerves.

Medullary, (*Medullaris*, from *medulla*, marrow). Like unto marrow.

Medullary substance. The white and internal ſubſtance of the brain is ſo called.

Meibomius's glands. The ſmall glands which are ſituated between the conjunctive membrane of the eye and the cartilage of the eyelid, firſt deſcribed by Meibomius.

Mel, (*Mel, lis*, n.) See *Honey*.

Mel acetātum. This preparation of honey and vinegar poſſeſſes aperient and expectorating virtues, and is given, with theſe intentions, in the cure of humoral aſthma, and other diſeaſes of the cheſt.

Mel rosæ. An admirable preparation for the baſe of various gargles and collutories. It may alſo be employed with advantage, mixed with extract of bark or other medicines, to children who have a natural diſguſt to medicines.

Mel scillæ. Aperient, expectorant, and detergent virtues, are attributed to the honey of ſquills.

Melæna, (*Melæna, æ,* f. μελαινα, from μελας, black). The black vomit. Black bile.

Melaleuca leucadendron. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the cajeput oil. See *Cajeput oil*.

Melampodĭum, (*Melampodium, i,* n. μελαμποδιον, from *Melampus*. the ſhepherd who firſt uſed it). Black hellebore. See *Helleborus niger*.

Melancholĭa, (*Melancholia, æ,* f. μελαγχολια, from μελας, black, and χολη, bile; becauſe the ancients ſuppoſed that it proceeded from a redundance of black bile). Melancholy madneſs. A diſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes* and order *veſaniæ* of Cullen, characterized by erroneous judgment, but not merely reſpecting health, from imaginary perceptions or recollection influencing the conduct, and depreſſing the mind with ill-grounded fears; not combined with either pyrexia or comatoſe affections; often appearing without dyſpepſia, yet attended with coſtiveneſs, chiefly in perſons of rigid fibres and torpid inſenſibility.

Melanopiper, (*Melanopiper, eris,*

n. μελαιοπιπερις, from μελας, black, and πιπερις, pepper). Black pepper. See *Piper nigrum.*

Melas, (*Melas, anos*, m. from μελας, black). *Vitiligo nigra. Morphæa nigra. Lepra maculosa nigra.* A disease that appears upon the skin in black or brown spots, which very frequently penetrate deep, even to the bone, and do not give any pain or uneasiness. It is a disease very frequent in, and endemial to, Arabia, where it is supposed to be produced by a peculiar miasma.

Melasma, (*Melasma, ătis*, n. μελασμος, from μελας, black). *Meldsmus.* A disease that appears not unfrequently upon the tibia of aged persons, in form of a livid black spot, which, in a day or two, degenerates into a very foul ulcer.

Melasses. See *Treacle.*

Millefolĭum, (*Millefolium, i*, n. from *mille*, a thousand, and *folium*, a leave, so named from its numerous leaves). See *Melissa.*

Melicēris, (*Meliceris, is*, f. μελικηρις, from μελι, honey, and κηρος, wax). An encysted tumour, whose contents resemble honey in consistence and appearance.

Melilot. See *Melilotus.*

Melilōtus, (*Melilotus, i*, f. μελιλωτος, from μελι, honey, and λωτος, the lotus, so called from its smell, being like that of honey). *Locus sylvestris. Trifolium odoratum.* Melilot. This plant, *Trifolium melilotus officinalis* of Linnæus, has been said to be resolvent, emollient, anódyne, and to participate of the virtues of chamomile. Its taste is unpleasant, subacrid, subsaline, but not bitter; when fresh it has scarcely any smell; in drying it acquires a pretty strong one of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable. The principal use of melilot has been in glysters, fomentations, and other external applications.

Melissa, (*Melissa, æ*, f. from μελισσα, a bee, because bees gather honey from it). *Citrago. Citraria. Melyssophyllum. Melifolium. Mellitis. Cedronella. Apiastrum. Melissa citrina.* Balm. *Melissa officinalis* of Linnæus. A native of the southern parts of Europe, but very common in our gardens. In its recent state it has a roughish aromatic taste, and a pleasant smell of the lemon kind. It was formerly much esteemed in nervous diseases, and very generally recommended in melancholic and hypochondriacal affections; but in modern practice it is only employed when prepared as tea, as a grateful diluent drink in fevers, &c.

Melissa calamintha. The systematic name of the field catmint. See *Calamintha.*

Melissa citrĭna. See *Melissa.*

Melissa grandiflora. The systematic name of the mountain calamint. See *Calamintha magno flore.*

Melissa officinālis. The systematic name of balm. See *Melissa.*

Melissa turcĭca. See *Moldavica.*

Melītis melissophyllum. The systematic name of the mountain balm. See *Melyssophyllum.*

Melo, (*Melo, onis*, m. from μελον, an apple, which it resembles in shape). The common melon. Musk melon. *Cucumis melo* of Linnæus. This fruit, when ripe, has a delicious refrigerating taste, but must be eaten moderately, with pepper or some aromatic, as all this class of fruits are obnoxious to the stomach, producing spasms and colic. The seeds possess mucilaginous qualities.

Meloë vesicatorĭus. The systematic name of the Spanish fly. See *Cantharides.*

Melon, common. See *Melo.*

Melon, musk. See *Melo.*

Melon, water. See *Citrullus.*

Melothrĭa pendŭla. The systematic name of the small creeping

cucumber plant. The inhabitants of the Weſt Indies pickle the berries of this plant, and uſe them as we do capers.

MELYSSOPHYLLUM, (*Melyſſophyllum*, *i*, n. μελισσοφιλλοι, from μελισσα, balm, and φιλλοι, a leaf). Mountain balm or nettle. This elegant plant, *Melitis melliſſophyllum* of Linnæus, is ſeldom uſed in the preſent day, it is ſaid to be of ſervice in uterine obſtructions and calculous diſeaſes.

MEMBRĀNA HYALOIDĒA. *Membrana arachnoidea*. The tranſparent membrane which includes the vitreous humour of the eye.

MEMBRĀNA PŪPILLĀRIS. A very delicate membrane of a thin and vaſcular texture, and an aſh colour, ariſing from the internal margin of the iris, and totally covering the pupil in a fœtus of ſix months.

MEMBRĀNA RUYSCHĬANA. The celebrated anatomiſt Ruyſch diſcovered that the choroid membrane of the eye was compoſed of two laminæ. He gave the name of membrana ruyſchiana to the internal lamina, leaving the old name of choroides to the external.

MEMBRĀNA TYMPĀNI. The membrane covering the cavity of the tympanum, and ſeparating it from the meatus auditorius externus. It is of an oval form, convex below the middle, towards the hollow of the tympanum, and concave towards the meatus auditorius, and convex above the middle towards the meatus, and concave towards the hollow of the tympanum. According to the obſervations of anatomiſts, it conſiſts of ſix laminæ; the firſt and moſt external is a production of the epidermis, the ſecond is a production of the ſkin lining the auditory paſſage: the third is cellular membrane, in which the veſſels form an elegant net-work; the fourth is ſhining, thin, and tranſparent, ariſing from the perioſteum of the meatus; the fifth is cellular membrane, with a plexus of veſſels like the third; and the ſixth lamina, which is the innermoſt, comes from the perioſteum of the cavity of the tympanum. This membrane, thus compoſed of ſeveral laminæ, has lately been diſcovered to poſſeſs muſcular fibres.

MEMBRĀNALOGĬA, (*Membranalogia*, *æ*, f. from *membrana*, a membrane, and λογος, a diſcourſe). Membranology. The doctrine of the common integuments and membranes.

MEMBRANE, (*Membrana*, *æ*, f.). A thin expanded ſubſtance, compoſed of cellular texture, whoſe elaſtic fibres are ſo arranged and woven together, as to allow of great pliability. The membranes of the body are various, as the ſkin, peritoneum, pleura, dura mater, &c. &c.

MENAGOGUES. See *Emmenagogues*.

MENINX, (*Meninx*, *ngis*, f. μηνιγξ, from μενω, to remain). The Greek term for the membranes enveloping the brain. See *Dura mater* and *Pia mater*.

MENINX DURA. See *Dura mater*.

MENISPERMUM COCCŬLUS. The ſyſtematic name of the plant whoſe berries are well known by the name of *Cocculus indus*. Indian berries, or Indian cockles. Whilſt green, they are uſed by the Indians to catch fiſh, which they have the power of intoxicating and killing. In the ſame manner they catch birds, making the berry into a paſte, forming it into ſmall ſeeds, and putting theſe in places where they frequent.

MENORRHAGĬA, (*Menorrhagia*, *æ*, f. μηνορραγια, from μηνια, the menſes, and ῥηγνυμι, to break out). An immoderate flow of the menſes. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *hæmorrhagiæ* of Cullen. Species, 1. *Menorrhagia rubra*, proper; from women neither with child nor in childbirth. 2. *Menorrhagia alba*, ſerous; the fluor albus; fe-

Leucorrhœa. 3. *Menorrhagia vitiorum*, from ſome local diſeaſe. 4. *Menorrhagia lochialis*, from women after delivery. See *Lochia*.

MENSES. See *Catamenia*.

MENSTRUATION. From the uterus of every healthy women who is not pregnant, or who does not give ſuck, there is a diſcharge of blood, at certain periods, from the time of puberty to the approach of old age; and, from the periods or returns of this diſcharge, it is called *Menſtruation*. There are ſeveral exceptions to this definition. It is ſaid that ſome women never menſtruate; ſome menſtruate while they continue to give ſuck: and others are ſaid to menſtruate during pregnancy: ſome are ſaid to menſtruate in early infancy, and others in old age; but ſuch diſcharges, Dr. Denman is of opinion may, with more propriety, be called morbid, or ſymptomatic: but the definition is generally true.

At whatever time of life this diſcharge comes on, a woman is ſaid to be at puberty: though of this it is a conſequence, and not a cauſe. The early or late appearance of the menſes may depend upon the climate, the conſtitution, the delicacy or hardneſs of living, and upon the manners of thoſe with whom young women converſe. In Greece and other hot countries girls begin to menſtruate at eight, nine, and ten years of age; but, advancing to the northern climes, there is a gradual protraction of the time till we come to Lapland, where women do not menſtruate till they arrive at maturer age, and then in ſmall quantities, at long intervals, and ſometimes only in the ſummer. But, if they do not menſtruate according to the genius of the country, it is ſaid they ſuffer equal inconveniences as in warmer climates, where the quantity diſcharged is much greater, and the periods ſhorter. In this country, girls begin to menſtruate from the fourteenth to the eighteenth year of their age, and ſometimes at a later period, without any ſigns of the diſeaſe; but if they are luxuriouſly educated, ſleeping upon down beds, and ſitting in hot rooms, menſtruation uſually commences at a more early period.

Many changes in the conſtitution and appearance of women are produced at the time of their firſt beginning to menſtruate. Their complexion is improved, their countenance is more expreſſive and animated, their attitudes graceful, and their converſation more intelligent and agreeable; the tone of their voice becomes more harmonious, their whole frame, but particularly their breaſts, are expanded and enlarged, and their minds are no longer engaged in childiſh purſuits and amuſements.

Some girls begin to menſtruate without any preceding indiſpoſition; but there are generally appearances or ſymptoms which indicate the change that is about to take place. Theſe are uſually more ſevere at the firſt than in the ſucceeding periods: and they are ſimilar to thoſe produced by uterine irritation from other cauſes, as pains in the back and inferior extremities, complaints of the viſcera, with various hyſteric and nervous affections. Theſe commence with the firſt diſpoſition to menſtruate, and continue till the diſcharge comes on, when they abate or diſappear, returning, however, with conſiderable violence in ſome women, at every period during life. The quantity of blood diſcharged at each evacuation, depends upon the climate, conſtitution, and manner of living; but it varies in different women in the ſame climate, or in the ſame woman at different periods; in this country it amounts to about five or ſix ounces.

There is alſo a great difference in the time required for the completion of each period of menſtruation. In

ſome women the diſcharge returns preciſely to a day or an hour, and in others there is a variation of ſeveral days without inconvenience. In ſome it is finiſhed in a few hours, and in others it continues from one to ten days, but the intermediate time, from three to ſix days, is the moſt uſual.

There has been an opinion, probably derived from the Jewiſh legiſlator, afterwards adopted by the Arabian phyſicians, and credited in other countries, that the menſtruous blood poſſeſſed ſome peculiar malignant properties. The ſevere regulations which have been made in ſome countries for the conduct of women at the time of menſtruation, the expreſſion uſed, Iſaiah, chap. xxx. and Ezekiel, the diſpoſal of the blood diſcharged, or of any thing contaminated with it, the complaints of women attributed to its retention, and the effects enumerated by grave writers, indicate the moſt dreadful apprehenſions of its baneful influence. Under peculiar circumſtances of health, or ſtates of the uterus, or in hot climates, if the evacuation be ſlowly made, the menſtruous blood may become more acrimonious or offenſive than the common maſs, or any other ſecretion from it: but in this country and age, no malignity is ſuſpected, the menſtruous woman mixes in ſociety as at all other times, and there is no reaſon for thinking otherwiſe, than that this diſcharge is of the moſt inoffenſive nature.

At the approach of old age women ceaſe to menſtruate; but the time of ceſſation is commonly regulated by the original early or late appearances of the menſes. With thoſe who began to menſtruate at ten or twelve years of age, the diſcharge will often ceaſe before they arrive at forty; but if the firſt appearance was protracted to ſixteen or eighteen years of age, independently of diſeaſe, ſuch women may continue to menſtruate till they have paſſed the fiftieth, or even approach the ſixtieth year of their age. But the moſt frequent time of the ceſſation of the menſes, in this country, is between the forty-fourth and forty-eighth year; after which women never bear children. By this conſtitutional regulation of the menſes, the propagation of the ſpecies is in every country confined to the moſt vigorous part of life: and had it been otherwiſe, children might have become parents, and old women might have had children, when they were unable to ſupply them with proper or ſufficient nouriſhment. See *Catamenia*.

MENSTRUUM, (*Menſtruum*, *i.* n.) Solvent. All liquors are ſo called, which are uſed as diſſolvents, or to extract the virtues or ingredients by infuſion, decoction, &c. The principal *menſtrua*, made uſe of in *Pharmacy*, are water, vinous ſpirits, oils, acid, and alkaline liquors. Water is the *menſtruum* of all ſalts, of vegetable gums, and of animal jellies. Of the firſt it diſſolves only a determinate quantity, though of one kind of ſalt more than of another; and being thus ſaturated, leaves any additional quantity of the ſame ſalt untouched. It is never ſaturated with the two latter, but unites readily with any proportion of them, forming with different quantities, liquors of different conſiſtencies. It takes up likewiſe, when aſſiſted by trituration, the vegetable gummy reſins, as ammoniacum and myrrh; the ſolutions of which, though imperfect, that is, not tranſparent, but turbid and of a milky hue, are nevertheleſs applicable to valuable purpoſes in medicine. Rectified ſpirit of wine is the *menſtruum* of the eſſential oils and reſins of vegetables; of the pure diſtilled oils of animals, and of ſoaps, though it does

not act upon the expreſſed oil and fixed alkaline ſalt, of which ſoap is compoſed. Hence, if ſoap contains any ſuperfluous quantity of either the oil or ſalt, it may, by means of this *menſtruum*, be excellently purified therefrom. It diſſolves, by the aſſiſtance of heat, volatile alkaline ſalts; and more readily the neutral ones, compoſed either of fixed alkali and the acetous acid, as the ſal diureticus, or of volatile alkali and the nitrous acid. Oils diſſolve vegetable reſins and balſams, wax, animal fats, mineral bitumens, ſulphur, and certain metallic ſubſtances, particularly lead. The expreſſed oils are, for moſt of theſe bodies, more powerful *menſtrua* than thoſe obtained by diſtillation; as the former are more capable of ſuſtaining without injury a ſtrong heat, which is in moſt caſes neceſſary to enable them to act. All acids diſſolve alkaline ſalts, alkaline earths, and metallic ſubſtances. The different acids differ greatly in their action, upon theſe laſt: one diſſolving ſome particular metals; and another, others. The vegetable acids diſſolve a conſiderable quantity of zinc, iron, copper, and tin; and extract ſo much from the metallic part of antimony as to become powerfully emetic: they likewiſe diſſolve lead, if previouſly calcined by fire; but more copiouſly if corroded by their ſteam. The marine acid diſſolves zinc, iron, and copper; and though it ſcarce acts on any other metallic ſubſtance in the common way of making ſolutions, may nevertheleſs be artfully combined with them all except gold. The corroſive ſublimate and antimonial cauſtic of the ſhops, are combinations of it with mercury and the metallic part of antimony, effected by applying the acid in the form of fume, to the ſubjects at the ſame time ſtrongly heated. The nitrous acid is the common *menſtruum* of all metallic ſubſtances, except gold and the antimonial ſemi-metal, which are ſoluble only in a mixture of the nitrous and marine. The vitriolic acid eaſily diſſolves zinc, iron, and copper; and may be made to corrode, or imperfectly diſſolve moſt of the other metals. Alkaline lixivia diſſolve oils, reſinous ſubſtances, and ſulphur. Their power is greatly promoted by the addition of quicklime, inſtances of which occur in the preparation of ſoap and in the common cauſtic. Thus aſſiſted, they reduce the fleſh, bones, and other ſolid parts of animals, into a gelatinous matter. Solutions made in water and ſpirit of wine, poſſeſs the virtue of the body diſſolved; whilſt oils generally ſheathe its activity, and acids and alkalies vary its quality. Hence watery and ſpirituous liquors are the proper *menſtrua* of the native virtues of vegetable and animal matters. Moſt of the foregoing ſolutions are eaſily effected, by pouring the *menſtruum* on the body to be diſſolved, and ſuffering them to ſtand together for ſome time, expoſed to a ſuitable warmth. A ſtrong heat is generally requiſite to enable oils and alkaline liquors to perform their office; nor will acids act on ſome metallic bodies without its aſſiſtance. The action of watery and ſpirituous *menſtrua* is likewiſe expedited by a moderate heat, though the quantity which they afterwards keep diſſolved, is not, as ſome ſuppoſe, by this means increaſed. All that heat occaſions theſe to take up more than they would do in a longer time in the cold, will, when the heat ceaſes, ſubſide again. The action of acids on the bodies which they diſſolve, is generally accompanied with heat, effervescence, and a copious diſcharge of fumes. The fumes which ariſe during the diſſolution of ſome metals in the vitriolic acid, prove inflam-

mable: hence in the preparation of the artificial vitriols of iron and zinc, the operator ought to be careful, especially where the solution is made in a narrow-mouthed vessel, lest, by the imprudent approach of a candle, the exhaling vapour be set on fire. There is another species of solution in which the moisture of air is the *menstruum*. Fixed alkaline salts and those of the neutral kind, composed of alkaline salts and the vegetable acids, or of alkaline earths, and any acid except the vitriolic, and some metallic salts on being exposed for some time to a moist air, gradually attract its humidity, and at length become liquid. Some substances, not dissoluble by water in its grosser form, as the butter of antimony, are easily liquified by this slow action of the aereal moisture. This process is termed *Deliquation*. The cause of solution assigned by some naturalists, namely, the admission of the fine particles of one body into the pores of another, whose figure fits them for their reception, is not just or adequate, but hypothetical and ill-presumed; since it is found that some bodies will dissolve their own quantity of others, as water does of Epsom salt, alkohol of essential oils, mercury of metals, one metal of another, &c. whereas the sum of the pores or vacuities of every body, must be necessarily less than the body itself, and consequently those pores cannot receive a quantity of matter equal to the body wherein they reside.

How a *menstruum* can suspend bodies much heavier than itself, which very often happens, may be conceived by considering, that the parts of no fluids can be so easily separated, but they will a little resist or retard the descent of any heavy bodies through them: and that this resistance is, *cæteris paribus*, still proportionable to the surface of the descending bodies. But the surface of bodies do by no means increase or decrease in the same proportion as their solidities do: for the solidity increases as the cube, but the surface only as the square of the diameter; wherefore it is plain, very small bodies will have much larger surfaces, in proportion to their solid contents, than larger bodies will, and consequently, when grown exceeding small, may easily be buoyed up in the liquor.

MENTĀGRA, (*Mentagra, æ*, f. from *mentum*, the chin, and ἀγρα, a prey). An eruption about the chin, forming a tenacious crust, like that on scald heads.

MENTASTRUM, (*Mentastrum, i*, n. dim. of *mentha*, mint). The red water mint. See *Mentha aquatica*.

MENTHA AQUATĬCA. *Mentastrum*. Water mint. This plant is frequent in moist meadows, marshes, and on the banks of rivers. It is less agreeable than the spearmint, and in taste bitterer and more pungent. It may be used with the same intentions as the spearmint, to which, however, it is much inferior.

MENTHA CATARĬA. See *Nepeta*.

MENTHA CERVĪNA. The systematic name of the hart's pennyroyal. See *Pulegium cervinum*.

MENTHA CRISPA. This species of mentha has a strong and fragrant smell, its taste is warm, aromatic, and slightly bitter. In flatulences of the primæ viæ, hypochondriacal, and hysterical affections, it is given with advantage.

MENTHA PIPERĪTA. The systematic name of the peppermint. See *Mentha piperitis*.

MENTHA PIPERĪTIS, (*Mentha, æ*, f. from *Minthe*, the harlot who was changed into this herb). Peppermint. *Mentha piperita* of Linnæus. *Mentha floribus capitatis, foliis ovatis petiolatis, staminibus corolla bre-*

vioribus. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. The spontaneous growth of this plant is said to be peculiar to Britain. It has a more penetrating smell than any of the other mints; a strong pungent taste, glowing like pepper, sinking as it were into the tongue, and followed by a sense of coolness. The stomachic, antispasmodic, and carminative properties of peppermint, render it useful in flatulent cholics, hysterical affections, retchings, and other dyspeptic symptoms, acting as a cordial, and often producing an immediate relief. Its officinal preparations are an essential oil, a simple water, and a spirit.

MENTHA PULEGĬUM. The systematic name of the pennyroyal. See *Pulegium*.

MENTHA SARACENĬCA. See *Balsamita mas*.

MENTHA SATĪVA. Spearmint. *Mentha viridis* of Linnæus. *Mentha spicis oblongis, foliis lanceolatis nudis serratis sessilibus, staminibus corolla longioribus*. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. This plant grows wild in many parts of England. It is not so warm to the taste as peppermint, but has a more agreeable flavour, and is therefore preferred for culinary purposes. Its medicinal qualities are similar to those of peppermint; but the different preparations of the former, though more pleasant, are, perhaps, less efficacious. The officinal preparations of spearmint are an essential oil, a conserve, a simple water, and a spirit.

MENTHA VIRĬDIS. The systematic name of the spearmint. See *Mentha sativa*.

MENTI LEVĀTOR, (*Mentum, i*, n.). See *Levator labii inferioris*.

MENYANTHĒS TRIFOLIĀTA. The systematic name of the buck-bean. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

MEPHĪTIS, (*Mephitis, ĭdis*, f. μεφιτις; from *mephuhith*, a blast, *Syr.*). A poisonous exhalation. See *Contagion*.

MERCURĬALIS, (*Mercurialis, is*, f. from *Mercurius*, its inventor). French mercury. *Mercurialis annua* of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have no remarkable smell, and very little taste. It is ranked among the emollient oleraceous herbs, and is said to be gently aperient. Their principal use has been in glysters.

MERCURĬALIS ANNŪA. The systematic name of the French mercury. See *Mercurialis*.

MERCURĬALIS MONTĀNA. Dog's mercury. See *Cynocrambe*.

MERCURĬALIS PERENNIS. The systematic name of dog's mercury. See *Cynocrambe*.

MERCURĬUS, (*Mercurius, i*, m. the chemical name of quicksilver, from its activity). See *Hydrargyrus*.

MERCURĬUS ACETĀTUS. See *Hydrargyrus acetatus*.

MERCURĬUS CALCINĀTUS. See *Hydrargyrus calcinatus*.

MERCURĬUS CORROSĪVUS. See *Hydrargyrus muriatus*.

MERCURĬUS CORROSĪVUS RUBER. See *Hydrargyrus nitratus ruber*.

MERCURĬUS CORROSĪVUS SUBLIMĀTUS. See *Hydrargyrus muriatus*.

MERCURĬUS EMETĪCUS FLAVUS. See *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus*.

MERCURĬUS PRÆCIPITĀTUS ALBUS. See *Calx hydrargyri alba*.

MERCURĬUS PRÆCIPITĀTUS DULCIS. See *Hydrargyrus muriatus mitis*.

MERCURĬUS PRÆCIPITĀTUS RUBER. See *Hydrargyrus nitratus ruber*.

MERCURY. Quicksilver. *Hydrargyrus*. See *Hydrargyrus*.

MERCURY, DOG'S. See *Cynocrambe*.

MERCURY, ENGLISH. See *Allgood*, and *Bonus henricus*.

MERCURY, FRENCH. See *Mercurialis*.

MEROCĒLE, (*Merocele, es*, f. μηροκηλη; from μηρος, the thigh, and κηλη, a tumour). A femoral hernia. See *Hernia*.

MESEMBRYANTHĒMUM CRYSTALLĬNUM. The juice of this plant in a doſe of four ſpoonfuls every two hours, it is aſſerted, has removed an obſtinate ſpaſmodic affection of the neck of the bladder, which would not yield to other remedies.

MESENTERIC. Meſeraic. Belonging to the meſentery. See *Meſentery*.

MESENTERIC ARTERIES. Two branches of the aorta in the abdomen are ſo called. The ſuperior meſenteric is the ſecond branch; it is diſtributed upon the meſentery, and gives off the ſuperior or right colic artery. The inferior meſenteric is the fifth branch of the aorta; it ſends off the internal hæmorrhoidal.

MESENTERIC GLANDS. Theſe are conglobate, and are ſituated here and there in the cellular membrane of the meſentery. The chyle from the inteſtines paſſes through theſe glands to the thoracic duct.

MESENTERIC PLEXUS OF NERVES. The ſuperior, middle, and lower meſenteric plexuſes of nerves are formed by the branches of the great intercoſtal nerves.

MESENTERIC VEINS. They all run into one trunk, that evacutes its blood into the vena portæ. See *Vena portæ*.

MESENTERĪTIS, (*Meſenteritis, ĭdis*, f. μεσεντερίτις, from μεσεντέριον, the meſentery). An inflammation of the meſentery. A ſpecies of peritonitus of Cullen.

MESENTERY, (*Meſenterium, i*, n. μεσεντέριον; from μεσος, the middle, and ἔντερον, an inteſtine). The membranaceous viſcus in the cavity of the abdomen, attached to the vertebræ of the loins, and to which the inteſtines adhere. It is formed of a duplicature of the peritoneum, and contains within it, adipoſe membrane, lacteals, lymphatics, lacteal glands, meſenteric arteries, veins, and nerves. Its uſe is to ſuſtain the inteſtines in ſuch a manner that they poſſeſs both mobility and firmneſs; to ſupport and conduct with ſafety the blood-veſſels, lacteals, and nerves; to fix the glands, and give an external coat to the inteſtines.

MESERAIC. The ſame as meſenteric. See *Meſenteric*.

MESOCŌLON, (*Meſocolon, i*, n. μεσοκωλον; from μεσος, the middle, and κωλον, the colon). The portion of the meſentery to which the colon is attached. The meſentery and meſocolon are the moſt important of all the productions of the peritonæum. In the pelvis, the peritonæum ſpreads itſelf ſhortly before the rectum. But where that inteſtine becomes looſe, and forms the ſemilunar curve, the peritonæum there riſes conſiderably from the middle iliac veſſels, and region of the pſoas muſcle, double, and with a figure adapted for receiving the hollow colon. But above, on the left ſide, the colon is connected with almoſt no intermediate looſe production to the peritonæum, ſpread upon the pſoas muſcle, as high as the ſpleen, where this part of the peritonæum, which gave a coat to the colon, being extended under the ſpleen, receives and ſuſtains that viſcus in a hollow ſuperior receſs.

Afterwards the peritonæum, from the left kidney, from the interval between the kidneys, from the large veſſels, and from the right kidney, emerges forwards under the pancreas, and forms the broad and ſufficiently long continuous production, called the tranſverſe meſocolon, which like a partition divides the upper part of the abdomen, containing the ſtomach, liver, ſpleen, and pancreas, from the

lower part. The lower plate of this tranſverſe production is continued ſingly from the right meſocolon to the left, and ſerves as an external coat to a pretty large portion of the liver, and deſcending part of the duodenum. But the upper plate, leſs ſimple in the courſe, departs from the lumbar peritonæum at the kidney, and region of the vena cava, farther to the right than the duodenum, to which it gives an external membrane, not quite to the valve of the pylorus; and beyond this inteſtine, and beyond the colon, it is joined with the lower plate, ſo that a large part of the duodenum lies within the cavity of the meſocolon. Afterwards, in the region of the liver, the meſocolon is inflected, and deſcending over the kidney of the ſame ſide much ſhorter, it includes the right of the colon, as far as the inteſtinum cæcum, which reſts upon the iliac muſcle and the appendix, which is provided with a peculiar long curved myſentery. There the meſocolon terminates, almoſt at the bifurcation of the aorta.

The whole of the meſocolon and of the meſentery is hollow, ſo that the air may be forced in between its two laminæ, in ſuch a manner as to expand them into a bag. At the place where it ſuſtains the colon, and alſo from part of the inteſtinum rectum, the meſocolon, continuous with the outer membrane of the inteſtine, forms itſelf into ſmall ſlender bags reſembling the omentum, for the moſt part in pairs, with their looſe extremities thicker and bifid, and capable of admitting air blown in between the plates of the meſocolon.

Mesorectum, (*Meſorectum*, *i.* n. from μεσος, the middle, and *rectum*, the ſtraight gut). The portion of peritonæum which connects the rectum to the pelvis.

Mespilus, (*Meſpilus*, *i*, f. μεσπιλος, οτι εν τω μεσω πιλος, becauſe it has a cap or crown in the middle of it). The medlar. This fruit, and alſo its ſeeds have been uſed medicinally. The tree which bears them is the *Meſpilus germanica* of Linnæus. The immature fruit is ſerviceable in checking diarrhœas; and the ſeeds were formerly eſteemed in allaying the pain attendant on nephritic diſeaſes.

Mespilus germanica. The ſyſtematic name of the medlar tree. See *Meſpilus*.

Metacarpal bones. The five longitudinal bones that are ſituated between the wriſt and the fingers; they are diſtinguiſhed into the metacarpal bone of the thumb, fore-finger, &c.

Metacarpus, (*Metacarpus*, *i*, m. μετακαρπος, from μετα, after, and καρπος, the wriſt). That part of the hand between the wriſt and fingers.

Metals. Metals principally differ from all other bodies on account of their perfect opacity, and conſequent metallic ſplendour, their denſity, and ſpecific gravity. In their pureſt metallic ſtate they poſſeſs neither taſte nor ſmell.

Metals are found in the bowels of the earth, either native, that is, almoſt pure; or in the ſtate of oxide, that is, under the external form of earth; or combined with ſulphur, as ores; or, laſtly, in combination with acids, conſtituting metallic ſpars, &c. They occur in their various ſtates, either ſeparately or in combination with other metals.

They are remarkable for the property, peculiar to themſelves, of being dilated by repeated or continued preſſure. This property is termed ductility; but, as ductility is regulated by different laws, according to the nature of the preſſure applied, it became neceſſary to divide it into two kinds, viz. into malleability, when metals, under the hammer or by flatting mills, are formed into thin plates; and into tenacity, when drawn out into wire.

As all metals are not ductile, the

preſence or abſence of this property cauſed them to be divided into two claſſes, the limits of which are, however, very indefinite. Of the eighteen metals with which we are acquainted, eight are conſidered as ductile, or entire metals; and ten as brittle, or ſemimetals. If we conſider them according to their malleability, they appear in the following order, gold, ſilver, platina, copper, iron, tin, and lead: but, according to their tenacity, thus, platina, gold, iron, copper, ſilver, tin, and lead. To theſe may be added mercury; but the degree of its malleability and tenacity is not yet accurately known. The ſemimetals are, zinc, biſmuth, nickel, antimony, cobalt, manganeſe, arſenic, tungſten, molybdena, and uranite.

All metals and ſemimetals become fluid at a certain temperature. Mercury exiſts in that ſtate under the common temperature of the atmoſphere; but the reſt require a greater degree of heat; and ſome metals do not melt unleſs the heat be intenſe. Several fuſe before they become red hot, ſuch as mercury, lead, tin, biſmuth, zinc. Some fuſe at a greater or leſs degree of ignition, as the remaining metals. The leaſt fuſible metals are platina, tungſten, molybdena, and uranite, which are fuſed only by the aid of oxygen gaz, or large burning lenſes.

All metals, when melted in earthen or glaſs veſſels, have a convex ſurface; and if the maſſes be but ſmall, they form globules, which is owing to their great coheſion, and their inferior attraction to the veſſel. All fuſed metals, when ſlowly cooled, aſſume a determinate form, and cryſtallize in various ſhapes.

Metals become volatile by fuſion, and paſs off in a gazeous ſtate. Some undergo this change even by a moderate heat, as mercury, biſmuth, antimony, arſenic, &c. Moſt metals require, however, an intenſe heat for that purpoſe, for inſtance, gold, ſilver, and platina.

But of far greater importance is the change to which metals are liable when fuſed in a higher or lower temperature, in contact with oxygen gaz or atmoſpheric air. They are thus deprived of their coheſion, metalic ſplendour, and ductility, and aſſume the external appearance of earths. In this ſtate they are termed calces of metals, or metallic oxides. If a determinate quantity of lead, tin, or mercury, be heated for ſome time in a pneumatic veſſel, carefully cloſed, containing oxygen gaz, we perceive that the oxygen gaz is conſiderably diminiſhed, and that the metal is either entirely or in part reduced to the ſtate of calx. During this change the weight of the metal increaſes, and the augmentation is preciſely equal to the weight of the oxygen gaz loſt.

If mercury, thus calcined or oxyded, be diſtilled in a retort adapted to the pneumatic apparatus, we ſhall obtain a conſiderable quantity of oxygen gaz, and the calx of mercury will reſume its metallic form. The loſs of weight, which the calx of mercury thus ſuſtains, is equal to the weight of the oxygen gaz obtained.

But, if the calx of lead or tin be heated in a pneumatic veſſel filled with inflammable air, the air decreaſes, drops of water are formed, and the calx returns to its former metallic ſtate.

From the experiments recited, and from a great number of others which may be conſulted in chemical works, it is evident that during the calcination of metals, the metal ſimply combines with oxygen: and that oxides or calces of metals, in conſequence of the loſs of ſuch oxygen, regain their metallic ſplendour; this operation is termed reduction of metals. All metals, however, have

not the same degree of affinity for oxygen: there are but few that part with it *per se*, by the mere increase of temperature; the greater number require the addition of a third body, which has a greater affinity for oxygen than the metal itself: for instance, nitrogen gaz, carbon, &c. in which case we obtain either carbonic acid or water. Metals capable of being reduced *per se*, are termed noble; these are gold, silver, platina, and mercury; others are termed base.

All metals may be likewise oxidated by acids, but all acids do not act upon metals in general, nor in the same manner. But during every combination of this kind, the acid is decompounded; its oxygen, combining with the metal, forms a metallic oxide, and its basis being disengaged, remains either in the mixture, or is dissipated in the state of gaz. The metallic oxide thus produced, is either immediately dissolved in the remaining acid, and thus converted into a metallic salt, or is precipitated. In the former case, we say that the acid has dissolved the metal; in the latter, that it has only corroded it. In a few rare cases, the metal is oxidated merely by the oxygen of the water mixed with the acid, and then dissolved by the acid itself. Hydrogen gaz is, in this case, disengaged.

Metals can never, therefore, be combined with acids, unless they be previously oxided, and consequently, when dissolved, they are always oxides. Yet most acids do not act upon metals but when in a metallic state, and produce no effect upon those which have been previously calcined by other means. The cause of this rests probably either in the degree of oxidation, or upon its protraction.

When the union of a metallic oxide and an acid is dissolved by a third body, which has a nearer affinity with the latter, the metallic oxide in solution falls to the bottom of the vessel, and is termed a precipitate of the metal. But, if the decomposition be effected by double affinity, so that the oxide of the metal is deprived of its oxygen, the metal is then precipitated in a metallic form. When the solvent is a a neutral salt, the acid of such salt combines with the metal, and produces a new metallic salt.

Metals may be combined with each other in different proportions. The compounds thus arising are termed alloys, which are governed by the general laws of chemical compositions; nor do they possess the properties of their component metals, since they differ in specific gravity, ductility, and chiefly in the degree of heat requisite for their fusion.

METAMORPHŌPSĬA, (*Metamorphopsia*, æ, f. μεταμορφωσις; from μεταμορφωσις, a change, and οψις, sight). *Visus defiguratus.* Disfigured vision. It is a defect in vision, by which persons perceive objects changed in their figures. The species are; 1. *Metamorphopsia acuta*, when objects appear much larger than their size. 2. *Metamorphopsia diminuta*, when objects appear diminished in size, arising from the same causes as the former. 3. *Metamorphopsia mutans*, objects seem to be in motion; to the vertiginous and intoxicated persons, every thing seems to stagger. 4. *Metamorphopsia tortuosa seu flexuosa*, when objects appear tortuous or bending. 5. *Metamorphopsia inversa*, when all objects appear inverted. 6. *Metamorphopsia imaginaria*, is the vision of a thing not present, as may be observed in the delirious and in maniacs. 7.

Metamorphopſia from a remaining impreſſion: it happens to thoſe who very attentively examine objects, particularly in a great light, ſome time after to perceive the impreſſion.

METASTĂSIS, (*Metaſtaſis, is*, f. μεταστασις; from μεθιστημι, to change, to tranſlate). The removal of a diſeaſe from one place to another.

METATARSAL BONES. The five longitudinal bones between the tarſus and toes; they are diſtinguiſhed into the metatarſal bone of the great toe, fore toe, &c.

METATARSUS, (*Metatarſus, i*, m. μεταταρσιος; from μετα, after, and ταρσος, the tarſus). That part of the foot between the tarſus and toes.

METELLA NUX. See *Nux vomica.*

METRĪTIS, (*Metritis, ĭdis*, f. μετριτις; from μητρα, the womb). Inflammation of the uterus. See *Hyſteritis.*

METROPTŌSIS, (*Metroptoſis, is*, f. μετροπτωσις, from μητρα, the uterus, and πιπτω, to fall down). *Prolapſus uteri.* The deſcent of the uterus through the vagina.

MEU. See *Meum athamanticum.*

MEUM ATHAMANTĬCUM, (*Meum, i*, n. μηον, or μειον; from μειων, leſs, ſo called, according to Minſhew, from its diminitive ſize). *Meu.* Spignel. Baldmoney. The root of this plant, *Æthuſa mæum*, is recommended as a carminative, ſtomachic, and for attenuatiug viſcid humours, and appears to be nearly of the ſame nature as lovage, differing in its ſmell being rather more agreeable, ſomewhat like that of parſnips, but ſtronger, and being in its taſte leſs ſweet, and more warm or acrid.

MEXICO SEED. See *Ricinus.*

MEXICO TEA. See *Botrys mexicana.*

MEZEREON. See *Mezereum.*

MEZERĔUM, (*Meſereum, i*, n. μεζαιρεον; a word of ſome barbarous dialect). Mezereon. Spurge-olive. Widow-wail. This plant, *Daphne mezereum* of Linnæus. *Daphne floribus ſeſſilibus ternis caulinis, foliis lanceolatis deciduis.* Claſs *Octandria.* Order *Monogynia*, is extremely acrid, eſpecially when freſh, and if retained in the mouth, excites great and long continued heat and inflammation, particularly of the mouth and fauces: the berries alſo have the ſame effects, and when ſwallowed, prove a powerful corroſive poiſon, not only to man, but to dogs, wolves, and foxes. The bark of the root is the part employed medicinally in the *decoctum ſarſaparillæ compoſitum*, to aſſiſt mercury in reſolving nodes and other obſtinate ſymptoms of ſyphilis. The antiſyphilitic virtues of mezereum, however, have been by many writers very juſtly doubted. The reſult of my own experience (ſays the celebrated Mr. Pearſon of the Lock Hoſpital), by no means accords with the repreſentation given of this root by former writers. From all that I have been able to collect, in the courſe of many years obſervation, I feel myſelf authorized to aſſert unequivocally, that the mezereum has not the power of curing the venereal diſeaſe in any one ſtage, or under any one form. If a decoction of this root ſhould ever reduce a venereal node, where no mercury has been previouſly given, yet the patient will by no means be exempted from the neceſſity of employing mercury, for as long a ſpace of time, and in as large a quantity, as if no mezereum had been taken. With reſpect to the power it is ſaid to poſſeſs, of alleviating the pain, and diminiſhing the bulk of membranous nodes, nothing peculiar and appropriate can be aſcribed to the mezereum on theſe accounts, ſince we obtain the ſame good effects from ſarſaparilla, guaicum, volatile alkali, bliſtering plaſters, &c. Neverthe-

leſs, venereal nodes which have ſubſided under the uſe of any of theſe articles of the materia medica, will appear again, and often with additional ſymptoms, if a full and efficacious courſe of mercury be not ſubmitted to. It has indeed been alledged, that mezereum always alleviates the pain occaſioned by a venereal node, and generally reduces it, where the periofteum only is affected; and that it ſeldom fails of removing thoſe enlargements of the periofteum which have not yieded during the adminiſtration of mercury.

That ſome inſtances of ſucceſs, in caſes like theſe, may have fallen to the ſhare of thoſe who made the aſſertion, it would not become me to deny; but I have met with few ſuch agreeable evidences of the efficacy of this medicine. I have given the mezereum in the form of a ſimple decoction, and alſo as an ingredient in compound decoctions of the woods, in many caſes, where no mercury had been previouſly employed, but never with advantage to a ſingle patient. I have alſo tried it in numerous inſtances, after the completion of a courſe of mercury; yet, with the exception of two caſes, where the thickened ſtate of the periofteum was removed during the exhibition of it, I never ſaw the leaſt benefit derived from taking this medicine. In a few caſes of anomalous pains, which I ſuppoſed were derived from irregularities during a mercurial courſe, the mezereum was of ſervice, after I had tried the common decoction of the woods without ſucceſs; but even in this deſcription of caſes I have always found it a very uncertain remedy.

I have made trial of this vegetable in a great number of ſcrofulous caſes, where the membranes covering the bones were in a diſeaſed ſtate, and I am not ſure that one ſingle patient obtained any evident and material benefit from it.

The late Dr. Cullen, whoſe reports may juſtly claim attention from all medical men, when treating of the mezereum, in his materia medica, ſays, "I have frequently employed it in ſeveral cutaneous affections, and ſometimes with ſucceſs." It were to have been wiſhed, that the profeſſor of medicine had ſpecified what thoſe diſeaſes of the ſkin were, in which the mezerium was ſometimes employed with ſucceſs; for, if I except an inſtance or two of lepra, in which the decoction of this plant conferred a temporary benefit, I have very ſeldom found it poſſeſſed of medicinal virtue, either in ſyphilis, or in the ſequelæ of that diſeaſe, in ſcrofula, or in cutaneous affections. Indeed the mezereum is of ſo acrimonious a nature, often producing heat and other diſagreeable ſenſations in the fauces, and on many occaſions, diſordering the primæ viæ, that I do not often ſubject my patients to the certain inconveniences which are connected with the primary effects of this medicine, as they are rarely compenſated by any other important and uſeful qualities.

Miasma, (*Miaſma, ătis*, n. μιασμα; from μιαινω, to infect). See *Contagion*.

Microcosmic bezoar. See *Calculus*.

Milfoil common. See *Millefolium*.

Miliaria, (*Miliaria, æ*, f. from *milium*, millet: ſo called becauſe the ſmall puſtules or veſicles upon the ſkin reſemble millet-ſeed). Miliary fever. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexia* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen; characterized by ſynochus; cold ſtage conſiderable: hot ſtage attended with anxiety and frequent ſighing; perſpiration of a ſtrong and peculiar ſmell; eruption, preceded by a ſenſe of pricking, firſt

on the neck and breaſt, of ſmall red pimples, which in two days become white puſtules, deſquamate, and are ſucceeded by freſh pimples. For the eruption ſimilar to miliaria, but unattended with fever. See *Sudamina*.

MILITĀRIS HERBA. See *Millefolium*.

MILĬUM, (*Milium, i*, n.). *Grutum*. A very white and hard tubercle, in ſize and colour reſembling a millet-ſeed. Its ſeat is immediately under the cuticle, ſo that when preſſed it eſcapes, the contents appearing of an atheromatous nature.

MILĬUM SOLIS. See *Lithoſpermum*.

MILK, (*Lac, tis*, n.). A fluid ſecreted by peculiar glands, and deſigned to nouriſh young animals in the early part of their life. It is of an opake white colour, a mild ſaccharine taſte, and a ſlightly aromatic ſmell. It is ſeparated immediately from the blood in the breaſts or udders of female animals. Man, quadrupeds, and cetaceous animals are the only creatures which afford milk. All other animals are deſtitute of the organs which ſecrete this fluid. Milk differs greatly in the ſeveral animals.

MILK, HUMAN. The white, ſweetiſh fluid, ſecreted by the glandular fabric of the breaſts of women. The *ſecretory organ* is conſtituted by the great conglomerate glands, ſituated in the fat of both breaſts, above the muſculus pectoralis major. From each acinus compoſing a mammary gland, there ariſes a radicle of a *lactiferous* or *galactiferous* duct. All theſe canals gradually converging, are terminated without anaſtomoſis in the papillæ of the breaſts by many orifices, which upon preſſure pour forth milk. The ſmell of freſh-drawn milk is peculiar, animal, fatuous, and not diſagreeable. Its taſte ſweetiſh, ſoft, bland, agreeable. The ſpecific gravity is greater than water, but lighter than blood; hence it ſwims on it. Its colour is white and opake. In conſiſtence it is oily and aqueous. A drop put on the nail flows ſlowly down, if the milk be good.

Time of Secretion: The milk moſt frequently begins to be ſecreted in the laſt months of pregnancy; but on the third day after delivery, a ſerous milk called *Coloſtrum* is ſeparated; and at length pure milk is ſecreted very copiouſly into the breaſts, that from its abundance, often ſpontaneouſly drops from the nipples.

If the ſecretion of milk be daily promoted by ſuckling an infant, it often continues many years, unleſs a freſh pregnancy ſupervene. The quantity uſually ſecreted within twenty-four hours, by nurſes, is various, according as the nouriſhment may be more or leſs chylous. It appears that not more than two pounds of milk are obtained from five or ſix pounds of meat. But there have been known nurſes, who have given from their breaſts two, or even more than three pounds, in addition to that which their child has ſucked. That the origin of the milk is derived from chyle carried with the blood of the mammary arteries into the glandular fabric of the breaſts, is evident from its more copious ſecretion a little after meals; its diminiſhed ſecretion from faſting; from the ſmell and taſte of food or medicines in the ſecreted milk: and laſtly, from its ſpontaneous *aceſcence*; for humours perfectly animal become putrid.

The following are the *Properties* of animal and human milk:

Milk ſeparates ſpontaneouſly into *cream*, *cheeſe*, and *ſerum of milk*; and that ſooner in a warm ſituation than in a cold one. In a greater temperature than that of the air it aceſces and

coagulates, but more eaſily and quicker by the addition of acid ſalts, or coagulating plants. *Lime-water* coagulates milk imperfectly. It is not coagulated by *cauſtic alkali*, for it diſſolves its caſeous part. With *aërated alkali* the caſeous and cremoraceous parts of milk are changed into a liquid ſoap, which ſeparates in the form of white flakes: ſuch milk, by boiling, is changed into a yellow and then into a brown colour. Milk diſtilled to dryneſs, gives out an inſipid water, and leaves a whitiſh brown extract, called the *extract of milk*; which diſſolved in water makes a milk of leſs value. Milk freſh drawn and often agitated in a warm place, by degrees goes into the vinous fermentation, ſo that alkohol may be drawn over by diſtillation, which is called *ſpirit of milk*. It ſucceeds quicker if yeaſt be added to the milk. Mares milk, as it contains the greateſt qnantity of the ſugar of milk, is beſt calculated for vinous fermentation.

The *Principles* of milk, or its integral parts, are, 1. The *Aroma*, or odorous volatile principle, which flies off from freſh drawn milk in the form of viſible vapour. 2. *Water*, which conſtitutes the greateſt part of milk. From one pound, eleven ounces of water may be extracted by diſtillation. This water, with the ſugar of milk, forms the *ſerum of the milk*. 3. *Bland oil*, which from its lightneſs ſwims on the ſurface of milk after ſtanding, and forms the *cream of milk*. 4. *Cheeſe*, ſeparated by coagulating milk, falls to the bottom of the veſſel, and is the animal gluten. 5. *Sugar*, obtained from the ſerum of milk by evaporation. It unites the caſeous and butyraceous part with the water of the milk. 6. Some *neutral ſalts*, as the ſal digeſtivus and muriated calx, which are accidental, not being found at all times, nor in every milk. Theſe principles of milk differ widely in reſpect to quantity and quality, according to the diverſity of the animals.

The *Aroma* of the milk is of ſo different an odour, that perſons accuſtomed to the ſmell, and thoſe whoſe olfactory nerves are very ſenſible, can eaſily diſtinguiſh whether milk be that of the cow, goat, mare, aſs, or human. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſerum of the milk, which is properly the ſeat of the aroma. The *cream* of milk is thicker and more copious in the milk of the ſheep and goat, than in that of the aſs, mare, or human milk. The *butter* of goats and cows is eaſily ſeparated from the milk, and will not again unite itſelf with the butter-milk. Sheep's butter is ſoft and not of the conſiſtence of that obtained from the cow and goat. Aſſes, mares, and human butter can only be ſeparated in the form of cream; which cream, by the aſſiſtance of heat, is with great eaſe again united to the milk from which it was ſeparated. The *Cheeſe* of cows and goats milk is ſolid and elaſtic, that from aſſes and mares ſoft, and that from ſheep's milk almoſt as ſoft as gluten. It is never ſeparated ſpontaneouſly from the milk of a woman, but only by art, and is wholly fluid. The *Serum* abounds moſt in human, aſſes, and mares milk. The milk of the cow and goat contains leſs, and that of the ſheep leaſt of all. The *Sugar* of milk is in the greateſt quantity in the mares and aſſes, and ſomewhat leſs in the human milk.

The *milk of a woman* differs: 1. in reſpect of *food*. The milk of a woman who ſuckles, living upon vegeto-animal food, never aceſces nor coagulates ſpontaneouſly, although expoſed for many weeks to the heat of a furnace. But it evaporates gradually in an open veſſel, and the laſt drop continues thin, ſweet, and

bland. The reaſon appears to be, that the caſeous and cremoraceous parts cohere together by means of the ſugar, more intimately than in the milk of animals, and do not ſo eaſily ſeparate; hence its aceſcenſe is prevented. It does *aceſce*, if mixed or boiled with vinegar, juice of lemons, cremor tartar, ſpirit of vitriol, or with the human ſtomach. It is *coagulated* with the acid of ſalt or nitre, and by the acid gaſtric juice of the infant; for infants often vomit up the coagulated milk of the nurſe. The milk of a ſucking woman who lives upon vegetable food only, like cows milk, eaſily and of its own accord aceſces, and is acted upon by all coagulating ſubſtances like the milk of animals. 2. In reſpect *of the time of digeſtion*. During the firſt hours of digeſtion the chyle is crude, and the milk leſs ſubacted; but towards the twelfth hour after eating, the chyle is changed into blood, and then the milk becomes yellowiſh and nauſeous, and is ſpit out by the infant. Hence the beſt time for giving ſuck is about the fourth or fifth hour after meals. 3. In reſpect *of the time after delivery*. The milk ſecreted immediately after delivery is ſerous, purges the bowels of the infant, and is called *Coloſtrum*. But in the following days it becomes thicker and more pure, and the longer a nurſe ſuckles, the thicker the milk is ſecreted; thus new-born infants cannot retain the milk of a nurſe who has given ſuck for a twelvemonth, on account of its ſpiſſitude. 4. In reſpect *of food or medicines*. Thus if a nurſe eat garlic, the milk becomes highly impregnated with its odour, and is diſagreeable. If ſhe indulge too freely in the uſe of wine or beer, the infant becomes ill. From giving a purging medicine to a nurſe, the child alſo is purged; and laſtly, children affected with tormina of the bowels, ariſing from acids, are often cured by giving the nurſe animal food. 5. In reſpect *of the affections of the mind*. There are frequent examples of infants being ſeized with convulſions from ſucking mothers irritated by anger. An infant of one year old, while he ſucked milk from his enraged mother, on a ſudden was ſeized with a fatal hæmorrhage and died. Infants at the breaſt in a ſhort time pine away, if the nurſe be afflicted with grievous care; and there are alſo infants who after every coition of the mother, or even if ſhe menſtruate, are taken ill.

The *Uſe* of the mothers milk is, 1. It affords the native *aliment* to the new-born infant, in which reſpect milk differs little from chyle. Thoſe children are the ſtrongeſt who are nouriſhed the longeſt by the mother's milk. 2. The *coloſtrum* ſhould not be rejected; for it relaxes the bowels, which in new-born infants ought to be open, to clear their inteſtines of the *meconium*. 3. *Lactation* defends the mother from a dangerous reflux of the milk into the blood, whence lacteal metaſtaſis and leucorrhæa are ſo frequent in lying-in women who do not give ſuck. The motion of the milk alſo being haſtened through the breaſt by the ſucking of the child, prevents the very common induration of the breaſt, which ariſes in conſequence of the milk being ſtagnated. 4. *Men* may *live* upon milk, unleſs they have been accuſtomed to the drinking of wine. For all nations, the Japaneſe alone excepted, uſe milk, and many live upon it alone. Laſtly, for many diſeaſes, eſpecially the gout, ſcurvy, dyſentery, and phthiſical tabes of the different viſcera, a *milk diet* is reckoned amongſt the moſt efficacious remedies.

MILK-TEETH. See *Teeth*.

MILK-THISTLE. The leaves of this plant, when young, ſurpaſs

when boiled, the fineſt cabbage, and poſſeſſes diuretic qualities. See alſo *Carduus mariæ*.

MILK-VETCH. See *Tragacantha*.

MILK-WORT. See *Polygala*.

MILK-WORT, RATTLE SNAKE ROOT. See *Seneka*.

MILLET SEED. The fruit of the *Panicum miliaceum* of Linnæus. They are eſteemed as a nutritious article of diet, and are often made into puddings in this country.

MILLET SEED, INDIAN. The fruit of the *Panicum italicum* of Linnæus. It is much eſteemed in Italy, being a conſtant ingredient in their ſoups, and made into a variety of forms for the table.

MILLĔFOLĬUM, (*Millefolium*, *i*, n. from *mille*, a thouſand, and *folium*, a leaf, named from its numerous leaves). *Achillea. Myriophyllon. Chiliophyllon. Lumber veneris. Militaris herba. Stratioles. Carpentaria. Speculum veneris.* Common yarrow or milfoil. The leaves and flowers of this indigenous plant, *Achillea millefolium*; *foliis bipinnatis nudis*; *laciniis linearibus dentatis*; *caulibus ſuperne ſulcatis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Syngeneſia*. Order *Polygamia ſuperflua*; have an agreeable, weak, aromatic ſmell, and a bitteriſh, rough, and ſomewhat pungent taſte. They are both directed for medicinal uſe in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia; in the preſent practice, however, they are almoſt wholly neglected.

MILLEMORBIA, (*Millemorbia*, *æ*, f. from *millĕ*, a thouſand, and *morbus*, a diſeaſe; ſo called from its uſe in many diſeaſes). See *Scrophularia vulgaris*.

MILLEPEDÆ. See *Millepedes*.

MILLĔPEDES, (*Millepes*, *edis*, m. from *mille*, a thouſand, and *pes*, a foot; named from their numerous feet). *Millipedæ*. Wood-lice. The ſyſtematic name of this inſect is *Oniſcus aſellus* of Linnæus. Theſe inſects, though they obtain a place in the pharmacopœias, are very ſeldom uſed medicinally in this country; they appear to act as ſtimulants and ſlight diuretics, and for this purpoſe they ought to be adminiſtered in a much greater doſe than is uſually preſcribed. The expreſſed juice, or forty or fifty living millepedes, given in a mild drink, is ſaid to cure very obſtinate jaundices.

MILL-MOUNTAIN. See *Linum Catharticum*.

MILTWASTE. See *Ceterach*.

MIMŌSA CATĔCHU. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the terra japonica. See *Catechu*.

MIMŌSA NILOTĬCA. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the gum arabic. See *Arabic gum*.

MIMŌSA SENEGAL. The ſyſtematic name of the tree from which the gum ſenegal exudes.

MINDERERUS SPIRIT. See *Aqua ammoniæ acetata*.

MINERALOGY. That part of natural hiſtory which relates to minerals.

MINERALS, (*Mineralia*, from *mina*, a mine of metal). Minerals are inorganized or inanimate bodies, that increaſe in volume by the juxtapoſition of parts and the force of attraction. The early naturaliſts divided minerals into a great number of claſſes, but by the moderns they are divided only into three ſections. Under the firſt are arranged earths and ſtones which have no taſte, and do not burn when heated with contact of air; under the ſecond, ſaline matters, having more or leſs taſte, which melt in water, and do not burn; and under the third, combuſtible ſubſtances, not ſoluble in water, and exhibiting a flame more or leſs evident when expoſed to fire with acceſs of air.

MINERAL SALTS. See *Salts*.

MINERAL WATERS. *Aquæ minerales. Aquæ medicinales.* Waters holding minerals in ſolution are called

mineral waters. But as all water, in a natural ſtate, is impregnated, either more or leſs, with ſome mineral ſubſtances, the name *mineral waters* ſhould be confined to ſuch waters as are ſufficiently impregnated with mineral matters to produce ſome ſenſible effects on the animal economy, and either to cure or prevent ſome of the diſeaſes to which the human body is liable. On this account, theſe waters might be with much more propriety called *medicinal waters*, were not the name by which they are commonly known too firmly eſtabliſhed by long uſe.

The firſt knowledge of mineral waters, like every other branch of knowledge we poſſeſs, was accidentally diſcovered. The good effects they produced on ſuch as uſed them, have doubtleſs been the cauſe of diſtinguiſhing them from common waters. The firſt philoſophers who conſidered their properties, attended only to their ſenſible qualities, ſuch as colour, weight, or lightneſs, ſmell, and taſte. Pliny, however, diſtinguiſhed a great number of waters, either by their phyſical properties or their uſes; but the inquiry after methods of aſcertaining, by chemical proceſſes, the quantity and quality of the principles held in ſolution by mineral waters, was not attempted till the ſeventeenth century. Boyle is one of the firſt who, in the valuable experiments on colours publiſhed by him at Oxford in 1663, mentioned ſeveral re-agents capable of indicating the ſubſtances diſſolved in water, by the alteration produced in their colours. The academy of ſciences, from its firſt inſtitution, was aware of the importance of analyſing mineral waters; and Duclos, in 1667, attempted the examination of the mineral waters of France: the reſearches of this chemiſt may be found in the original memoirs of this ſociety. Boyle was particularly employed in inquiries reſpecting mineral waters about the end of the ſeventeenth century, and publiſhed a treatiſe on this ſubject in 1685. Boulduc, in the year 1729, publiſhed a method of analyſing waters, which is much more perfect than any which were employed before his time: it conſiſts in evaporating theſe fluids at different times, and ſeparating by filtration the ſubſtances which are depoſited, in proportion as the evaporation proceeds.

Many celebrated chemiſts have ſince made ſucceſsful experiments on mineral waters, and almoſt every one made valuable diſcoveries reſpecting the different principles contained in theſe fluids. Boulduc diſcovered natron, and determined its properties: Le Roi, phyſician of Montpellier, diſcovered calcareous muriat; Margraaff, the muriat of magneſia: Prieſtley, carbonic acid; and Monnet and Bergman the ſulphurated or *hepatic* hydrogen gaz. The two laſt-mentioned chemiſts, beſides the diſcoveries with which they have enriched the art of analyſing waters, have publiſhed complete treatiſes on the method of proceeding in this analyſis; and have carried this part of chemiſtry to a degree of perfection and accuracy far exceeding that which it poſſeſſed before the time of their labours. We are likewiſe in poſſeſſion of particular analyſes, made by very good chemiſts, of a great number of mineral waters, and which ſerve to throw great light on this inquiry, which, with juſtice, is eſteemed one of the moſt difficult in the whole art of chemiſtry. The limits here preſcribed do not permit us to enter at large into the hiſtory of the analyſis of waters, which may be found in many treatiſes, eſpecially one lately publiſhed by the celebrated Dr. Saunders.

Principles contained in Mineral Waters.

It is but a few years ſince the ſubſtances capable of remaining in ſolution in water have been accurately known. This appears to have ariſen from the want of accurate chemical methods of aſcertaining the nature of theſe ſubſtances: and the certainty of their exiſtence has naturally followed the diſcovery of methods of aſcertaining them. Another cauſe which has retarded the progreſs of ſcience in this reſpect is, that mineral matters diſſolved in waters, are almoſt always in very ſmall doſes, and are alſo mixed together in conſiderable numbers, ſo that they mutually tend to conceal or alter thoſe properties in which their diſtinctive characters conſiſt. Nevertheleſs, the numerous experiments of the chemiſts before quoted, and a great number of others, which we ſhall occaſionally mention, have ſhown, that ſome mineral ſubſtances are often found in waters, others ſcarcely ever met with; and laſtly, many which are never held in ſolution by that fluid. We ſhall here conſider each claſs of theſe ſubſtances in order.

Siliceous earth is ſometimes ſuſpended in waters; and as it is in a ſtate of extreme diviſion, it remains ſuſpended without precipitating; but its quantity is extremely minute. The carbonated alkalis and chalk probably contribute to render ſiliceous earth ſoluble.

Alumine likewiſe appears to exiſt in water. The extreme ſubtlety of this earth, by which it is diſperſed through the whole maſs of water, cauſes it to render them turbid. Argillaceous waters are therefore whitiſh, and have a pearl or opal colour; they are likewiſe ſmooth, or greaſy to the touch, and have been called ſaponaceous waters. Carbonic acid ſeems favourable to the ſuſpenſion and ſolution of alumine in water.

Lime, magneſia, and barytes, are never found pure in waters; they are always combined with acids.

Fixed alkalis are never met with in a ſtate of purity in waters, but frequently combined with acids, in the form of neutral ſalts.

The ſame obſervation applies to ammoniac, and moſt acids, except the carbonic acid, which is often free, and in poſſeſſion of all its properties in waters. It conſtitutes a peculiar claſs of mineral waters, known by the name of *gaſeous*, *ſpirituous*, or *acidulous* waters.

Among the neutral ſalts, with baſes of fixed alkalis, ſcarcely any are met with but ſulphat of ſoda or *Glauber's ſalt*, the muriats of ſoda, and of potaſh, and carbonat of ſoda, which are frequently diſſolved in mineral waters; nitrat and carbonat of potaſh are rarely found.

Sulphat of lime, calcareous muriat, chalk, ſulphat of magneſia, or *Epſom ſalt*, muriat of magneſia, and carbonat of magneſia, are the earthy ſalts which are moſt commonly found in waters. As to the calcareous nitrat, and nitrat of magneſia, which ſome chemiſts have aſſerted they have met with, theſe ſalts are ſcarcely ever found in mineral waters properly ſo called, though they exiſt in ſalt waters.

The aluminous neutral ſalts, and ſalts with baſe of barytes, are ſcarcely ever diſſolved in waters. Alum or acid ſulphat of alumine, appears to exiſt in ſome waters.

Pure hydrogen gas has not yet been found diſſolved in mineral waters.

Pure ſulphur has not yet been found in theſe fluids, though it exiſts very rarely in ſmall quantities in the ſtate of ſulphure of ſoda. Sulphureous waters are moſt commonly mineralized by ſulphurated hydrogen gas.

Laſtly, Among metals, iron is moſt commonly diſſolved in water, and may be found in two ſtates; either combined with carbonic acid, or

with the ſulphuric acid. Some chemiſts have ſuppoſed that it was likewiſe diſſolved in its metallic ſtate, without an acid intermedium; but as this metal ſcarcely ever exiſts in nature without being in the ſtate of oxyd, combined with the carbonic or ſulphuric acid, the opinion of theſe philoſophers could only be maintained at the time when the carbonic acid was not yet diſcovered: and the ſolution of iron in water, without the aſſiſtance of the ſulphuric acid, could not otherwiſe be accounted for. Bergman affirms, that iron, as well as manganeſe, is found in certain waters, combined with the muriatic acid.

Oxyd of arſenic, and the ſulphats of copper and zinc, which exiſt in many waters, communicate poiſonous properties to them, and ſhow, when diſcovered by analyſis, that the uſe of ſuch waters muſt be carefully avoided.

Moſt chemiſts at preſent deny the exiſtence of bitumen in waters: in fact, the bitter taſte was the cauſe why waters were formerly ſuppoſed to contain this oily ſubſtance; but it is now known that this taſte, which does not exiſt in bitumen, is produced by the calcareous muriat.

There is no difficulty in conceiving how water, which percolates through the interior parts of the globe, and eſpecially through the mountains, may become charged with the different ſubſtances we have enumerated. It is likewiſe clear, that according to the nature and extent of the ſtrata of earth, through which they paſs, mineral waters will be more or leſs charged with theſe principles, and that the quantity and nature of theſe principles muſt be ſubject to great variations, eſpecially when we conſider the changes in the direction of their courſe to which theſe fluids are liable from the various alterations which the globe undergoes, particularly on it ſurface and its more elevated parts.

The different Claſſes of Mineral Waters.

It appears from what we have already obſerved reſpecting the different ſubſtances uſually contained in mineral waters, that theſe fluids may be claſſed according to the earthy, ſaline, and metallic ſubſtances they hold in ſolution; and that the number of claſſes, on this principle, would be very conſiderable: but it muſt be obſerved, that none of theſe ſubſtances are found ſingle and alone in waters; but, on the contrary, they are often diſſolved, in the number of three, four, five, or even more. This circumſtance creates a difficulty in the methodical claſſification of waters, relative to the principles that they contain. However, if we attend to thoſe ſubſtances which are the moſt abundantly contained in waters, or whoſe properties are the moſt prevalent, we ſhall be able to make a diſtinction, which, though not very accurate, will be ſufficient to arrange theſe fluids, and to form a judgment of their virtues. Chemiſts who have attended to mineral waters in general, have availed themſelves of this method. Monnet has eſtabliſhed three claſſes of mineral waters; the alkaline, the ſulphureous, and the ferruginous; and ſubſequent diſcoveries have enlarged the number of claſſes. Duchanoy, who has publiſhed a valuable treatiſe on the art of imitating mineral waters, diſtinguiſhes ten, viz. the gaſeous, the alkaline, the earthy, the ferruginous, the ſimple hot, the gaſeous thermal, the ſaponaceous, the ſulphureous, the bituminous, and the ſaline waters. Although it may be urged as a reproach, that this author has made his claſſes two numerous, ſince the pure gaſeous and bituminous waters are unknown; yet his diviſion is doubtleſs the moſt complete, and gives the moſt accurate idea of the nature of the different mineral waters, and conſequently is the beſt ſuited to

his ſubject. We ſhall here propoſe a diviſion leſs extenſive, and in our opinion more methodical, than that of Duchanoy; at the ſame time obſerving, that we do not conſider ſimple thermal waters as mineral waters, becauſe they conſiſt merely of heated water, according to the beſt chemiſts; and that we ſhall not ſpeak of bituminous waters, becauſe none ſuch have been yet found.

It appears to us, that all mineral waters may be arranged in four claſſes, viz. acidulous, ſaline, ſulphureous, and ferruginous waters.

Class I. *Acidulous Waters.*

Gaſeous waters. which may with more propriety be called acidulous waters, are thoſe in which the carbonic acid predominates; they are known by their ſharp taſte, and the facility with which they boil and afford bubbles by ſimple agitation: they redden the tincture of turnſole, precipitate lime water and alkaline ſulphures. As no waters have yet been diſcovered which contain this acid pure and alone, we think this claſs may be divided into ſeveral orders, according to the other principles contained in them, or the modifications they exhibit. They all appear to contain more or leſs alkali and calcareous earth; but their different degrees of heat afford a good criterion for dividing them into two orders; the firſt might comprehend cold, acidulous, and alkaline waters, ſuch as thoſe of Seltzer, Saint-Myon, Bard, Langeac, Chateldon, Vals, &c. in the ſecond might be placed, hot, or thermal, acidulous, and alkaline waters, as thoſe of Mount D'Or, Vichy, Chatelguyon, &c.

Class II. *Saline or Salt Waters.*

By the name of ſaline waters, we underſtand ſuch as contain a ſufficient quantity of neutral ſalt to act ſtrongly on the animal economy, ſo as moſt commonly to purge. The theory and nature of theſe waters are eaſily diſcovered; they perfectly reſemble the ſolutions of ſalt made in our laboratories; but they almoſt always contain two or three different ſpecies of ſalts. The ſulphat of ſoda is very rare; ſulphat of magneſia, or Epſom ſalt, marine ſalt, or muriat of ſoda, calcareous and magneſian muriats, or the ſaline principles which mineralize them, either together or ſeparate. The waters of Sedliz, of Seydſchutz, and of Egra, abound with Epſom ſalt, frequently mixed with muriat of magneſia. Thoſe of Balaruc contain muriat of ſoda, chalk, and the calcareous and magneſian muriats; thoſe of Bourbonne, muriat of ſoda, ſulphat of lime and chalk; and thoſe of la Mothe contain muriat of ſoda, ſulphat of lime, chalk, ſulphat of magneſia, muriat of magneſia, and an extractive matter. It muſt be here obſerved, that ſalts, with baſe of magneſia, are much more common in waters than has hitherto been ſuppoſed; and that few analyſis have yet been made in which they have been well diſtinguiſhed from calcareous muriat.

Class III. *Sulphureous Waters.*

The name of ſulphureous waters has been given to ſuch mineral waters as appear to poſſeſs ſome of the properties of ſulphur; ſuch as the ſmell, and the property of diſcolouring ſilver. Chemiſts have long been ignorant of the true mineralizer of theſe waters; moſt have ſuppoſed it to be ſulphur, but they never ſucceeded in exhibiting it, or at leaſt have found it in quantities ſcarcely perceptible. Thoſe who have made experiments on ſome of theſe waters have allowed them to contain either ſulphureous ſpirit, or an alkaline ſulphur. Venel and Monnet are the firſt who op-

poſed this opinion; the latter, in particular, nearly diſcovered the truth, when he conſidered ſulphureous waters as impregnated merely by the vapour of *liver of ſulphur*. Rouelle the younger likewiſe affirmed, that theſe fluids might be imitated by agitating water in contact with *air*, diſengaged from an alkaline ſulphure by an acid. Bergman carried this doctrine much farther, by examining the properties of ſulphurated hydrogen gas, he has proved that this gas mineralizes ſulphureous waters, which he therefore calls *hepatic waters*, and has directed methods of aſcertaining the preſence of ſulphur. Notwithſtanding theſe diſcoveries, Duchanoy, ſpeaking of ſulphureous waters, admits of ſulphur, ſometimes alkaline, ſometimes calcareous, or aluminous. He follows the opinion of Le Roy of Montpellier, who propoſed a ſulphure with baſe of magneſia in imitating theſe waters. It appears in fact to be true, that there are waters which contain a ſmall quantity of ſulphur, while there are others which are mineralized only by ſulphurated hydrogen gas. In this caſe it will be neceſſary to diſtinguiſh ſulphureous waters into two orders: 1. Thoſe which contain a ſmall quantity of alkaline or calcareous ſulphur; and, 2. Thoſe which are only impregnated with ſulphuric hydrogen gas. The waters of Bareges and Cauterets, and the Bonnes waters, appear to belong to this firſt order; and thoſe of St. Amant, Aix la Chapelle, and Montmorency, appear to belong to the ſecond. Moſt of theſe waters are thermal, but that of Montmorency is cold.

Class IV. *Ferruginous Waters.*

Iron being the moſt abundant of metals, and the moſt ſuſceptible of alteration, it is not to be wondered at that water eaſily becomes charged with it, and conſequently that the ferruginous waters are the moſt abundant and moſt common of all mineral waters. Modern chemiſtry has thrown great light on this claſs of waters; they were formerly ſuppoſed to be all impregnated with ſulphat of iron. Monnet has aſcertained that moſt of them do not contain this ſalt, and he ſuppoſed that the iron is diſſolved without the intermedium of an acid. It is at preſent known, that the iron is not in the ſtate of ſulphat, but is diſſolved by means of the carbonic acid, and forms the ſalt which we have called carbonat of iron. Lane, Rouelle, Bergman, and many other chemiſts, have put this out of doubt. The greater or leſs quantity of carbonic acid, and the ſtate of the iron in waters of this kind, render it neceſſary to diſtinguiſh the preſent claſs into three orders.

The firſt order comprehends martial acidulous waters, in which the iron is held in ſolution by the carbonic acid, whoſe ſuperabundance renders them briſk and ſubacid. The waters of Buſſang, Spa, Pyrmont, Pouhon, and La Dominique de Vals, are of this firſt order.

The ſecond contains ſimple martial waters in which the iron is diſſolved by the carbonic acid, without exceſs of the latter. Theſe waters conſequently are not acidulous. The water of Forges, Aumale, and Conde, as well as the greater number of ferruginous waters, are of this order; this diſtinction of ferruginous waters was made by Duchanoy.

But we add a third order, after Monnet, which is that of waters containing ſulphat of iron. Though theſe are extremely rare, yet ſome of them are found. Monnet has placed the waters of Paſſy in this order. Opoix admits the ſulphate of iron, even in a conſiderable quantity, in

the waters of Provins. It is true, that De Fourcy denies its exiſtence, and conſiders the iron of theſe waters as diſſolved by carbonic acid. But no deciſion can be made reſpecting this ſubject, becauſe the reſults of theſe chemiſts entirely diſagree, and require new experiments to be made. It muſt be added, that the iron is not found alone in theſe waters, but is mixed with chalk, ſulphat of lime, various muriatic ſalts, &c. However, as the metal they contain is the principal baſis of their properties, they muſt be called ferruginous, in conformity with the principles we have laid down.

As to the ſaponaceous waters admitted by Duchanoy, we muſt wait till chemical and medical experiments have aſcertained the cauſe of their ſaponaceous property, which this phyſician attributes to alumine; as well as of the effects they may produce in the animal economy, as medicines, by virtue of this property.

From theſe details we find, that all mineral and medicinal waters are divided into nine orders, viz.

Cold acidulous waters.
Hot or thermal acidulous waters.
Sulphuric ſaline waters.
Muriatic ſaline waters.
Simple ſulphureous waters.
Sulphurated gaſeous waters.
Simple ferruginous waters.
Ferruginous and acidulous waters.
Sulphuric ferruginous waters.

Examination of Mineral Waters, according to their Phyſical Properties.

After having ſhown the different matters which may be found in waters, and exhibited a ſlight ſketch of the method in which they may be divided into claſſes and orders, according to their principles, it will be neceſſary to mention the methods of analyſing them, and diſcovering with the greateſt poſſible degree of accuracy, the ſubſtances they hold in ſolution. This analyſis has been juſtly conſidered as the moſt difficult part of chemiſtry, ſince it requires a perfect knowledge of all chemical phenomena, joined to the habit of making experiments. To obtain an accurate knowledge of the nature of any water propoſed to be examined, 1. The ſituation of the ſpring, and the nature of the ſoil, more eſpecially with reſpect to mineral ſtrata, muſt be carefully obſerved; for this purpoſe, cavities may be dug to different depths, in order to diſcover, by inſpection, the ſubſtances with which the water may be charged. 2. The phyſical properties of the water itſelf, ſuch as its taſte, ſmell, colour, tranſparence, weight, and temperature, muſt next be examined; for this purpoſe, two thermometers, which perfectly agree, and a good hydrometer, muſt be provided. Theſe preliminary experiments require likewiſe to be made in the different ſeaſons, different times of the day, and eſpecially in different ſtates of the atmoſphere; for a continuance of dry weather, or of abundant rain, has a ſingular influence on waters. Theſe firſt trials uſually ſhow the claſs to which the water under examination may be referred, and direct the method of analyſis. 3. The depoſitions formed at the bottom of the baſons, the ſubſtances which float on the water, and the matters which riſe by ſublimation, form likewiſe an object of important reſearch, which muſt not be neglected. After this preliminary examination, the proper analyſis may be proceeded on, which is made after three methods, by re-agents, by diſtillation, and by evaporation.

The examination of Mineral Waters, by Re-agents.

Theſe ſubſtances, which are mixed with waters, in order to diſcover the

nature of the bodies held in ſolution by ſuch waters, from the phenomena they preſent, are called re-agents.

The beſt chemiſts have always conſidered the uſe of re-agents as a very uncertain method of diſcovering the principles of mineral waters. This opinion is founded on the conſiderations that their effects do not determine in an accurate manner, the nature of the ſubſtances held in ſolutions in waters; that the cauſe of the changes which happen in fluids by their addition is often unknown: and that in fact, the ſaline matters uſually applied in this analyſis are capable of producing a great number of phenomena, reſpecting which it is often difficult to form any deciſion. For theſe reaſons, moſt chemiſts who have undertaken this analyſis, have placed little dependence on the application of re-agents. They have concluded, that evaporation affords a much ſurer method of aſcertaining the nature and quantity of the principles of mineral waters; and it is taken for granted, in the beſt works on the analyſis of theſe fluids, that re-agents are only to be uſed as ſecondary means, which at moſt ſerve to indicate or afford a probable gueſs of the nature of the principles concontained in waters; and for this reaſon, modern analyſts have admitted no more than a certain number of re-agents, and have greatly diminiſhed the liſt of thoſe uſed by the earlier chemiſts.

But it cannot be doubted at preſent, that the heat required to evaporate the water, however gentle it may be, muſt produce ſenſible alterations in its principles, and change them in ſuch a manner, as that their reſidues, examined by the different methods of chemiſtry, ſhall afford compounds differing from thoſe which were originally held in ſolution in the water. The loſs of the gaſeous ſubſtances, which frequently are the principal agents in mineral waters, ſingularly changes their nature, and beſides cauſing a precipitation of many ſubſtances, which owe their ſolubility to the preſence of theſe volatile matters, likewiſe produces a re-action among the other fixed matters, whoſe properties are accordingly changed. The phenomena of double decompoſitions, which heat is capable of producing between compounds that remain unchanged in cold water, cannot be eſtimated and allowed for, but in conſequence of a long ſeries of experiments not yet made. Without entering, therefore, more fully into theſe conſiderations, it will be enough to obſerve, that this aſſertion, whoſe truth is admitted by every chemiſt, ſufficiently ſhows, that evaporation is not entirely to be depended on. Hence it becomes a queſtion, whether there be any method of aſcertaining the peculiar nature of ſubſtances diſſolved in water without having recourſe to heat; and whether the accurate reſults of the numerous experiments of modern writers afford any proceſs for correcting the error which might ariſe from evaporation. The following pages extracted from a memoir communicated by M. Fourcroy to the Royal Society of medicine, will ſhew, that very pure re-agents uſed in a peculiar manner, may be of much greater uſe in the analyſis of mineral waters than has hitherto been thought.

Among the conſiderable number of re-agents propoſed for the analyſis of mineral waters, thoſe which promiſe the moſt uſeful reſults are tincture of turnſole, ſyrup of violets, lime-water, pure and cauſtic potaſh, cauſtic ammoniac, concentrated ſulphuric acid, nitrous acid, pruſſiat of lime, gallic alkohol, or *ſpirituous tincture of nut-galls*, the nitric ſolutions of mercury and of ſilver, paper coloured by the aqueous tincture of fernambouc, which becomes blue by

means of alkalis, the aqueous tincture of *terra merita*, which the ſame ſalts convert to a brown red, the oxalic acid to exhibit the ſmalleſt quantity of lime, and the muriat of barytes to aſcertain the ſmalleſt poſſible quantity of ſulphuric acid.

The effects and uſe of theſe principal re-agents have been explained by all chemiſts, but they have not inſiſted on the neceſſity of their ſtate of purity. Before they are employed it is of the utmoſt importance perfectly to aſcertain their nature, in order to avoid fallacious effects. Bergman has treated very amply of the alterations they are capable of producing. This celebrated chemiſt affirms, that paper coloured with the tincture of turnſole becomes of a deeper blue by alkalis; but that it is not altered by the carbonic acid. But as this colouring matter is uſeful chiefly to aſcertain the preſence of this acid, he directs its tincture in water to be uſed, ſufficiently diluted, till it has a blue colour. He abſolutely rejects ſyrup of violets, becauſe it is ſubject to ferment, and becauſe it is ſcarcely ever obtained without adulteration in Sweden. Morveau adds in a note, that it is eaſy to diſtinguiſh a ſyrup coloured by turnſole, by the application of corroſive ſublimate, which gives it a red colour, while it converts the true ſyrup of violets to a green.

Lime-water is one of the moſt uſeful agents in the analyſis of mineral waters, though few chemiſts have expreſsly mentioned it in their works. This fluid decompoſes metallic ſalts, eſpecially ſulphat of iron, whoſe metallic oxyd it precipitates; it ſeparates alumine and magneſia from the ſulphuric and muriatic acids, to which theſe ſubſtances are frequently united in waters. It likewiſe indicates the preſence of carbonic acid, by its precipitation. M. Gioanetti, a phyſician of Turin, has very ingeniouſly applied it to aſcertain the quantity of carbonic acid contained in the water of St. Vincent. This chemiſt, after having obſerved that the volume or bulk of this acid, from which its quantity has always been eſtimated, muſt vary, according to the temperature of the atmoſphere, mixed nine parts of lime-water with two parts of the water of St. Vincent: he weighed the *calcareous earth* formed by the combination of the carbonic acid of the mineral water with lime, and found, according to the calculation of Jaquin, who proves the exiſtence of thirteen ounces of this acid in thirty-two ounces of chalk, that the water of St. Vincent contained ſomewhat more than fifteen grains. But as the lime-water may ſeize the carbonic acid united with fixed alkali, as well as that which is at liberty, M. Gioanetti, to aſcertain more exactly the quantity of this laſt, made the ſame experiment with water deprived of its diſengaged acid by ebullition. This proceſs may therefore be employed to determine, in an eaſy and accurate manner, the weight of diſengaged carbonic acid, contained in a gaſeous mineral water.

One of the principal reaſons which have induced chemiſts to conſider the action of re-agents in the analyſis of mineral waters as very fallacious, is, that they are capable of indicating ſeveral different ſubſtances held in ſolution in waters, and that it is then very difficult to know exactly the effects they will produce. This obſervation relates more eſpecially to potaſh, conſidered as a re-agent, becauſe it decompoſes all the ſalts which are formed by the union of acids with alumine, magneſia, lime, and metals. When this alkali precipitates a mineral water, it cannot, therefore, be known by ſimple inſpection of the precipitate, of what nature the earthy ſalt decompoſed in

the experiment may be. Its effect is ſtill more uncertain, when the alkali made uſe of is ſaturated with carbonic acid, as is moſt commonly the caſe, ſince the acid to which it is united augments the confuſion of effects: for this reaſon, the uſe of very pure cauſtic potaſh is propoſed, which likewiſe poſſeſſes an advantage over the efferveſcent alkali, viz. that of indicating the preſence of chalk diſſolved in a gaſeous water, by virtue of the ſuperabundant carbonic acid: for it ſeizes this acid, and the chalk falls down of courſe. This fact by is eſtabliſhed by pouring ſoap lees newly made, into an artificial gaſeous water, which holds chalk in ſolution. The latter ſubſtance is precipitated in proportion as the cauſtic fixed alkali ſeizes the carbonic acid which held it in ſolution. By evaporating the filtrated water to dryneſs, carbonat of ſoda is obtained, ſtrongly efferveſcent with acids. The cauſtic fixed alkali likewiſe occaſions a precipitate in mineral waters, though they do not contain earthy ſalts; for if they contain an alkaline neutral ſalt, of a leſs ſoluble nature, the additional alkali will precipitate it by uniting with the water, nearly in the ſame manner as alkohol does. M. Gioanetti has obſerved this phenomenon in the waters of St. Vincent; and it may eaſily be ſeen by pouring cauſtic alkali into a ſolution of ſulphat of potaſh, or muriat of ſoda; theſe two ſalts being quickly precipitated.

Cauſtic ammoniac is in general leſs productive of error when mixed with mineral waters; becauſe it decompoſes only ſalts, with baſe of alumine or magneſia, and does not precipitate the calcareous ſalts. It is neceſſary, however, to make two obſervations reſpecting this ſalt: the firſt is, that it muſt be exceedingly cauſtic, or totally deprived of carbonic acid; without this precaution, it decompoſes calcareous ſalts by double affinity: the ſecond is, that the mixture muſt not be left expoſed to air, when the effect of its action is required to be inſpected ſeveral hours after it is added; becauſe, as M. Gioanetti has well obſerved, this ſalt in a very ſhort time ſeizes the carbonic acid of the atmoſphere, and becomes capable of decompoſing calcareous ſalts. To put this important fact out of doubt, Fourcroy made three deciſive experiments; ſome grains of ſulphat of lime, formed of tranſparent calcareous ſpar, becauſe chalk, or Spaniſh white, contain magneſia and river water: he divided this ſolution into two parts; into the firſt he poured a few drops of very pure ſulphuric acid, recently made, and very cauſtic; this he put into a well-cloſed bottle: at the end of twenty-four and forty-eight hours it was clear and tranſparent, without any precipitate, and therefore no decompoſition had taken place. The ſecond portion was treated in the ſame manner with ammoniac, but placed in a veſſel which communicated with the air by a large aperture: at the end of a few hours a cloud was formed near the upper ſurface, which continually increaſed, and was at laſt precipitated to the bottom. This depoſition efferveſced ſtrongly with ſulphuric acid, and formed ſulphat of lime. The carbonic acid contained in this precipitate was therefore afforded by the ammoniac which had attracted it from the atmoſphere. This combination of carbonic acid and ammoniac forms ammoniacal carbonat, capable of decompoſing calcareous ſalts by double affinity, as Black, Jacquin, and many other chemiſts have ſhown, and as may be eaſily proved by pouring a ſolution of ammoniacal carbonat into a ſolution of ſulphat of lime, which is not rendered turbid by cauſtic ammoniac. Laſtly, to render the theory of this

ſecond experiment clearer, Fourcroy took the firſt portion to which the cauſtic ammoniac had been added, and which, having been kept in a cloſe veſſel, had loſt no part of its tranſparency. He reverſed the bottle which contained it, over the funnel of a very ſmall pneumato-chemical apparatus, and by the aſſiſtance of a ſyphon, paſſed into it carbonic acid gas, diſengaged from the effervescent fixed alkali by ſulphuric acid. In proportion as the bubbles of this acid paſſed through the mixture, it became turbid in the ſame manner as lime-water; by filtration a precipitate was ſeparated, which was found to be chalk, and the water, by evaporation, afforded ammoniacal ſulphat: gaſeous water, or the liquid carbonic acid, produced the ſame compoſition in another mixture of ſulphat of lime, and cauſtic ammoniac. This deciſive experiment clearly ſhows, that ammoniac decompoſes ſulphat of lime by double affinity, and by means of the carbonic acid. Hence we ſee, that when it is required to preſerve a mixture of the mineral water with ammoniac for ſeveral hours (which is ſometimes neceſſary, becauſe it does not decompoſe certain earthy ſalts, but very ſlowly), the experiment muſt be made in a veſſel which can be accurately cloſed, in order to prevent the contact of air, which would falſify the reſult. This precaution, which is of great importance in the uſe of all re-agents, is likewiſe mentioned by Bergman and Gioanetti. To theſe may be added another obſervation concerning the uſe of ammoniac. As it is a matter of conſiderable difficulty to preſerve ammoniac in the ſtate of perfect cauſticity, though it is neceſſary to be had in ſuch a ſtate, for the analyſis of mineral waters, a very ſimple expedient, which may be applied in this caſe. It is to pour a ſmall quantity of ammoniac into a retort, whoſe neck is plunged in the mineral water: when the retort is ſlightly heated, the ammoniacal gas becomes diſengaged, and paſſes highly cauſtic into the water. If it occaſions a precipitate, it may be concluded that the mineral water contains ſulphat of iron, which may be known by the colour of the precipitate, or otherwiſe that it contains ſalts, with baſe of aluminous or magneſian earth. Generally this precipitate is formed by the chalk which was held in ſolution in the water, by means of the carbonic acid; ammoniac abſorbs this acid, and the chalk is depoſited. It is difficult to determine from the phyſical properties of the earthy precipitate formed in waters by cauſtic ammoniac, to which of the two laſt baſes it is to be attributed; yet the manner in which it is formed may ſerve to decide. Six grains of ſulphat of magneſia were diſſolved in four ounces of diſtilled water, and ſix grains of alum in an equal quantity of the ſame fluid: through each of theſe ſolutions a ſmall quantity of ammoniacal gas was paſſed: the firſt ſolution immediately became turbid, while the latter did not begin to exhibite a precipitate till twenty minutes after. Theſe mixtures were carefully included in well cloſed bottles. The ſame phenomenon took place with the nitrats and muriats of magneſia and alumine, diſſolved in equal quantities of diſtilled water, and treated in the ſame manner. The quickneſs or ſlowneſs of the precipitation of a mineral water, by the addition of ammoniacal gas, therefore affords the means of aſcertaining the nature of the earthy ſalt decompoſed by this gas. In general, ſalts, with baſe of magneſia, are much more uſually met with than thoſe with baſe of aluminous earth. Bergman has obſerved, that ammoniac is capable of forming with ſulphat of magneſia

a compound, in which a portion of this neutral ſalt is combined, without decompoſition, with a portion of ammoniacal ſulphat. This non-decompoſed portion of ſulphat of magneſia may probably form, with the ammoniacal ſulphat, a mixed neutral ſalt, ſimilar to the ammoniaco-mercurial muriat, or *ſal alembroth*. The ammoniac does not, therefore, precipitate the whole of the magneſia, and conſequently does not accurately exhibit the quantity of *Epſom ſalt*, of which that earth is the baſe. For this reaſon lime water is preferable for aſcertaining the nature and quantity of ſalts with baſe of magneſia contained in mineral waters. It has likewiſe the property of precipitating the ſalts with aluminous baſe much more abundantly and readily than ammoniacal gas.

The concentrated ſulphuric acid precipitates a white powder from water which contains barytes, according to Bergman; but, as the ſame chemiſt obſerves, that this earth is ſeldom found in mineral waters, it will not be neceſſary to enlarge on the effects of this re-agent. When it produces an effervescence, or bubbles in water, it indicates the preſence of chalk, carbonat of ſoda, or pure carbonic acid; each of theſe ſubſtances may be diſtinguiſhed by certain peculiar phenomena. If water containing chalk be heated after the addition of ſulphuric acid, a pellicle and depoſition of ſulphat of lime are ſoon formed, which does not happen with waters which are ſimply alkaline. At firſt conſideration it may ſeem that the ſulphat of lime ought to be precipitated as ſoon as the ſulphuric acid is poured into water containing chalk; this, however, very ſeldom happens without the aſſiſtance of heat, becauſe theſe waters moſt commonly contain a ſuperabundance of carbonic acid which favours the ſolution of the ſulphat of lime, and of which it is neceſſary to deprive them before the ſalt can be precipitated. This fact may be ſhown in the cleareſt manner, by pouring a few drops of concentrated ſulphuric acid into a certain quantity of lime-water which has been precipitated, and afterwards rendered clear by the addition of carbonic acid: if the lime-water be highly charged with regenerated calcareous earth, a precipitate of ſulphat of lime is thrown down in a few minutes, or more ſlowly in proportion as the carbonic acid is ſet at liberty. If no precipitate be afforded by ſtanding, as will be the caſe when the quantity of ſulphat of lime is very ſmall, and the ſuperabundant carbonic acid conſiderable, the application of a ſlight degree of heat will cauſe a pellicle of calcareous ſulphat, and a precipitate of the ſame nature to be formed.

The nitrous acid is recommended by Bergman to precipitate ſulphur from *hepatized* waters. The experiment may be made by pouring a few drops of the brown and fuming acid on diſtilled water, in which the gas diſengaged from cauſtic alkaline ſulphure, heated in a retort, has been received. This artificial *hepatic* water, which does not conſiderably differ from natural ſulphureous waters, except in the circumſtance of its being more difficult to filter, and its always appearing ſomewhat turbid, affords a precipitate in a few ſeconds, by the addition of nitrous acid; the precipitate is of a yellowiſh white; when collected on a filter and dried, it burns with the flame and ſmell of ſulphur, and in other reſpects has every character of that inflammable body. Nitrous acid ſeems to alter ſulphurated hydrogen gas in the ſame manner as it does all other inflammable ſubſtances, by virtue of the great quantity of oxygen it contains. Scheele has recom-

mended the oxygenated muriatic acid to precipitate the ſulphur from waters of this nature: only a very ſmall quantity of it muſt be uſed, otherwiſe the ſulphur will be burned and reduced to the ſtate of ſulphuric acid. Sulphureous acid precipitates the ſulphur very readily from waters which contain it.

There are few re-agents whoſe mode of action is leſs known than that of the alkaline lixivium of blood, which has been called *phlogiſticated alkali*; it has been long ſince aſcertained, that this liquor contains Pruſſian blue, or pruſſiat of iron, ready formed; it has been thought that this blue might be ſeparated by the addition of an acid; and in this ſtate it has been propoſed as a ſubſtance capable of exhibiting iron exiſting in mineral waters. Nothing can be more uncertain than the complete ſeparation of pruſſiat of iron from this pruſſiat of potaſh made with blood. This lixivium ought therefore to be no longer uſed as a re-agent. Macquer having diſcovered that Pruſſian blue is decompoſed by alkalis, propoſed potaſh ſaturated with the colouring matter of this blue, as a teſt to aſcertain the preſence of iron in mineral waters. But as the liquor itſelf likewiſe contains a ſmall quantity of Pruſſian blue, which may be ſeparated by means of an acid, as Macquer has ſhown, Baumé adviſes that two or three ounces of diſtilled vinegar be added to each pound of this Pruſſian alkali, and digeſted in a gentle heat, till the whole of the Pruſſian blue is precipitated; after which pure fixed alkali is to be added to ſaturate the acid of vinegar. Notwithſtanding this ingenious proceſs, Fourcroy has obſerved, that the Pruſſian alkali, purified by vinegar, depoſits Pruſſian blue in proceſs of time, more eſpecially by evaporation. M. Gioanetta made the ſame obſervation by evaporating the Pruſſian alkali, purified, by the method of Baume, to dryneſs: he has propoſed two proceſſes for obtaining this liquor in a ſtate of purity, and totally exempt from iron; the one conſiſts in ſuperſaturating the Pruſſian alkali with diſtilled vinegar, evaporating it to dryneſs by a gentle heat, diſſolving the remaining maſs in diſtilled water, and filtrating the ſolution; all the Pruſſian blue remains on the filter, and the liquor which paſſes through contains none at all. The other proceſs conſiſts in neutralizing the alkali with a ſolution of alum, from which after filtrating, the ſulphat of potaſh is ſeparated by evaporation. Theſe two liquors do not afford a particle of Pruſſian blue with the pure acids, nor by evaporation to dryneſs. The lime water, ſaturated with the colouring matter of Pruſſian blue, mentioned by us in treating on iron, does not require theſe preliminary operations: when poured on a ſolution of ſulphat of iron, it immediately forms pure Pruſſian blue, without any mixture of green. Acids only precipitate a few particles of Pruſſian blue from this re-agent; it therefore does not contain iron, and conſequently is preferable to the Pruſſian alkalis, in the aſſay of mineral waters. This phenomenon doubtleſs depends on the action of the lime, which, when diſſolved in water, is far from having the ſame efficacy on iron as alkalis have. This pruſſiat of lime ſeems to be exceedingly well adapted to diſtinguiſh ferruginous waters, whether they be gaſeous or ſulphuric. In fact, the carbonic gas, which holds iron in ſolution in waters, being of an acid nature, decompoſes Pruſſian lixiviums by the way of double affinity, as well as ſulphat of iron. Fourcroy tried pruſſiat of lime on Spa waters, and thoſe of Paſſy, and he immediately obtained a very percep-

tible blue in the former, and very abundant in the latter. This, therefore, is a liquor very eaſily prepared, which does not contain the ſmalleſt portion of Pruſſian blue, and is exceedingly well calculated to exhibit the preſence of ſmall quantities of iron in waters. It is a kind of neutral ſalt, formed by the pruſſic acid, or the colouring part of the blue and lime.

Nut-galls, as well as all other bitter and aſtringent vegetables, ſuch as oak bark, the fruit of the cypreſs tree, the huſks of nuts, &c. have the property of precipitating ſolutions of iron, and exhibiting that metal of different colours, according to its quantity, its ſtate, and that of the water in which it is diſſolved. This colour in general is of all ſhades, from a pale roſe to the deepeſt black. It is well known that the purple colour aſſumed by waters, with the tincture of nut-galls, is not a proof that they contain iron in its metallic ſtate, ſince the ſulphat and carbonat of iron likewiſe aſſumes a purple colour by the infuſion of nut-galls. The differences of colour obſerved in theſe precipitations, depend rather on the quantity of iron, its greater or leſs degree of adheſion to the water, and the more or leſs advanced ſtate of decompoſition of the ſolution, relatively to the quantity of oxygen contained in the iron. The aſtringent principle is known to be a peculiar acid, ſince it unites with alkalis, converts blue vegetable colours to a red, decompoſes alkaline ſulphures, and combines with metallic oxyds. Nut-galls in powder, the infuſion of this ſubſtance in water, made without heat, and the tincture by alkohol, are uſed to aſcertain the preſence of iron in mineral waters. The tincture is preferred, becauſe it is not ſubject to become mouldy as the aqueous ſolution is. The diſtilled products of nut-galls likewiſe colour ferruginous ſolutions. The infuſions in acids, alkalis, oils, and ether exhibit the ſame phenomenon. The iron precipitated by this matter from acids is in the ſtate of gallat of iron, and forms a kind of neutral ſalt, which, though very black, is not attracted by the magnet. It diſſolves ſlowly, and without ſenſible effervescence in acids, but loſes theſe properties by the action of fire, and is then attracted by the magnet. The nut-gall is ſo efficacious a re-agent, that a ſingle drop of its tincture colours, in the ſpace of five minutes, with a purple tinge, three pints of water, which contains only the twenty-fifth part of a grain of ſulphat of iron. All theſe phenomena proceed from the great facility with which the matter of nut-galls burns, and from its readily abſorbing from the iron a portion of the oxygen it contains, paſſing by this means to the ſtate of a black oxyd or Ethiops, the ſmalleſt quantity of which is very perceptible in tranſparent liquors.

The two laſt re-agents we ſhall propoſe for the examination of waters, are ſolutions of ſilver and of mercury in the nitric acid. Theſe have uſually been employed to exhibit the preſence of the ſulphuric, or muriatic acids in mineral waters; but many others ſubſtances, which do not contain the ſmalleſt portion of thoſe, are likewiſe precipitated by theſe ſolutions. The white and heavy ſtriæ which the nitrat of ſilver exhibits in water, that contains no more than half a grain of muriat of ſoda in the pint, aſcertains the preſence of the muriatic acid with great certainty and facility; but they do not in the ſame manner indicate the preſence of the ſulphuric acid, ſince, according to Bergman's eſtimate, at leaſt thirty grains of ſulphat of ſoda muſt exiſt in the pint of water, in order to produce an immediate ſenſible effect. To this we may add, that fixed al-

kali, chalk, and magnesia, precipitate the nitric solution of silver in a much more evident manner, and consequently that the precipitation formed in a mineral water by this solution is insufficient to determine with precision, the saline or earthy substances from which it arose.

The solution of mercury by the nitric acid, is still more productive of error: it not only indicates the presence of the sulphuric and muriatic acids in waters, but it is likewise precipitated by the earthy and alkaline carbonats, in a yellowish powder, which might be mistaken for an effect of the sulphuric acid. It has been commonly supposed. that the very abundant white precipitate which it forms in water, is owing to the presence of a muriatic salt; yet mucilaginous and extractive substances exhibit the same phenomenon, as is now well known to all chemists. Besides, these sources of error and uncertainty, dependent on the property which several substances have, of producing similar precipitates with the nitric solution of mercury, there are likewise others which depend on the state of this solution itself, and which it is of the utmost consequence to know, in order to avoid very considerable errors in the analysis of waters. Bergman has mentioned some of the remarkable differences observed in this solution, according to the manner in which it is made, either with or without heat, more particularly with respect to the colour of the precipitates it affords by different intermediums; but he does not say a word concerning the property this solution possesses, of being precipitated by distilled water, when it is highly charged with the oxyd of mercury; though Monnet mentions this fact in his treatise on the dissolution of metals. As this subject is of great importance in the analysis of waters, Fourcroy endeavoured by a very minute investigation to arrive at some degree of certainty concerning it, and has succeeded, as shall presently appear by very simple means. He has made a great number of solutions of mercury, in very pure nitric acid, with different doses of these two substances, with heat and in the cold, and with acids of very different strengths. These experiments have afforded the following results.

1. Solutions made in the cold, became charged more or less readily with different quantities of mercury, according to the degree of concentration of the nitric acid; but whatever the quantity of mercury dissolved in the cold by the concentrated acid may be, no part of it will be precipitated by mere water. He dissolved in the cold two drachms and a half of mercury, in two drachms of nitrous acid red and fuming, weighing one ounce four drachms and five grains, in a bottle which contained an ounce of distilled water: the combination took place with the utmost rapidity; very dense nitrous gas escaped, together with aqueous vapours, dissipated by the heat of the mixture, amounting to more than one fourth of the acid. This solution was of a deep green, and very transparent: he poured a few drops, into half an ounce of distilled water: some white striæ were formed, which were dissolved by agitation, and afforded no precipitate, though it was the most saturated solution he could make in the cold, and presented the greatest degree of commotion, effervescence, and red vapours, during the combination of the mercury and acids. As it had deposited crystals, he added two drachms of distilled water, which dissolved the whole without any appearance of precipitation. With much greater safety, therefore, may

ſuch ſolutions as have been made in the cold with common nitric acid, and half their weight of mercury, be uſed in the analyſis of mineral waters, for they will never afford a precipitate by the addition of mere water.

2. The weakeſt nitric acid ſtrongly heated on mercury, will diſſolve a larger quantity than the ſtrongeſt acid in the cold. The ſolution, which is of a light yellow colour, will appear thick and oily, and will afford by ſtanding, an irregular yellowiſh maſs, which may be changed into a beautiful *turbith* by the addition of boiling water; this ſolution poured into diſtilled water, forms a very abundant precipitate of a yellow colour, ſimilar to *turbith*. A ſolution made in the cold exhibits the ſame reſult, if it be ſtrongly heated, ſo as to diſengage a large quantity of nitrous gas. Theſe ſolutions made with heat, ought therefore to be excluded from the analyſis of mineral waters, becauſe they are decompoſable by diſtilled water.

3. The two ſolutions appear to differ from each other in the quantity of oxyde of mercury, which is much greater in that which is precipitated by the water, than in that which is not decompoſable by that fluid. M. Fourcroy has proved this, by evaporating equal quantities of both theſe ſolutions in an apothecary's phial, to reduce them into red precipitate, and he obtained one fourth more of this precipitate from the ſolution which is decompoſed by water, than from that which is not rendered turbid. The ſpecific gravity likewiſe appeared to me to be a good method of aſcertaining the relative quantities of oxyd of mercury contained in theſe different fluids. He compared weights of equal maſſes of three mercurial nitrous ſolutions: the one, which was not at all precipitated by diſtilled water, and was the reſult of the firſt mentioned experiment, weighed one ounce, one drachm, and ſixty-ſeven grains, in a bottle which contained exactly an ounce of diſtilled water. The ſecond ſolution was made by a very gentle heat, and produced a ſlight opal colour with diſtilled water, and ſcarcely any ſenſible quantity of precipitate. The ſame bottle contained one ounce ſix drachms twenty-four grains. Laſtly a third mercurial ſolution conſiderably heated, and which precipitated a true *turbith mineral* of a dirty yellow, by diſtilled water, weighed in the ſame bottle, one ounce ſeven drachms twenty-five grains. A deciſive experiment remained to be made to confirm this opinion ſtill more perfectly. If the ſolution precipitated by water, owed this property to a quantity of mercurial oxyd too large with reſpect to the acid, it would of courſe loſe that property by the addition of acid; this accordingly happened. Aquafortis was poured on a ſolution which was decompoſed by water, and it ſoon acquired the property of no longer being precipitated, and was abſolutely in the ſame ſtate as that which had been made ſlowly at firſt, by the mere heat of the atmoſphere. Monnet has mentioned this proceſs, as a means of preventing cryſtals of mercurial nitrat from becoming converted into oxyd by the contact of the air. It is by a contrary proceſs, and by evaporating a portion of the acid of a good ſolution which is not precipitated by water that it is converted into a ſolution much more ſtrongly charged with mercurial oxyd, and conſequently capable of being decompoſed by water; its original property may be reſtored by the addition of a quantity of acid, equal to that which is loſt by evaporation.

Such are the different conſideration

M. Fourcroy has thought neceſſary to exhibit, that the effects of re-agents on waters may be better aſcertained; but whatever may be the degree of preciſion to which reſearches of this nature may be carried; however exenſive the knowledge we may have cquired concerning the degrees of urity, and the different ſtates of uch ſubſtances as are combined with nineral waters, for the purpoſe of liſcovering their principles, if it ſtill emains a fact, that each of theſe regents is capable of indicating two r three different ſubſtances diſſolved n theſe waters, the reſult of their ction will always be ſubject to unertainty. Lime, for example, izes the carbonic acid, and precitates ſalts with the baſe of alumine, nd of magneſia, as well as the meallic ſalts. Ammoniac produces the me effect. Fixed alkalis, beſides ne above mentioned ſalts, precipitate hoſe with baſe of lime. The calcaeous pruſſiat, the pruſſiat of potaſh, nd gallic alkohol, precipitate the ilphat and carbonat of iron. The itric ſolutions of ſilver and of merury, decompoſe all the ſulphuric nd muriatic ſalts, which may be arious both in quantity and in ind, in the ſame water, and are hemſelves decompoſable by alkalis, alk, and magneſia. Among this reat number of complicated effects, ow ſhall we diſtinguiſh that which kes place in the water under amination, or by what means ſhall e aſcertain whether it is ſimple or ompounded?

Theſe queſtions, though very difcult, for the time when the expeents of chemiſtry were little known, e nevertheleſs capable of being diſſed in the preſent ſtate of our nowledge. It muſt firſt be obſerved, at the nature of re-agents being uch better known at preſent than was ſome years ago, and their relion on the principles of water better aſcertained, it may, therefore, be ſtrongly preſumed that their application may be much more advantageouſly made than has hitherto been ſuppoſed; nevertheleſs, among the great number of excellent chemiſts who have attended to the analyſis of waters, Meſſrs. Baumé, Bergman, and Gioanetti, are almoſt the only perſons who have been aware of this great advantage. We have been long in the habit of examining mineral waters by re-agents, in very ſmall doſes, and often in glaſſes; the phenomena of the precipitations obſerved have been noted down, and the experiment carried no further. Baumé adviſes, in his chemiſtry, that a conſiderable quantity of the mineral water under examination, ſhould be ſaturated with fixed alkalis and with acids, that the precipitates be collected, and their nature examined. Bergman apprehended that the quantity of the principles contained in waters might be judged of from the the weight of the precipitates obtained in theſe mixtures. Several other chemiſts have likewiſe employed this method, but always with a view to certain particular circumſtances; and no one has hitherto propoſed to make a connected analyſis of mineral waters by this means. To ſucceed in this analyſis, it would be proper to mix ſeveral pounds of the mineral water with each re-agent, till the latter ceaſes to produce any precipitate: the precipitate ſhould then be ſuffered to ſubſide during the time of twenty-four hours, in a veſſel accurately cloſed; after which the mixture being filtered, and the precipitate dried and weighed, the operator may proceed to examine it by the known methods. In this manner the nature of the ſubſtance will be clearly aſcertained, on which the re-agent has acted, and the cauſe of the decompoſition may conſequently be inferred. A certain order may be fol-

lowed in these operations, by mixing the waters first with such substances as stand least capable of altering them, and afterwards passing to other substances capable of producing changes more varied and difficult to explain. The following method is that which Fourcroy commonly uses in this kind of analysis. After having examined the taste, the colour, the weight, and all the other physical properties of a mineral water, he pours four pounds of lime water on an equal quantity of the fluid; if no precipitate is made in twenty-four hours, he is sure that the water contains neither disengaged carbonic acid nor alkaline carbonat, nor earthy salts with the base of aluminous earth or magnesia, nor metallic salts. But if a precipitate be formed, he filters the mixture, and examines the chemical properties of the deposited substance; if it has no taste, if it be insoluble in water, or effervesces with acids, or forms an insipid and almost insoluble salt by the addition of sulphuric acid, he concludes that it is chalk, and that the lime water has acted only on the carbonic acid dissolved in the water. If, on the contrary, it is small in quantity, and subsides very slowly; if it do not effervesce, and affords with the sulphuric acid a styptic salt, or a bitter and very soluble salt, it is formed by magnesia or aluminous earth, and often by both.

After the examination by lime water, Fourcroy pours on four other pounds of the same mineral water, a drachm or two of ammoniac perfectly caustic, or causes ammoniacal gas, disengaged by heat from the alkali, to pass into the water. When the water is saturated, it is left at rest in a close vessel for twenty-four hours; if a precipitate be afforded, it can only consist of ferruginous or magnesian, or aluminous salts, whose nature is examined by the different methods mentioned in the foregoing paragraph. But the action of ammoniacal gas being more fallacious than that of lime water, which produces the same decompositions, it must be observed that this last should only be used as an assistant means, which does not afford results equally accurate with those produced by the former re-agent.

When salts with base of aluminous earth, or magnesia, have been discovered by lime water, or by ammoniacal gas, the caustic fixed alkali may be used, to distinguish those with base of lime, such as sulpha and muriat of lime. For this purpose Fourcroy precipitates some pounds o the water, which is examined by eithe of these liquid alkalis, till it n longer produces any turbidness. A this alkali decomposes salts with ba of aluminous earth, as well as tho composed of lime; if the precipita resembles in its form, colour, an quantity, that which lime water h afforded, it may be presumed th the water does not contain calcareo salt, and the chemical examinatio of the precipitate usually confir this suspicion: but if the mixture much more turbid than that ma with lime water; if the deposit be much heavier, more abunda and more readily afforded, the li is mixed with magnesia or alumi This is ascertained by treating the p cipitate after the different meth before explained. It may easily concluded, that iron precipitated re-agents, at the same time as salino-terrestrial substances, is ea known by its colour and its tas and that the small quantity of metal separated in these proces is not sufficient to affect the result

It were useless to explain at l the effects of sulphuric acid, nitr acid, gall-nuts, or of the calcare and alkaline prussiats, employe re-agents on mineral waters. general account of these effects w

has already been given may ſuffice; it need therefore only be noticed, that when they are mixed in large doſes with theſe waters, and the precipitates collected, the nature and quantity of their principles may be more accurately aſcertained, as has been done by Meſſrs. Bergman and Gioanetti. The products which the nitric ſolutions of ſilver or mercury afford when mixed with mineral waters, deſerve particular attention. It is more particularly neceſſary to operate with large qurntities of water, when theſe re-agents are uſed, in order to determine the nature of the acids contained in the waters. The analyſis of theſe fluids will be complete when their acids are known, becauſe theſe are often combined with the baſes exhibited by the re-agents before-mentioned. The colour, the form, and the abundance of the precipitates afforded by the nitric ſolutions of mercury and ſilver, have hitherto exhibited to chemiſts the nature of the acids which cauſed them. A thick and ponderous depoſition immediately formed by theſe ſolutions, denotes the muriatic acid: if it is ſmall in quantity, white, and cryſtallized with the nitrat of ſilver, or yellowiſh, and yellow and irregular when formed with that of mercury, and if it ſubſide but ſlowly, it is attributed to the ſulphuric acid. But as theſe two acids are often met with in the ſame water, and as alkali and chalk likewiſe decompoſe the ſolutions, the reſults or deductions made from the phyſical properties of the precipitates muſt be uncertain. It is therefore neceſſary to examine them more effectually: for this purpoſe, ſolutions of ſilver or of mercury may be mixed with five or ſix pounds of the water intended to be analyſed. The mixtures being filtered, twenty-four hours after the precipitates muſt be dried, and treated according to the methods of chemiſtry. If the precipitate afforded by the nitric ſolution of mercury be heated in a retort, the portion of metal united with the muriatic acid of the waters will be volatilized into *mercurius dulcis*, and that which is combined with the ſulphuric acid will remain at the bottom of the veſſel, and exhibit a reddiſh colour. Theſe two ſalts may likewiſe be diſtinguiſhed by putting them on a hot coal; the ſulphat of mercury, if preſent, emits a ſulphureous acid, and aſſumes a red colour; the mercurial muriat remains white, and is volatilized without exhibiting any ſmell of ſulphur. Theſe phenomena likewiſe ſerve to diſtinguiſh the precipitates which may be formed by the alkaline ſubſtances contained in water, ſince the latter do not emit the ſulphureous ſmell, and are not volatile without decompoſition.

The precipitates produced by the combination of mineral waters with the nitric ſolution of ſilver, may be as eaſily examined as the foregoing. Sulphat of ſilver being more ſoluble than the muriat of the ſame metal, diſtilled water may be ſucceſsfully uſed to ſeparate theſe ſalts. Muriat of ſilver is known by its fixity, its fuſibility, and eſpecially in its being leſs eaſily decompoſed than ſulphat of ſilver. This laſt, placed on hot coals, emits a ſulphureous ſmell, and leaves an oxyd of ſilver, which may be fuſed without addition.

The Examination of the Mineral Waters by Diſtillation.

Diſtillation is uſed in the analyſis of waters, to aſcertain the gaſeous ſubſtances they may be united to. Theſe ſubſtances are either air, more or leſs pure, or carbonic acid, or ſulphurated hydrogen gas. To aſcertain their nature and quantity, ſome pounds of the mineral water muſt be poured into a retort, ſufficiently large to contain it, without being filled more

than half or two-thirds of its capacity; to this veſſel a recurved tube is to be adapted, which paſſes beneath an inverted veſſel filled with mercury. In this diſpoſition of the apparatus, the retort muſt be heated till the water perfectly boils, or till no more elaſtic fluid paſſes over. When the operation is finiſhed, the quantity of air contained in the empty ſpace of the retort muſt be ſubtracted from the bulk of the gas obtained; the reſt conſiſts of aeriform fluid, which was contained in the mineral water, whoſe properties may quickly be known by the proofs of a lighted taper, tincture of turnſole, and lime water; if it catches fire, and has a fœtid ſmell, it is ſulphurated hydrogen gas; if it extinguiſhes the taper, reddens turnſole, and precipitates lime water, it is the carbonic acid; laſtly, if it maintains combuſtion without taking fire, is without ſmell, and alters neither turnſole nor lime water, it is atmoſpheric air. It may happen that this fluid may be purer than the air of the atmoſphere: in this caſe its degrees of purity may be judged by the manner in which it maintains combuſtion, or by mixing it with nitrous or hydrogen gas, in the eudiometers of Fontana and Volta. The proceſs uſed in obtaining gaſeous matters contained in waters is entirely modern. A moiſtened bladder was formerly uſed, which was adapted to the neck of a bottle filled with mineral water: the fluid was agitated, and by the ſwelling of the bladder, an eſtimate was made of the quantity of gas contained in the water. This method is now known to be fallacious, becauſe water cannot give out all its gas but by ebullition, and becauſe the ſides of the moiſtened bladder alter and decompoſe the elaſtic fluid obtained. It is ſcarcely neceſſary to remark, that the phenomena exhibited by the water, during the eſcape of the gas, muſt be carefully examined, and that a leſs quantity of water may be expoſed to diſtillation, in proportion as its taſte and ſparkling indicate that it contains a larger quantity of gas.

Such is the method recommended by modern chemiſts to obtain the elaſtic fluids combined with waters: it muſt be obſerved, 1. That this proceſs cannot be depended on, with regard to acidulous waters, unleſs the preſſure of the atmoſphere, and the ſtate of compreſſion of the elaſtic fluid under the glaſs veſſels, be more accurately accounted for: and as this is not eaſily done, the abſorption of carbonic acid by lime water, propoſed by Gioanetti, appears to be preferable. 2. Though it has been recommended by Bergman to obtain ſulphurated hydrogen gas from ſulphureous waters, it does not anſwer, becauſe the heat of ebulition decompoſes the gas, and it is likewiſe decompoſed by the mercury, which is converted into ethiops, as ſoon as it comes in contact with this elaſtic fluid: for this reaſon, litharge ſhould be uſed to abſorb this gas in the cold, and to deprive ſulphureous waters of their ſulphur.

The Examination of Mineral Waters by Evaporation.

Evaporation is generally conſidered as the moſt certain method of obtaining all the principles of mineral waters. We have before obſerved, and here repeat, that the experiments of Venel and Cornette ſhow, that long continued ebullition may decompoſe ſaline matters diſſolved in water, and for that reaſon we have adviſed the examination of them by re-agents employed in greater proportions; yet evaporation may afford much information, when uſed, together with the analyſis by re-agents, which ought always to be conſidered as one of the principal methods of examining waters.

The intention of evaporation being to collect the fixed principles contained in a mineral water, it is obvious, that in order to know the nature and proportion of these principles, a considerable quantity of the water must be evaporated, and so much the more, in proportion as the principles appear to exist in smaller quantities. When the water is thought to contain a large quantity of saline matter, about twenty pounds must be evaporated: if, on the contrary, it appears to hold but a very small quantity in solution, it will be necessary to evaporate a much larger quantity. It is sometimes requisite to perform this operation with several hundred pounds. The nature and form of the vessels in which waters are exposed for evaporation, is not a matter of indifference: those of metal, excepting silver, are altered by water; vessels of glass, of a certain magnitude, are very subject to be broken; but those of glazed smooth pottery are the most convenient, though the cracks in the glaze sometimes cause an absorption of saline matter; vessels of unglazed procelain, called biscuit, would doubtless be the most convenient, but their price is a considerable obstacle. Chemists have proposed different methods of evaporating mineral waters; some have directed distillation to dryness, in close vessels, in order to prevent foreign substances, which float in the atmosphere, from mixing with the residue; but this method is excessively tedious: others have advised evaporation by a gentle heat, never carried to ebullition, because they supposed that this last heat alters the fixed principles, and carries up a portion of them. This was the opinion of Venel and Bergman. Monnet, on the contrary, directs the water to be boiled, because this motion prevents the reception of foreign matters contained in the atmosphere. Bergman avoids this inconvenience, by directing the vessel to be covered, and a hole left in the middle of the cover for the vapours to pass out: this last method greatly retards the evaporation, because it diminishes the surface of the fluid. At the commencement, the heat used must be sufficient to repel the dust; but the greatest difference in the manipulation of this experiment consists in some writers directing that the substances deposited should be separated, as the evaporation proceeds, in order to obtain each pure and by itself; others, on the contrary, direct the operation to be carried on to dryness. We are of the opinion of Bergman, that this last method is the most expeditious and certain; because, notwithstanding the care which may be taken, in the first method, to separate the different substances which are deposited or crystallized, they are never obtained pure, and must always be examined by a subsequent analysis; and the method is besides inaccurate, on account of the frequent filtrations, and the loss it occasions. Lastly, it is very embarrassing, and renders the evaporation much longer. Mineral waters may therefore be evaporated to dryness, in open glass vessels, on the water-bath, or still more advantageously in glass retorts, on a sand-bath.

Various phenomena are observed during this operation; if the water be acidulous, it emits bubbles, as soon as the heat first begins to act; in proportion as the carbonic acid is disengaged, a pellicle is formed, with a deposition of calcareous earth, and carbonat of iron. These first pellicles are succeeded by the crystalliza- of sulphat of lime; and lastly, the muriats of potash and soda chrystallize in tubes at the surface, but the deliquescent are not obtained but by evaporation to dryness.

The residue must then be weighed, and put into a small phial, with three

or four times its weight of alkohol: the whole being agitated, and ſuffered to ſubſide for ſome hours, muſt be filtrated, and the alkohol preſerved ſeparate. The reſidue, on which the ſpirit has not acted, muſt be dried in a gentle heat, or in the open air; when perfectly dry it muſt be weighed, and the loſs of weight will ſhow what quantity of calcareous or magneſian muriat was contained, becauſe theſe ſalts are very ſoluble in alkohol. We ſhall preſently ſpeak of the method of aſcertaining the preſence of theſe two ſalts in the ſpirituous fluid.

The reſidue, after treatment with alkohol, and drying, muſt be agitated with eight times its weight of cold diſtilled water, and filtered. After ſome hours ſtanding, the reſidue is to be dried a ſecond time, and boiled half an hour in four or five hundred times its weight of diſtilled water; this laſt reſidue, after filtration, conſiſts of that which cold or boiling water is inſufficient to diſſolve. The firſt water contains neutral ſalts, ſuch as ſulphat of ſoda, or of magneſia; the muriat of ſoda, or potaſh and the fixed alkalis, eſpecially ſoda united with carbonic acid: the large quantity of boiling water ſcarcely contains any ſubſtance but ſulphat of lime. There are therefore four ſubſtances to be examined, after theſe different operations on the matter obtained by evaporation. 1. The reſidue inſoluble in alkohol, and in water of different temperatures. 2. The ſalts diſſolved in alkohol. 3. The ſalts diſſolved in cold water. 4, and laſtly, Thoſe diſſolved in boiling water. We ſhall now proceed to the experiments neceſſary to aſcertain the nature of theſe different ſubſtances.

1. The reſidue which has reſiſted the action of the alkohol and water, may be compoſed of calcareous earth, of carbonat of magneſia and iron, of alumine, and of quartz. Theſe two laſt ſubſtances are ſeldom found in waters, but the three firſt are very common; the brown, or more or leſs deep yellow colour, indicates the preſence of iron. If the reſidue be of a white grey, it does not contain this metal. When iron is preſent, Bergman directs it to be moiſtened, and expoſed to the air till it ruſts; in which ſtate vinegar does not act on it. In order to explain the methods of ſeparating theſe different ſubſtances, we will ſuppoſe an inſoluble reſidue to conſiſt of the five ſubſtances here mentioned; it muſt firſt be moiſtened, and expoſed to the rays of the ſun; and when the iron is perfectly ruſted, the reſidue muſt be digeſted in diſtilled vinegar. This acid diſſolves the lime and magneſia, and by evaporation affords the calcareous acetit, diſtinguiſhable from the acetit of magneſia, by its not attracting the humidity of the air. They may conſequently be ſeparated by deliqueſcence, or by pouring ſulphuric acid into their ſolution. The latter forms ſulphat of lime, which precipitates; but if the magneſian acetit be preſent, the ſulphat of magneſia, compoſed of magneſia united with the ſulphuric acid, will remain in ſolution, and may be contained by a well conducted evaporation. To aſcertain the quantity of magneſia and calcareous earths contained in this reſidue, ſulphat of lime is firſt to be precipitated: and the ſulphat of magneſia, formed by the ſulphuric acid poured into the acetous ſolution, muſt then be precipitated by carbonat of potaſh. The quantities of theſe precipitates are known by weighing. When the chalk and magneſia of the reſidue are thus ſeparated, the iron, the alumine, and the quartz remain. The iron and the alumine are diſſolved by pure muriatic acid, from which the former is precipitated from pruſſiat of lime, and the latter by carbonat of potaſh. Theſe pre-

cipitates muſt likewiſe be weighed. The matter which remains after the ſeparation of the alumine and iron is uſually quartroſe; its quantity may be known by weighing, and its habitudes by fuſion of the blow-pipe with carbonat of ſoda. Such are the moſt accurate proceſſes, recommended by Bergman, for examining the inſoluble reſidue of waters.

2. The alkohol uſed in waſhing the ſolid reſidue of mineral waters, muſt be evaporated to dryneſs. Bergman adviſes treating it with fulphuric acid diluted with water in the ſame manner as the acetous ſolution before ſpoken of; but it muſt be obſerved, that this proceſs ſerves only to exhibit the baſes of theſe ſalts. To determine the acid, which is ordinarily united with magneſia or lime, and ſometimes with both, a few drops of concentrated ſulphuric acid muſt be poured on, which excites an effervescence, and diſengages the muriatic gas, known by its ſmell and white vapour, when the ſalt under examination contains that acid. This may likewiſe be known by diſſolving the whole reſidue in water, and adding a few drops of the nitric ſolution of ſilver. The nature of the baſe, which, as we have obſerved, is either lime, magneſia, or both together, is known by the name of the ſulphuric acid, by a ſimilar proceſs with that already explained reſpecting the acetous ſolution.

3. The water uſed in waſhing the firſt reſidue of the mineral water, performed, as before directed, with eight times its weight of cold diſtilled water, contains neutral alkaline ſalts, ſuch as ſulphat of ſoda, muriats, or marine ſalts, carbonat of potaſh, and of ſoda, and ſulphat of magneſia: a ſmall quantity of ſulphat of iron is ſometimes found. Theſe ſalts never exiſt altogether in waters: the ſulphat of ſoda, and the carbonat of potaſh, are very ſeldom found; but marine ſalt is frequently met with, together with carbonat of ſoda. The ſulphat of magneſia is likewiſe frequently met with, and ſome waters even contain it in conſiderable quantities. When the firſt waſhing of the reſidue of a mineral water contains only one kind of neutral ſalt, it may eaſily be obtained by cryſtallization, and its natnre aſcertained from its form, taſte, and the action of fire, as well as that of the re-agents: but this caſe is very rare, for it is much more uſual to find many ſalts united in this lixivium. They muſt therefore be ſeparated, if practicable, by ſlow evaporation; but as this method does not always perfectly ſucceed, however carefully this evaporation be conducted, it will be neceſſary to reexamine the ſalts obtained at the different periods of the evaporation. Carbonat of ſoda is uſually depoſited confuſedly with the muriatic ſalts, but they may be ſeparated by a proceſs, pointed out by M. Gioanetti. It conſiſts in waſhing this mixed ſalt with diſtilled vinegar; for this acid diſſolves the carbonat of ſoda. The mixture muſt then be dried and waſhed a ſecond time with alkohol, which takes up the acetit of ſoda, without acting on marine ſalt. The ſpirituous ſolution being evaporated to dryneſs, and the reſidue calcined, the vinegar becomes decompoſed and burns. Soda alone remains, whoſe quantity may be then accurately determined.

4. The water uſed in the quantity of four or five hundred times the weight of the reſiduum of the mineral water contains only ſulphat of lime. This may be aſcertained by pure cauſtic ammmoniac, which occaſions no change, while cauſtic potaſh precipitates it abundantly. By evaporation to dryneſs, the quantity of earthy ſalt contained in the water may be accurately aſcertained.

Concerning Artificial Mineral Waters.

The numerous proceſſes we have preſcribed for examining the reſidues of mineral waters by evaporation, ſerve to aſcertain, with the greateſt preciſion, all the ſeveral matters held in ſolution in theſe fluids. Another proceſs remains to be made to prove the ſucceſs of the analyſis, viz. That of imitating nature in the way of ſyntheſis, by diſſolving in pure water the different ſubſtances obtained by the analyſis of mineral water which has been examined. If the artificial mineral water has the ſame taſte, the ſame weight, and exhibits the ſame phenomena with re-agents as the natural mineral water, it is the moſt complete, and the moſt certain proof that the analyſis has been well made. This artificial combination has likewiſe the advantage of being procured in all places at pleaſure, and at a trifling expence; and is even in ſome caſes ſuperior to the natural mineral waters, for their whole properties may be changed by carriage, and other circumſtances. The moſt celebrated chemiſts are of opinion, that it is poſſible to imitate mineral waters. Macquer has obſerved, that ſince the diſcovery of the carbonic acid, and the property it is found to poſſeſs of rendering many ſubſtances ſoluble in water, it is much more eaſy to prepare artificial mineral waters. Bergman has deſcribed the method of compoſing waters which perfectly imitate that of Spa, Sheltzer, Pyrmont, &c. He likewiſe informs us, that they are uſed with great ſucceſs in Sweden, and that he himſelf has experienced their good effects. Duchanoy has publiſhed a work, in which he has given a number of proceſſes for imitating all the mineral waters uſually employed in medicine. We may therefore hope, that chemiſtry may render the moſt eſſential ſervice to the art of healing, by affording valuable medicines, whoſe activity may be increaſed or diminiſhed at pleaſure.

In order to preſent the reader, under one point of view, with the moſt conſpicuous features in the compoſition of the mineral waters of this and ſome other countries, the following ſynoptical table is ſubjoined, from Dr. Saunders' work on mineral waters.

The reader will pleaſe to obſerve, that under the head of *Neutral Purging Salts*, are included the ſulphats of ſoda and magneſia, and the muriats of lime, ſoda, and magneſia. The power which the earthy muriats may poſſeſs of acting on the inteſtinal canal, is not quite aſcertained, but from their great ſolubility, and from analogy with ſalts, with ſimilar component parts, we may, conclude that this forms a principal part of their operation.

The reader will likewiſe obſerve, that where the ſpaces are left blank, it ſignifies that we are ignorant whether any of the ſubſtance at the head of the column is contained in the water; that the word *none* implies a certainty of the abſence of that ſubſtance; and the term *uncertain*, means that the ſubſtance is contained, but that the quantity is not known.

For the ſeveral mineral waters, conſult their reſpective heads, as *Malvern*, *Moffat*, *Spa* Water, *&c.*

Class.	Name.	Highest temperature. — Fahrenheit.	Contained in an English wine pint of 28.875 cubic inches.						
			Azotic gas. — cubic inches.	Carbonic acid. gas. — cubic inches.	Sulphurated hydrogen. — cubic inches.	Carbonated foda. — grains.	Neutral purging salts. — grains.	Selenite & earthy carbonates. — grains.	Oxyd of Iron. — grains.
Simpler cold	Malvern			uncertain	none	none	uncertain	uncertain	none
	Holywell				none	none	uncertain	uncertain	none
Simpler thermal	Bristol	74°	uncertain	3.75	none	none	2.81	3.16	none
	Matlock	66°		uncertain	none	none	uncertain	uncertain	none
	Buxton	82°	0.474	uncertain	none	none	0.25	1.625	none
Simple saline	Sedlitz			1.	none	none	185.6	8.68	none
	Epsom				none	none	40. ?	8 ?	none
	Sea				none	none	237.5	6.	none
Highly carbonated alkaline	Seltzer			17.	none	4.	17.5	8.	none
Simple carbonated chalybeate	Tunbridge		0.675	1.325	none	none	0.344	0.156	0 125
Hot carbonated chalybeate	Bath	116°	1. ?	1. ?	none	none	10. ?	10. ?	uncertain
Highly carbonated chalybeate	Spa			12.79	none	1.47	4.632	1.47	0.56
	Pyrmont			26.	none	none	7.13	23.075	0.56
Saline, carbonated chalybeate	Cheltenham		uncertain	5.687	uncertain	none	62.125	6.85	0.625
	Scarborough			uncertain	none	none	20.	10.	uncertain
Hot, saline, highly carbonated chalybeate	Vichy	120° ?		uncertain	none	uncertain		uncertain	uncertain
	Carlsbad	165°		uncertain	none	11.76	47.04	4.15	uncertain
Vitriolated chalybeate	Hartfell				none	none	none	none	4.815*
Cold sulphureous	Harrogate		0.875	1.	2.375	none	91.25	3.	none
	Moffat		0.5	0.625	1.25	none	4.5	none	none
Hot, alkaline, sulphureous	Aix	143°		uncertain	uncertain	12.	5.	4.75	none
	Borset	132°		uncertain	uncertain	uncertain	uncertain		none
	Berege	120°			uncertain	2.5	0.5	uncertain	none

* That is, 2.94 contained in the sulphat of iron, (this salt when crystallized containing 28 per cent. of oxyd of iron, according to Kirwan) and 1.875 additional of oxyd of iron.

Minium, (*Minium, i,* n.). Red lead. See *Lead.*

Mint, common. See *Mentha ſativa.*

Mint, water. See *Mentha aquatica.*

Mislaw. See *Muſa paradiſiaca.*

Mispickle. A white, brilliant, granulated iron ore, compoſed of iron in combination with arſenic.

Missletoe. See *Viſcum.*

Mistūra, (*Miſtura, æ,* f.). A mixture. It is moſtly contracted thus, *miſt.* e. g. —*f. miſt.* which means, let it be made into a mixture.

Mistūra camphorāta. A very elegant preparation of camphire, for delicate ſtomachs, and thoſe who cannot bear it in ſubſtance, as an antiſpaſmodic and nervine. There is a great loſs of camphire in making it as directed by the pharmacopœia. Water can only take up a certain quantity.

Mistūra cretacĕa. A very uſeful and pleaſant form of adminiſtering chalk as an adſtringent and antacid. It is particularly calculated for children, in whom it allays the many deranged actions of the primæ viæ, which are produced by acidities.

Mistūra moshāta. A diaphoretic and antiſpaſmodic muſk julep. It is by far the beſt way of adminiſtering muſk, when boluſes cannot be ſwallowed.

Mithridate mustard. See *Thlaſpi campeſtre.*

Mitral valves. *Valvulæ mitrales.* The valves of the left ventricle of the heart are ſo called from their reſemblance to a mitre.

Mixture. Chemical mixture ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the chemical ſolution; in the former, the aggregate particles can again be ſeparated by mechanical means, and the proportion of the different particles determined, but, in ſolution, no mechanical power whatſoever can ſeparate them.

Modiŏlus, (*Modiolus, i,* m. dim. of *modius,* a meaſure). The nucleus, as it were, of the cochlea of the ear is ſo termed. It aſcends from the baſis of the cochlea to the apex.

Moffat water. A cold ſulphureous water, of a very ſimple compoſition. It is exhibited in cutaneous eruptions of every kind, ſcrophula, ill-conditioned and irritable ſores, and in bilious and calculous complaints.

Molāris, (from *molaris,* a grindſtone, becauſe they grind the food). A double tooth. See *Teeth.*

Molar glands. *Glandulæ molares.* Two ſalival glands ſituated on each ſide of the mouth, between the maſſeter and buccinator muſcles, and whoſe excretory ducts open near the laſt dens molaris.

Moldavica. *Meliſſa turcica.* Turkey balſam. Canary balſam. Balſam of Gilead. This plant, *Dracocephalum moldavica; floribus verticellatis, bracteis lanceolatis, ſerraturis capillaleis* of Linnæus, affords a fragrant eſſential oil by diſtillation, known in Germany by the name of *oleum ſyriæ.* The whole herb abounds with an aromatic ſmell, and an agreeable taſte joined with an aromatic flavour; it is recommended to give tone to the ſtomach and nervous ſyſtem.

Moles, (*Mola, æ,* f.). By this term authors have intended to deſcribe very different productions of, or excretions from the uterus.

By ſome it has been uſed to ſignify every kind of fleſhy ſubſtance, particularly thoſe which are properly called polypi; by others, thoſe only which are the conſequence of imperfect conception, or when the ovum is in a morbid or decayed ſtate; and by many, which is the moſt popular opinion, every coagulum of blood which continues long enough in the uterus to aſſume in form, and to have one

the fibrous part, as it has been called, remaining, is denominated a mole.

There is surely much impropriety, says Dr. Denman, in including under one general name appearances so contrary, and substances so different.

For an account of the first kind, see *Polypus*.

Of the second kind, which has been defined as an *ovum deforme*, as it is the consequence of conception, it might more justly be arranged under the class of monsters; for though it has the appearance of a shapeless mass of flesh, if examined carefully with a knife, various parts of a child may be discovered, lying together in apparent confusion, but in actual regularity. The pedicle also by which it is connected to the uterus, is not of a fleshy texture, like that of the polypus, but has a regular series of vessels like the umbilical cord, and there is likewise a placenta and membranes containing water. The symptoms attending the formation, growth, and expulsion of this apparently confused mass from the uterus, correspond with those of a well-formed child.

With respect to the third opinion of a mole, an incision into its substance will discover its true nature; for although the external surface appears at the first view to be organized flesh, the internal part is composed merely of coagulated blood. As substances of this kind, which mostly occur after delivery, would always be expelled by the action of the uterus, there seems to be no reason for a particular enquiry, if popular opinion had not annexed the idea of mischief to them, and attributed their formation or continuance in the uterus to the negligence or misconduct of the practitioner. Hence the persuasion arose of the necessity of extracting all the coagula of blood out of the uterus, immediately after the expulsion of the placenta, or of giving medicines to force them away; but abundant experience hath proved, that the retention of such coagula is not under any circumstances productive of danger, and that they are most safely expelled by the action of the uterus, though at very different periods after their formation.

MOLLITIES OSSIUM, (*Mollities, ei*, f. from *mollis*, soft). A disease of the bones, wherein they can be bent without fracturing them.

MOLLITIES UNGUINUM. A preternatural softness of the nails, that often accompanies chlorosis.

MOLUCCENSE LIGNUM. See *Lignum pavanæ*.

MOLYBDATS, (*Molybdas, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the molybdic acid with different bases: thus, *molybdat of alumin*, *molybdat of antimony*, &c.

MOLYBDENA, (*Molybdæna, æ*, f. μολυβδαινα, from μολυβδος, lead). This substance is found in Iceland, Saxony, France, and Spain. It is very frequently confounded with black lead, although the characteristic differences are sufficiently evident. Molybdena is composed of scaly particles, either large or small, slightly adhering to each other. It is soft and fat to the touch, soils the fingers, and makes a trace of an ash-gray colour. Its aspect is blueish, nearly resembling that of lead. The mark it makes on paper has an argentine brilliancy; whereas those of plumbago, or black lead, are of a darker and less shining colour. Its powder is blueish; by calcination it emits a smell of sulphur, and leaves a whitish earth.

MOMORDICA ELATERIUM, (*Momordica*, from *mordeo*, to bite, from its sharp taste). The systematic name of the squirting cucumber. See *Elaterium*.

MONARDA FISTULOSA. The

ſyſtematic name of the purple monarda. The leaves of this plant have a fragrant ſmell, and an aromatic and ſomewhat bitter taſte, poſſeſſing nervine, ſtomachic, and deobſtruent virtues. An infuſion is recommended in the cure of intermittent fevers.

MONEY-WORT. See *Nummularia.*

MONKS RHUBARB. See *Rhabarbarum monachorum.*

MONKSHOOD. See *Anthora.*

MONŎCŬLUS, (*Monoculus, i,* m. from μονος, one, and *oculus,* an eye). *Monopia.* A very uncommon ſpecies of monſtroſity, in which there is but one eye, and that moſtly above the root of the noſe.

MONOPIA, (*Monopia, æ,* f. μονωπια, from μονος, ſingle, and ωψ, the eye). See *Monoculus.*

MONORCHIS, (*Monorchis, idis,* f. μονορχις, from μονος, one, and ορχις, a teſticle). An epithet for a perſon that has but one teſticle.

MONSTERS. *Lucus naturæ.* Dr. Denman divides monſters into, 1ſt, Monſters from redundance or multiplicity of parts; 2d, Monſters from deficiency or want of parts; 3d, Monſters from confuſion of parts.

To theſe might perhaps be added, without impropriety, another kind, in which there is neither redundance, nor deficiency, nor confuſion of parts, but an error of place, as in tranſpoſitions of the viſcera. But children born with diſeaſes, as the hydrocephalus, or their effects, as in ſome caſes of blindneſs from previous inflammation, cannot be properly conſidered as monſters, though they are often ſo denominated.

Of the firſt order there may be two kinds, redundance or multiplicity of natural parts, as of two heads and one body, of one head and two bodies, an increaſed number of limbs, as legs, arms, fingers, and toes; or excreſcences or additions to parts of no certain form, as thoſe upon the head and other parts of the body, and theſe are uſually more or leſs important according to their ſize or the part where they grow. But as ſuch excreſcences, whatever may be their ſize, have, from their texture, a diſpoſition to enlarge, and to aſſume a morbid action, it is become an eſtabliſhed rule to extirpate them whenever it can be done with ſafety.

2d, Of monſters from deficiency or want of parts, the inſtances are leſs frequent than thoſe of the former kind, as of the brain and back part of the head, or of the whole head, as in the acephalus; or of one eye, as in the monoculus; of the lip and palate, as in the hare-lip; of one or both arms; of the fore-arm or hand; of one or more fingers; of a portion or of the whole of the ſpinal proceſſes of the vertebræ, as in the ſpina bifida; of the incomplete formation of the ſkin, moſt frequently at the navel, or ſome part of the abdomen; of the penis, eſpecially of the prepuce; of one or both of the inferior extremities; of the heart, of the liver, ſpleen, or any of the abominal viſcera; of the lower part of the rectum, terminating before it reaches the anus; and many others.

3d, Monſters from confuſion of parts, as when the whole body is in one maſs, (uſually called a mole), in which various parts of the child are found lying together in apparent confuſion; of parts adhering together, as of the fingers and toes; of the rectum, as in the cloſure of the anus: of the vagina; of the external or internal parts of generation, as in thoſe called hermaphrodites; of the two inferior extremities connected together and terminating in a point; of the club foot; and many others. As we are ignorant of the manner in which the primordial parts of a regular conception are formed and eſtabliſhed, and, in many reſpects, of the order in which the various parts of a fœtus are unfolded or enlarged, it is

not surprising that we should be ignorant also of the manner in which monsters or irregular births are generated or produced; though it is probable, that the laws by which these are governed are as regular, both as to cause and effect, as in common or natural productions. Formerly, and indeed till within these few years, it was a generally received opinion, that monsters were not primordial or aboriginal, but that they were caused subsequently, by the power of the imagination of the mother, transferring the imperfection of some external object, or the mark of something for which she longed, with which she was not indulged, to the child of which she was pregnant; or by some accident which happened to her during her pregnancy. Such opinions, it is reasonable to think, were permitted to pass current, in order to protect pregnant women from all hazardous and disagreeable occupations, to skreen them from severe labour, and to procure for them a greater share of indulgence and tenderness than could be granted to them in the common occurrences of life. The laws and customs of every civilised nation have, in some degree, established a persuasion that there was something sacred in the person of a pregnant woman: and this may be right in several points of view; but these go a little way towards justifying the opinion of monsters being caused by the imagination of the mother. The opinion has been disproved by common observation, and by philosophy, not perhaps by positive proofs, but by many strong negative facts; as the improbability of any child being born perfect, had such a power existed; the freedom of children from any blemish, their mothers being in situations most exposed to objects likely to produce them; the ignorance of the mother of any thing being wrong in the child, till, from information of the fact, she begins to recollect every accident which happened during her pregnance, and assigns the worst or the most plausible as the cause; the organization and colour of these adventitious substances; the frequent occurrence of monsters in the brute creation, in which the power of the imagination cannot be great; and the analogous appearances in the vegetable system, where it does not exist in any degree. Judging, however, from appearances, accidents may perhaps be allowed to have considerable influence in the production of monsters of some kinds, either by actual injury upon parts, or by suppressing or deranging the principle of growth, because, when an arm, for instance is wanting, the rudiments of the deficient parts may generally be discovered.

Mons vĕnĕris. The triangular eminence, immediately over the os pubis of women, that is covered with hair.

Morbilli, (*Morbillus, i,* m. dim. of *morbus*, a disease). See *Rubeola.*

Morel. *Phallus esculentus* of Linnæus. It grows on moist banks and wet pastures, and springs up in May. It is used in the same manner as the truffle, for gravies and stewed dishes, but gives an inferior flavour.

Morōsis, (*Morosis, is,* f. μωρωσις, from μορος, folly). See *Amentia.*

Morphēa alba, (*Morphœa, æ,* f. μορφαια, from μορφη, form). A species of cutaneous leprosy. See *Alphus.*

Morsus diabŏli. The fimbriæ of the Fallopian tubes.

Mortification. See *Gangrene.*

Morum, (*Morum, i,* n.). The mulberry. The tree that affords this fruit is the *Morus nigra*; *foliis cordatis scabris* of Linnæus. Class *Monoecia.* Order *Tetrandia*; a native of Italy. Mulberries abound with a deep violet-coloured juice, which, in its general qualities, agrees with that

of the fruits called *acido-dulces*, allaying thirſt, partly by refrigerating, and partly by exciting an excretion of mucus from the mouth and fauces, a ſimilar effect is alſo produced in the ſtomach, where, by correcting putreſcency, a powerful cauſe of thirſt is removed. The London College directs a *ſyrupus mori*, which is an agreeable vehicle for various medicines. The bark of the root of this tree is ſaid by Andrée to be uſeful in caſes of tænia.

Morus, (*Morus*, *i*, f. the mulberry tree). See *Morum*.

Morus nigra. The ſyſtematic name of the mulberry tree. See *Morum*.

Moschata nux. See *Nux moſchata*.

Moschus, (*Moſchus*, *i*, m. μοσχος, *moſch*, Arab.). Muſk. An unctuous ſubſtance, contained in excretory follicles about the navel of the male animal, called *Moſchus moſchiferus* by Linnæus, whoſe ſtrong and permanent ſmell is peculiar to it. It is contained in a bag placed near the umbilical region of a ruminating quadruped, reſembling the antelope, from which it does not differ ſufficiently to form a particular genus. The medicinal and chemical properties of muſk and caſtor are very ſimilar: the virtues of the former are generally believed to be more powerful, and hence muſk is preferred in caſes of imminent danger. It is preſcribed as a powerful antiſpaſmodic in convulſive diſeaſes, hydrophobia, &c. and is by many ſaid to be a violent aphrodiſiac.

Moschus moschiferus. The ſyſtematic name of the muſk animal. See *Moſchus*.

Mother of thyme. See *Serpyllum*.

Motherwort. See *Cardiaca*.

Motion, muscular. See *Muſcles*.

Motion peristaltic. See *Periſtaltic motion*.

Motorii oculorum. (*Nervi Motori*, ſo called from their office). The third pair of nerves of the brain. They ariſe from the crura cerebri, and are diſtributed on the muſcles of bulb of the eye.

Mould. See *Fontanella*.

Mountain parsley, black. See *Oreoſelinum*.

Mouse-ear. See *Piloſella*.

Mouth, (*Os*, *oris*, n.). The cavity of the mouth is well known. The parts which conſtitute it are the common integuments, the lips, the muſcles of the upper and under jaw, the palate, two alveolar arches, the gums, the tongue, the cheeks, and ſalival glands. The bones of the mouth are the two ſuperior maxillary, two palatine, the lower jaw, and thirty-two teeth. The arteries of the external parts of the mouth are branches of the infra-orbital, inferior alveolar, and facial arteries. The veins empty themſelves into the external jugulars. The nerves are branches from the fifth and ſeventh pair. The uſe of the mouth is for maſtication, ſpeech, reſpiration, deglutition, ſuction, and taſte.

Moxa japonica, (*Moxa*, *æ*, f. Japoneſe). A ſoft lanuginous ſubſtance, prepared in Japan, from the young leaves of a ſpecies of mugwort, by beating them when thoroughly dried, and rubbing them betwixt the hands, till only the fine fibres are left. Moxa is celebrated in the eaſtern countries, for preventing and curing many diſorders, by being burnt on the ſkin; a little cone of it is laid upon the part, previouſly moiſtened, and ſet on fire on the top, burns down with a temperate and glowing heat, and produces a dark-coloured ſpot, the ulceration of which is promoted by putting a little garlic, and the ulcer either healed up

when the eſchar ſeparates, or kept running for a length of time, as different circumſtances may require.

MUCILAGE, (*Mucilāgo, inis*, f.). A ſolution of gum. See *Gum*.

MUCILAGINOUS EXTRACTS. Extracts that readily diſſolve in water, ſcarcely at all in ſpirits of wine, and undergo ſpirituous fermentation.

MUCILĀGO AMŸLI. This preparation of ſtarch is moſtly exhibited with opium in the form of glyſters in diarrhœas and dyſenteries, where the tenemus ares from an abraſion of the mucus of the rectum.

MUCILĀGO ARABĬCI GUMMI. A demulcent preparation, more frequently uſed to combine medicines than in any other form.

MUCILĀGO SEMĬNIS CYDONĬI MALI. The beſt form of exhibiting quince-ſeeds as a demulcent.

MUCILĀGO TRAGACANTHÆ. In tickling coughs, joined with ſyrup of mulberies, this forms a pleaſant demulcent, and may be exhibited to children, who are very fond of it.

MUCOUS GLANDS. *Glandulæ mucoſæ*. Muciparous glands. Glands that ſecrete mucus, ſuch as the glands of the Schneiderian membrane of the noſe, the glands of the fauces, œſophagus, ſtomach, inteſtines, bladder, urethra, &c.

MUCUS, ANIMAL, (*Mucus, i*, m.). Animal mucus differs from that obtained from the vegetable kingdom in not being ſoluble in water, ſwimming in its ſurface; nor capable of mixing oil with water, and being ſoluble in mineral acids, which vegetable mucus is not. The uſe of this ſubſtance is to lubricate and defend the parts upon which it is ſecreted, as the noſe, œſophagus, ſtomach, inteſtines, urethra, vagina, &c.

MUCUS, VEGETABLE. See *Gum* and *Mucilage*.

MUGWORT. See *Artemiſia vulgaris*.

MULBERRY. See *Morum*.

MULLEIN. See *Verbaſcum*.

MULTĬFĬDUS SPĪNÆ, (*Multifidus, i*, m. from *multus*, many, and *findo*, to divide). *Tranſverſo ſpinalis lumborum, veterib ſacer. Semi-ſpinalis internus, ſive tranſverſo-ſpinalis dorſi. Semi-ſpinalis, ſive tranſverſo-ſpinalis colli, pars interna* of Winſlow. *Tranſverſalis lumborum vulgo ſacer. Tranſverſalis dorſi. Tranſverſalis colli* of Douglas. The generality of anatomical writers have unneceſſarily multiplied the muſcles of the ſpine, and hence their deſcriptions of theſe parts are confuſed, and difficult to be underſtood. Under the name of *multifidus ſpinæ*, Albinus has therefore very properly included thoſe portions of muſcular fleſh, intermixed with tendinous fibres, which lie cloſe to the poſterior part of the ſpine, and which Douglas and Winſlow have deſcribed as three diſtinct muſcles, under the names of *tranſverſales*, or *tranſverſo-ſpinales*, of the loins, back, and neck. The multifidus ſpinæ ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the upper convex ſurface of the os ſacrum, from the poſterior adjoining part of the ilium, from the oblique and tranſverſe proceſſes of all the lumbar vertebræ, from the tranſverſe proceſſes of all the dorſal vertebræ, and from thoſe of the cervical vertebræ, excepting the three firſt. From all theſe origins the fibres of the muſcle run in an oblique direction, and are inſerted, by diſtinct tendons, into the ſpinous proceſſes of all the vertebræ of the loins and back, and likewiſe into thoſe of the ſix inferior vertebræ of the neck. When this muſcle acts ſingly, it extends the back obliquely, or moves it to one ſide; when both muſcles act, they extend the vertebræ backwards.

MUMPS. A diſeaſe of the parotid gland. See *Cynanche*.

MUNGOS RADIX. *Radix ſerpentum*. This bitter root of the plant *Ophior-*

rhiza mungos of Linnæus, is much esteemed in Java, Sumatra, &c. as preventing the effects which usually follow the bite of the *naja*, a venomous serpent, with which view it is eaten by them. It is also said to be exhibited medicinally in the cure of intestinal worms.

Murias, (*Murias, atis*, m.). A salt formed by the union of the muriatic acid with certain bases, as *muriate of ammoniac*, &c.

Murĭas ammoniăcæ. See *Ammonia muriata* and *Sal ammoniac*.

Murĭas barytæ. *Terra ponderosa salita.* The muriate of barytes, or heavy earth, is a very acrid and poisonous preparation. In small doses it proves sudorific, diuretic, deobstruent, and alterative; in an over-dose, emetic, and violently purgative. The late Dr. Crawford found it very serviceable in all diseases connected with scrophula; and the Germans have employed it with great success in some diseases of the skin and viscera, and obstinate ulcers. The dose of the saturated solution in distilled water, is from five to fifteen drops for children, and from fifteen to twenty for adults.

Murĭas calcis. *Calx salita. Sal ammoniacus fixus.* This preparation is exhibited with the same views as the muriate of barytes. It possesses deobstruent, diuretic, and cathartic virtues, and is much used by the celebrated Fourcroy against scrophula, and scrophulous diseases. Six, twelve, and twenty grains are given to children three times a day, and a drachm to adults.

Murĭas ferri. *Ferrum salitum. Oleum martis per deliquium.* This preparation of iron is styptic and tonic, and may be given in chlorosis, intermittents, rachitis, &c.

Murĭas ferri ammoniacālis. See *Ferrum ammoniacale.*

Murĭas hydrargўri. There are two simple muriates of mercury. See *Calomelas*, and *hydrargyrus muriatus mitis.*

Murĭas hydrargўri ammoniăcālis. See *Calx hydrargyri alba.*

Murĭas hydrargўrĭ oxygĕnātus. See *Hydrargyrus muriatus.*

Murĭas hyperoxygĕnātus potassæ. The oxygenated muriate of potash has lately been extolled in the cure of the venereal disease. It is exhibited in doses of from fifteen to forty grains in the course of a day. It encreases the action of the heart and arteries, oxygenates the blood, and proves of great service in scorbutus, asthenia, cachexia, &c.

Murĭas potassæ. *Alkali vegetabile salitum. Sal digestivus. Sal febrifugus sylvii.* This salt is exhibited with the same intention as the muriate of soda, and was formerly in high estimation in the cure of intermittents, &c.

Murĭas sodæ. *Alkali minerale salitum. Sal commune. Sal culinaris. Sal fontium. Sal gemmæ. Sal marinus. Natron muriatum. Soda muriata.* Common sea salt possesses antiseptic, diuretic, and resolvent qualities, and is frequently employed in form of clyster, fomentation, lotion, pediluvium, and bath, in obstipation, against worms, gangrene, scrophulous tumours, herpetic eruptions, arthritis, &c.

Murĭas stibĭi hyperoxygĕnātus. See *Antimonium muriatum.*

Muriates, (*Murias, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the muriatic acid with different bases; thus, *Muriat of ammoniac, muriat of copper*, &c.

Muriatic acid. See *Acidum muriaticum.*

Muriatic acid, oxygenated. See *Oxygenated muriatic acid.*

Musa sapientum. The systematic name of the banana-tree. See *Banana.*

MUSA PARADISIACA. The plantain-tree. It grows ſpontaneouſly in many parts of India, but has been immemorially cultivated by the Indians in every part of the continent of South America. It is an herbaceous tree, growing to the height of fifteen or twenty feet. The fruit are nearly of the ſize and ſhape of ordinary cucumbers, and when ripe of a pale yellow colour, of a mealy ſubſtance, a little clammy, a ſweetiſh taſte, and will diſſolve in the mouth without chewing. The whole ſpike of fruit often weighs forty or fifty pounds. When they are brought to table by way of deſert, they are either raw, fried, or roaſted; but if intended for bread, they are cut before they are ripe, and are then either roaſted or boiled. The trees being tall and ſlender, the Indians cut them down to get at the fruit; and in doing this they ſuffer no loſs, for the ſtems are only one year's growth, and would die if not cut; but the roots continue, and new ſtems ſoon ſpring up, which in a year produce ripe fruit alſo. From the ripe plantains they make a liquor called *miſtaw*. When they make this, they roaſt the fruit in their huſks, and after totally beating them to a maſh, they pour water upon them, and as the liquor is wanted it is drawn off. But the nature of this fruit is ſuch, that they will not keep long without running into a ſtate of putrefaction; and therefore, in order to reap the advantage of them at all times, they make cakes of the pulp, and dry them over a ſlow fire, and as they ſtand in need of miſtaw, they maſh the cakes in water, and they anſwer all the purpoſes of freſh fruit. Theſe cakes are exceedingly convenient to make this liquor in their journies, and they never fail to carry them for that purpoſe. The leaves of the tree being large and ſpacious, ſerve the Indians for table-cloths and napkins.

MUSCLE. *Muſculus*. The parts that are uſually included under this name conſiſt of diſtinct portions of fleſh, ſuſceptible of contraction and relaxation; the motions of which, in a natural and healthy ſtate, are ſubject to the will, and for this reaſon they are called *voluntary* muſcles. Beſides theſe, there are other parts of the body that owe their power of contraction to their muſcular fibres: thus the heart is a muſcular texture, forming what is called a hollow muſcle; and the urinary bladder, ſtomach, inteſtines, &c. are enabled to act upon their contents, merely becauſe they are provided with muſcular fibres; theſe are called *involuntary* muſcles, becauſe their motions are not dependent on the will. The muſcles of reſpiration being in ſome meaſure influenced by the will, are ſaid to have a *mixed* motion. The names by which the voluntary muſcles are diſtinguiſhed, are founded on their ſize, figure, ſituation, uſe, or the arrangement of their fibres, or their origin and inſertion; but beſides theſe particular diſtinctions, there are certain general ones that require to be noticed. Thus, if the fibres of a muſcle are placed parallel to each other, in a ſtraight direction, they form what anatomiſts term a *rectilinear* muſcle; if the fibres croſs and interſect each other, they conſtitute a *compound* muſcle; when the fibres are diſpoſed in the manner of rays, a *radiated* muſcle; and when they are placed obliquely with reſpect to the tendon, like the plume of a pen, a *penniform* muſcle. Muſcles that act in oppoſition to each other are called *antagoniſts*; thus every extenſor has a flexor for its antagoniſt, and *vice verſa*. Muſcles that concur in the ſame action are termed *congeneres*. The muſcles being attached to the bones, the latter may be conſidered as levers, that are moved in different directions by the contraction of thoſe organs.

That end of the muſcle which adheres to the moſt fixed part is uſually called the *origin*; and that which adheres to the more moveable part the *inſertion* of the muſcle. In almoſt every muſcle two kinds of fibres are diſtinguiſhed; the one ſoft, of a red colour, ſenſible, and irritable, called *fleſhy* fibres, ſee *Muſcular Fibres*; the other of a firmer texture, of a white gliſtening colour, inſenſible, without irritability or the power of contracting, and named *tendinous* fibres. They are occaſionally intermixed, but the fleſhy fibres generally prevail in the belly, or middle part of the muſcle, and the tendinous ones in the extremities. If theſe tendinous fibres are formed into a round ſlender cord, they form what is called the *tendon* of the muſcle; on the other hand, if they are ſpread into a broad flat ſurface, it is termed an *aponeuroſis*.

Each muſcle is ſurrounded by a very thin and delicate covering of cellular membrane, which incloſes it as it were like a ſheath, and dipping down into its ſubſtance, ſurrounds the moſt minute fibres we are able to trace, connecting them to each other, lubricating them by means of the fat which its cells contain in more or leſs quantity in different ſubjects, and ſerving as a ſupport to the blood-veſſels, lymphatics, and nerves, which are ſo plentifully diſtributed through the muſcles.—This cellular membrane, which in no reſpect differs from that is found inveſting and connecting the other parts of the body, has been ſometimes miſtaken for a membrane peculiar to the muſcles; and hence we often find writers giving it the name of *membrana propria muſculoſa*. The muſcles owe the red colour which ſo particularly diſtinguiſhes their belly part, to an infinite number of arteries, which are every where diſperſed through the whole of their reticular ſubſtance; for their fibres, after having been macerated in water, are, (like all other parts of the body diveſted of their blood), found to be of a white colour. Theſe arteries uſually enter the muſcles by ſeveral conſiderable branches, and ramify ſo minutely through their ſubſtance, that we are unable, even with the beſt microſcopes, to trace their ultimate branches. Ruyſch fancied that the muſcular fibre was hollow, and a production of a capillary artery; but this was merely conjectural. The veins, for the moſt part, accompany the arteries, but are found to be larger and more numerous. The lymphatics, likewiſe, are numerous, as might be expected from the great proportion of reticular ſubſtance, which is every where found inveſtigating the muſcular fibres. The nerves are diſtributed in ſuch abundance to every muſcle, that the muſcles of the thumb alone, are ſupplied with a greater proportion of nervous influence than the largeſt viſcera, as the liver for inſtance. They enter the generality of muſcles by ſeveral trunks, the branches of which, like thoſe of the blood-veſſels, are ſo minutely diſperſed through the cellular ſubſtance, that their number and minuteneſs ſoon elude the eye and the knife of the anatomiſt. This has given riſe to a conjecture, as groundleſs as all the other conjectures on this ſubject, that the muſcular fibre is ultimately nervous.

A Table of the Muſcles.

The generality of anatomical writers have arranged muſcles according to their ſeveral uſes; but this method is evidently defective, as the ſame muſcle may very often have different and oppoſite uſes. The method here adopted is that more uſually followed; they are enumerated in the order in which they are ſituated, beginning with thoſe that are placed neareſt the integuments, and proceeding from theſe

to the muſcles that are more deeply ſeated.

[The reader will be pleaſed to obſerve, that all the muſcles are in pairs except thoſe marked thus *].

Muſcles of the integuments of the cranium:

Occipito frontalis *. *Corrugator ſupercilii.*

Muſcles of the eye-lids:

Orbicularis palpebrarum. Levator palpebræ ſuperioris.

Muſcles of the eye-ball:

Rectus ſuperior. Rectus inferior. Rectus internus. Rectus externus. Obliquus ſuperior. Obliquus inferior.

Muſcles of the noſe and mouth:

Levator palpebræ ſuperioris alæque naſi. Levator labii ſuperioris proprius. Levator anguli oris. Zygomaticus major. Zygomaticus minor. Buccinator. Depreſſor anguli oris. Depreſſor labii inferioris. Orbicularis oris *. *Depreſſor labii ſuperioris alæque naſi. Conſtrictor naſi. Levator menti vel labii inferioris.*

Muſcles of the external ear:

Superior auris. Anterior auris. Poſterior auris. Helicis major. Helicis minor. Tragicus. Antitragicus. Tranſverſus auris.

Muſcles of the internal ear:

Laxator tympani. Membrana tympani. Tenſor tympani. Stapedius.

Muſcles of the lower jaw:

Temporalis. Maſſeter. Pterygoideus externus. Pterygoideus internus.

Muſcles about the anterior part of the neck:

Platyſma myoides. Sterno-cleido-maſtoideus.

Muſcles between the lower jaw and os hyoides:

Digaſtricus. Mylo-hyoideus. Genio-hyoideus. Genio-gloſſus. Hyo-gloſſus. Lingualis.

Muſcles ſituated between the os hyoides and trunk:

Sterno-hyoideus. Crico-hyoideus. Sterno-thyroideus. Thyreo-hyoideus. Crico-thyroidens.

Muſcles between the lower jaw and os hyoides laterally:

Stylo-gloſſus. Stylo-hyoideus. Stylo-pharyngeus. Circumflexus. Levator palati mollis.

Muſcles about the entry of the fauces:

Conſtrictor iſthmi faucium. Palato-pharyngeus. Azygos uvulæ *.

Muſcles ſituated on the poſterior part of the pharynx:

Conſtrictor pharyngis ſuperior. Conſtrictor pharyngis medius. Conſtrictor pharyngis inferior.

Muſcles ſituated about the glottis:

Crico-arytænoideus poſticus. Crico-arytænoideus lateralis. Thyreo-arytænoideus. Arytænoideus obliquus *. *Arytænoideus tranſverſus* *. *Thyreo-epiglottideus. Arytæno-epiglottideus.*

Muſcles ſituated about the anterior part of the abdomen:

Obliquus deſcendens externus. Obliquus aſcendens internus. Tranſverſalis abdominis. Rectus abdominis. Pyramidalis.

Muſcles about the male organs of generation:

Dartos *. *Cremaſter. Erector penis. Accelerator urinæ. Tranſverſus perinei.*

Muſcles of the anus:

Sphincter ani *. *Levator ani* *.

Muſcles of the female organs of generation:

Erector clitoridis. Sphincter vaginæ *.

Muſcles ſituated within the pelvis:

Obturator internus. Coccygeus.

Muſcles ſituated within the cavity of the abdomen:

Diaphragma *. *Quadratus lumborum. Pſoas parvus. Pſoas magnus. Iliacus internus.*

Muſcles ſituated on the anterior part of the thorax;

Pectoralis major. Subclavius. Pectoralis minor. Serratus major anticus.

Muſcles ſituated between the ribs, and within the thorax:

Intercoſtales externi. Intercoſtales interni. Triangularis.

Muſcles ſituated on the anterior part of the neck, cloſe to the vertebræ:

Longus colli. Rectus internus capitis major. Rectus capitis internus minor. Rectus capitis lateralis.

Muſcles ſituated on the poſterior part of the trunk:

Trapezius. Latiſſimus dorſi. Serratus poſticus inferior. Rhomboideus. Splenius. Serratus ſuperior poſticus. Spinalis dorſi. Levatores coſtarum. Sacro-lumbalis. Longiſſimus dorſi. Complexus. Trachelo-maſtoideus. Levator ſcapulæ. Semi-ſpinalis dorſi. Multifidus ſpinæ. Semi-ſpinalis colli. Tranſverſalis colli. Rectus capitis poſticus minor. Obliquus capitis ſuperior. Obliquus capitis inferior. Scalenus. Interſpinales. Intertranſverſales.

Muſcles of the ſuperior extemities:

Supra-ſpinatus. Infra-ſpinatus. Teres minor. Teres major. Deltoides. Coraco-brachialis. Subſcapularis.

Muſcles ſituated on the os humeri:

Biceps flexor cubiti. Brachialis internus. Biceps extenſor cubiti. Anconeus.

Muſcles ſituated on the fore arm:

Supinator radii longus. Extenſor carpi radialis longior. Extenſor carpi radialis brevior. Extenſor digitorum communis. Extenſor minimi digiti. Extenſor carpi ulnaris. Flexor carpi ulnaris. Palmaris longus. Flexor carpi radialis. Pronator radii teres. Supinator radii brevis. Extenſor oſſis metacarpi pollicis manus. Extenſor primi internodii. Extenſor ſecundi internodii. Indicator. Flexor digitorum ſublimis. Flexor digitorum profundus. Flexor longus pollicis. Pronator radii quadratus.

Muſcles ſituated chiefly on the hand:

Lumbricales. Flexor brevis pollicis manus. Opponens pollicis. Abductor pollicis manus. Adductor pollicis manus. Abductor indicis manus. Palmaris brevis. Abductor minimi digiti manus. Adductor minimi digiti. Flexor parvus minimi digiti. Interoſſei interni. Interoſſei externi.

Muſcles of the inferior extremities:

Pectinalis. Triceps adductor femoris. Obturator externus. Gluteus maximus. Gluteus minimus. Gluteus medius. Pyriformis. Gemini. Quadratus femoris.

Muſcles ſituated on the thigh:

Tenſor vaginæ femoris. Sartorius. Rectus femoris. Vaſtus externus. Vaſtus internus. Cruralis. Semi-tendinoſus. Semi-membranoſus. Biceps flexor cruris. Popliteus.

Muſcles ſituated on the leg:

Gaſtrocnemius externus. Gaſtrocnemius internus. Plantaris. Tibialis anticus. Tibialis poſticus. Peroneus longus. Peroneus brevis. Extenſor longus digitorum pedis. Extenſor proprius pollicis pedis. Flexor longus digitorum pedis. Flexor longus pollicis pedis.

Muſcles chiefly ſituated on the foot:

Extenſor brevis digitorum pedis. Flexor brevis digitorum pedis. Lumbricales pedis. Flexor brevis pollicis pedis. Abductor pollicis pedis. Adductor pollicis pedis. Abductor minimi digiti pedis. Flexor brevis minimi digiti pedis. Tranſverſales pedis. Interoſſei pedis externi. Interoſſei pedis interni.

MUSCULAR FIBRE. The fibres that compoſe the body of a muſcle are diſpoſed in faſciculi, or bundles, which are eaſily diſtinguiſhable by the naked eye; but theſe faſciculi are diviſible into ſtill ſmaller ones; and theſe again are probably ſubdiviſible *ad infinitum*. The moſt minute fibre we are able to trace, ſeems to be ſomewhat plaited; theſe plaits diſappearing when the fibre is put upon the ſtretch, ſeem evidently to be the effect of contraction, and have probably induced ſome writers to aſſert

that the muſcular fibre is twiſted or ſpiral. Various have been the opinions concerning the ſtructure of theſe fibres; they are all of them founded only on conjecture, and therefore we ſhall mention only the principal ones, and this with a view rather to gratify the curioſity of the reader, than to afford him information. Borelli ſuppoſes them to be ſo many hollow cylinders, filled with a ſpongy medullary ſubſtance, which he compares to the pith of elder, *ſpongioſa ad inſtar ſambuci*. Theſe cylinders, he contends, are interſected by circular fibres, which form a chain of very minute bladders. This hypotheſis has ſince been adopted by a great number of writers, with certain variations. Thus, for inſtance, Borelli ſuppoſes the veſicles to be of a rhomboidal ſhape; whereas Bernouilli contends that they are oval. Cowper went ſo far as to perſuade himſelf that he had filled theſe cells with mercury; a miſtake, no doubt, which aroſe from its inſinuating itſelf into ſome of the lymphatics. It is obſervable, however, that Leeuwenhoeck ſays nothing of any ſuch veſicles. Here, as well as in many other of her works, nature ſeems to have drawn a boundary to our inquiries, beyond which no human penetration will probably ever extend. It is ſurely more commendable, however, to acknowledge our ignorance, than to indulge ourſelves in chimæra.

Muscular motion. Muſcular motions are of three kinds; namely, voluntary, involuntary, and mixed. The *voluntary motions* of muſcles are ſuch as proceed from an immediate exertion of the active powers of the will: thus, the mind directs the arm to be raiſed or depreſſed, the knee to be bent, the tongue to move, &c. The *involuntary motions* of muſcles are thoſe which are performed by organs, ſeemingly of their own accord, without any attention of the mind, or conſciouſneſs of its active power; as the contraction and dilatation of the heart, arteries, veins, abſorbents, ſtomach, inteſtines, &c. The *mixed motions* are thoſe which are in part under the controul of the will, but which ordinarily act without our being conſcious of their acting; as is perceived in the muſcles of reſpiration, the intercoſtals, the abdominal muſcles, and the diaphragm.

When a muſcle acts, it becomes ſhorter and thicker; both its origin and inſertion are drawn towards its middle. The ſphincter muſcles are always in action; and ſo likewiſe are antagoniſt muſcles, even when they ſeem at reſt. When two antagoniſt muſcles move with equal force, the part which they are deſigned to move remains at reſt; but if one of the antagoniſt muſcles remains at reſt, while the other acts, the part is moved towards the centre of motion.

All the muſcles of living animals are conſtantly endeavouring to ſhorten themſelves.

When a muſcle is divided it contracts. If a muſcle be ſtretched to a certain extent, it contracts, and endeavours to acquire its former dimenſions, as ſoon as the ſtretching cauſe is removed: this takes place in the dead body; in muſcles cut out of the body, and alſo in parts not muſcular, and is called by the immortal Haller *vis mortua*, and by ſome *vis elaſtica*. It is greater in living than in dead bodies, and is called the *tone* of the muſcles.

When a muſcle is wounded, touched, or otherwiſe irritated, it contracts independent of the will: this power is called *irritability*, and by Haller *vis inſita*; it is a property peculiar to, and inherent in the muſcles. The parts of our body which poſſeſs this property are called irritable, as the heart, arteries, muſcles, &c. to dif-

tinguiſh them from thoſe parts which have no muſcular fibres. With regard to the degree of this property peculiar to various parts, the heart is the moſt irritable, then the ſtomach and inteſtines; the diaphragm, the arteries, veins, abſorbents, and at length the various muſcles follow; but the degree of irritability depends upon the age, ſex, temperament, mode of living, climate, ſtate of health, idioſyncraſy, and likewiſe upon the nature of the ſtimulus.

When a muſcle is ſtimulated, either through the medium of the will or any foreign body, it contracts, and its contraction is greater or leſs in proportion as the ſtimulus applied is greater or leſs. The contraction of muſcles is different according to the purpoſe to be ſerved by their contraction: thus, the heart contracts with a jerk; the urinary bladder, ſlowly and uniformly; puncture a muſcle, and its fibres vibrate; and the abdominal muſcles act ſlowly in expelling the contents of the rectum. Relaxation generally ſucceeds the contraction of muſcles, and alternates with it.

The uſe of this property is very conſiderable; for upon it depends all muſcular motion, and the function of every viſcus, except that of the nerves.

Muscular power. See *Irritability*.

Musculus, (*Muſculus*, *i*, m. dim. of *mus*, a mouſe, from its reſemblance to a ſtead mouſe). See *Muſcle*.

Musculus cutaneus. See *Platyſma myoides*.

Musculus patientiæ. See *Levator ſcapulæ*.

Musculus tubæ novæ. See *Circumflexus*.

Muscus, (*Muſcus*, *i*, m. from μοσχος, tender, ſo called from its delicate and tender conſiſtence). Moſs.

Muscus arboreus. This plant, *Lichen plicatus* of Linnæus, we are informed by that great botaniſt, is applied by the Laplanders to parts which are excoriated by a long journey. It is ſlightly adſtringent, and is applied with that intention to bleeding veſſels.

Muscus caninus. See *Lichen cinereus terreſtris*.

Muscus clavatus. See *Lycopodium*.

Muscus cranii humani. See *Uſnea*.

Muscus cumatilis. This cryptogamious plant, *Lichen aphthoſus*, is ſaid to act powerfully on the inteſtines, though never uſed in the practice of the preſent day.

Muscus erectus. Upright club moſs. The pharmacopœial name of the *Lycopodium ſelago* of Linnæus. The decoction of this plant acts violently as a vomit and a purgative, and was formerly on that account employed to produce abortions.

Muscus islandicus. See *Lichen iſlandicus*.

Muscus maritimus. See *Corallinus*.

Muscus pulmonarius quercinus. See *Pulmonaria arborea*.

Muscus pyxidatus. Cup moſs. Theſe very common little plants, *Lichen cocciferus*, and *pyxidatus* of Linnæus, for both are uſed indifferently, are employed by the common people in this country in the cure of hooping cough.

Mushroom. There are ſeveral ſpecies of the *agaricus*, which go by the term muſhroom; as the *agaricus chanterellus*, *delicioſus*, *violaceus*, &c. but that which is eaten in this country is the *agaricus campeſtris* of Linnæus. Similar to it in quality is the champignion or *agaricus pratenſis*. Broiled with ſalt and pepper, or ſtewed with cream and ſome aromatic, they are extremely delicious, and if not eaten to exceſs, ſalubrious. Great care ſhould be taken to aſcertain they are the true fungus, and not thoſe of a poiſonous nature.

Catchup is made by throwing ſalt on muſhrooms, which cauſes them to part with their juice.

MUSK. See *Moſchus*.

MUSK-CRANESBILL. See *Geranium moſchatum*.

MUSK MELON. See *Melo*.

MUSK-SEED. See *Abelmoſchus*.

MUSTARD BLACK. See *Sinapi*.

MUSTARD, HEDGE. See *Eryſimum*.

MUSTARD, TREACLE. See *Thlaſpi*.

MUSTARD MITHRIDATE. See *Thlaſpi*.

MUSTARD, YELLOW. See *Sinapi*.

MUTĪTAS, (*Mutitas*, f. from *mutus*, dumb). Dumbneſs. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *dyſcineſiæ* of Cullen: containing three ſpecies, viz. 1. *Mutitas organica*, as happens when the tongue is removed or injured. 2. *Mutitas atonica* ariſing from an affection of the nerves of the organ. 3. *Mutitas ſurdorum*, depending upon being born deaf.

MYACANTHA, (*Myacantha*, *æ*, f. μυακανθα; from μυς, a mouſe, and ακανθα, a thorn, ſo called becauſe its prickly leaves are uſed to cover whatever is intended to be preſerved from mice). See *Ruſcus*.

MYDRĪĀSIS, (*Mydriaſis*, *is*, f. μυδριαζις: from μυδαω, to abound in moiſture; ſo named becauſe it was thought to originate in redundant moiſture). A diſeaſe of the iris. Too great a dilation of the pupil of the eye, with or without a defect of viſion. It is known by the pupil always appearing of the ſame latitude or ſize in the light. The ſpecies of mydriaſis are, 1. *Mydriaſis amaurotica*, which, for the moſt part, but not always, accompanies an amauroſis. 2. *Mydriaſis hydrocephalica*, which owes its origin to an hydrocephalus internus, or internal dropſy of the ventricles of the cerebrum. It is not uncommon amongſt children, and is the moſt certain diagnoſtic of the diſeaſe. 3. *Mydriaſis verminoſa*, or a dilatation of the pupil from ſaburra and worms in the ſtomach or ſmall inteſtines. 4. *Mydriaſis a ſynechia*, or a dilatation of the pupil, with a concretion of the uvea with the capſula of the cryſtalline lens. 5. *Mydriaſis paralytica*, or a dilated pupil, from a paralyſis of the orbicular fibres of the iris: it is obſerved in paralytic diſorders, and from the application of narcotics to the eye. 6. *Mydriaſis ſpaſmodica*, or from a ſpaſm of the rectilineal fibres of the iris, as often happens in hyſteric and ſpaſmodic diſeaſes. 7. *Mydriaſis*, from atony of the iris, the moſt frequent cauſe of which is a large cataract diſtending the pupil in its paſſing when extracted. It vaniſhes in a few days after the operation, in general; a pupil, however long dilated, may remain ſo from the over and long-continued diſtention.

MŸLO. Names compounded with this word belong to muſcles, which are attached near the grinders; from μυλη, a grinder tooth; ſuch as,

MYLO-HYOIDĒUS. This muſcle, which was firſt deſcribed by Fallopius, is ſo called from its origin near the *dentes molares*, and its inſertion into the os hyoides. It is a thin, flat muſcle, ſituated between the lower jaw and the os hyoides, and is covered by the anterior portion of the digaſtricus. It ariſes fleſhy, and a little tendinous, from all the inner ſurface of the lower jaw, as far back as the inſertion of the pterygoideus internus, or, in other words, from between the laſt dens molaris and the middle of the chin, where it joins its fellow, to form one belly, with an intermediate tendinous ſtreak, or *linea alba*, which extends from the chin to the os hyoides, where both muſcles are inſerted into

the lower edge of the baſis of that bone. This has induced Riolanus, Winſlow, Albinus, and others, to conſider it as a ſingle penniform muſcle. Its uſe is to pull the os hyoides upwards, forwards, and to either ſide.

MYLO-PHARYNGĒUS, (*Muſculus mylo-pharyngeus*, μυλοφαρυγλαιος; from μυλη, the grinding tooth, and φαρυγξ, the pharynx). A muſcle ariſing near the molares, and inſerted in the pharynx. See *Conſtrictor pharyngeus ſuperior*.

MYODESŎPSĬA, (*Myodeſopſia*, æ, f. μυωδεσωψια; from μυαι, a fly, and ωψια, viſion). A diſeaſe of the eyes, in which the perſon ſees black ſpots, an appearance of flies, cobwebs, or black wool, before his eyes.

MYOLOGY, (*Myologia*, æ, f. μυολογια; from μυς, a muſcle, and λογος, a diſcourſe). The doctrine of the muſcles.

MYŌPĬA, (*Myopia*, æ, f. μυωπια: from μυω, to wink, and ωψ, the eye). Near-ſighted, purblind. The myopes are conſidered thoſe perſons who cannot ſee diſtinctly above twenty inches. The myopia is likewiſe adjudged to all thoſe who cannot ſee at three, ſix, or nine inches. The proximate cauſe is the adunation of the rays of light in a focus before the retina. The ſpecies are, 1. *Myopia*, from too great a convexity of the cornea. The cauſe of this convexity is either from nativity, or a greater ſecretion of the aqueous humor: hence on one day there ſhall be a greater myopia than on another. An incipient hydrophthalmia is the origin of the myopia. 2. *Myopia*, from too great a longitude of the bulb. This length of the bulb is native, or acquired from a congeſtion of the humors in the eye; hence artificers occupied in minute objects, as the engravers of ſeals, and perſons reading much, frequently after puberty become myopes. 3. *Myopia*, from too great a convexity of the anterior ſuperfices in the cryſtalline lens. This is likewiſe from birth. The parallel rays which fall into the cornea, by ſo much they fall more obliquely, ſo much the more convex is the cornea, or cryſtalline lens, or vitreous humour in the anterior ſuperficies. But the angle of refraction is equal to the angle of incidence: therefore the angle of refraction ſo much ſooner will be formed as the cornea or lens is more convex. This perfectly accounts for ſhort-ſightedneſs; but an anterior too great convexity of the cornea is the moſt common cauſe. 4. *Myopia*, from too great a denſity of the cornea, or humours of the eye. Optics teach us by ſo much ſooner the rays of light are forced into a focus, by ſo much the diaphanous body is denſer. 5. *Myopia*, from a mydriaſis or too dilated a pupil; for ſo much the wider the aperture of the diaphragma is in an optical inſtrument, ſo much the nearer is the focus. 6. *Myopia infantilis*. Infants, from the great convexity of the cornea, are often myopes; but by degrees, as they advance in years, they perceive objects more remotely, by the cornea becoming leſs convex.

MYOPS, (*Myops*, *opis*, μυωψ, from μυω, to wink, and ωψ, the eye). One who is near ſighted.

MYOSIS, (*Myoſis*, *is*, f. μυωσις). A contraction or too ſmall perforation of the pupil; it is known by viewing the diameter of the pupil, which is ſmaller than uſual, and remains ſo in an obſcure place, where, naturally, if not diſeaſed, it dilates. It occaſions weak ſight, or a viſion that remains only a certain number of hours in the day; but if wholly cloſed, total blindneſs. The ſpecies of this diſorder are, 1. *Myoſis ſpaſmodica*, which is obſerved in the

hyſteric, hypochondriac, and in other ſpaſmodic or nervous affections; it ariſes from a ſpaſm of the orbicular fibres of the iris. 2. *Myoſis paralytica* ariſes in paralytic diſorders. 3. *Myoſis inflammatoria*, which ariſes from an inflammation of the iris or uvea, as in the internal ophthalmia, hypopium, or wounded eye. 4. *Myoſis*, from an accuſtomed contraction of the pupil. This frequently is experienced by thoſe who contemplate very minute objects; by perſons who write; by the workers of fine needle-work; and by frequent attention to microſcopical enquiries. 5. *Myoſis*, from a defect of the aqueous humour, as after extraction. 6. *Myoſis nativa*, with which infants are born. 7. *Myoſis naturalis*, is a coarctation of the pupil by light, or from an intenſe examination of minuteſt objects. Theſe coarctations of the pupil are temporary, and ſpontaneouſly vaniſh.

MYOSĪTIS, (*Myoſitis*, *ĭdis*, f. μυοσιτις, from μυς, a muſcle). Inflammation of a muſcle. It is the term given by Sagar to acute rheumatiſm.

MYOSŌTIS, (*Myoſotis*, f. μυοσωτος, from μυς, a muſcle, and ους, ωτος, an ear; ſo called becauſe its leaves are hairy, and grow longitudinally like the ear of a mouſe). See *Piloſella*.

MYOTOMY, (*Myotomia*, *æ*, f. μυοτομια, from μυων, a muſcle, and τεμνω, to cut). The diſſection of the muſcles.

MYRĪCA GALE. The ſyſtematic name of the dutch myrtle. See *Myrtus brabantica*.

MYRIOPHYLLON, (*Myriophyllon*, *i*, n. μυριοφυλλον, from μυριος, infinite, and φυλλον, a leaf, named from the number of its leaves). See *Milleſolium*.

MYRISTĪCA AROMATĪCA. Swartz's name of the nutmeg tree.

MYRISTĪCA MOSCHĀTA. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which produces the nutmeg. See *Nux moſchata*.

MYRISTĪCA NUX. See *Nux moſchata*.

MYROXŸLON PERUIFĔRUM, (*Myroxylon*, *i*, n. μυροξυλον, from μυρον, an ointment, and ξυλον, wood). The ſyſtematic name of the tree which gives out the peruvian balſam. See *Balſamum Peruvianum*.

MYROBĀLĂNUS, (*Myrobalanus*, *i*, f. μυροβαλανος, from μυρον, an unguent, and βαλανος, a nut, ſo called becauſe it was formerly uſed in ointments). A myrobalan. A dried fruit, of the plum kind, brought from the Eaſt Indies. All the myrobalans have an unpleaſant, bitteriſh, very auſtere taſte, and ſtrike an inky blackneſs with a ſolution of ſal martis. They are ſaid to have a gently purgative as well as an adſtringent and corroborating virtue. In this country they have been long expunged from the pharmacopœias.

MYROBĀLĂNUS BELLIRĬCA. The Belliric myrobalan. This fruit is of a yellowiſh grey colour, and an irregularly roundiſh or oblong figure, about an inch in length, and three quarters of an inch thick.

MYROBĀLĂNUS CHEBŬLA. The chebule myrobalan. This reſembles the yellow in figure and ridges, but is larger, of a darker colour inclining to brown, or blackiſh, and has a thicker pulp.

MYROBĀLĂNUS CITRINA. Yellow myrobalan. This fruit is ſomewhat longer than the belliric, with generally five large longitudinal ridges, and as many ſmaller between them, ſomewhat pointed at both ends.

MYROBĀLĂNUS EMBLICA. The emblic myrobalan is of a dark blackiſh grey colour, roundiſh, about half an inch thick, with ſix hexagonal faces, opening from one another.

MYROBĀLĂNUS INDĬCA. The

Indian or black myrobalan, of a deep black colour, oblong octangular, differing from all the others in having no ſtone, or only the rudiments of one, from which circumſtance they are ſuppoſed to have been gathered before maturity.

MYROBALANS. See *Myrobalanus.*

MYRRH, (*Myrrha, æ,* f. Heb.). A botanical ſpecimen of the tree which affords this gum-reſin has not yet been obtained; but from the account of Mr. Bruce, who ſays it very much reſembles the *acacia vera*, which is the *Mimoſa nilotica* of Linnæus, there can be little doubt in referring it to that genus, eſpecially as it correſponds with the deſcription of the tree given by Dioſcorides. The tree that affords the myrrh, which is obtained by inciſion, grows on the eaſtern coaſt of Arabia Felix, and in that part of Abyſſinia which is ſituated near the Red Sea, and is called by Mr. Bruce, Troglodite. Good myrrh is of a foul black red colour, ſolid and heavy, of a peculiar ſmell, and bitter taſte. Its medicinal effects are warm, corroborant, and antiſeptic; it has been ſucceſsfully employed in phthiſical caſes as a pectoral; and although allied to ſome of the balſams, it is found to be more efficacious and leſs irritating to the ſyſtem. There are ſeveral preparations of this drug in the London and Edinburgh pharmacopœias.

MYRTACANTHA, (*Myrtacantha, æ,* f. μυρτακανθα, from μυρτος, a myrtle, and ακανθα, a thorn; ſo called from its likeneſs to myrtle, and from its prickly leaves). Butchers broom. See *Ruſcus.*

MYRTILLUS, (*Myrtillus, i,* f.). The berries which are directed in pharmacopœias by the name of *baccæ myrtillorum*, are the fruit of the *Vaccinium myrtillus* of Linnæus. Prepared with vinegar they are eſteemed as antiſcorbutics, and when dry poſſeſs aſtringent virtues.

MYRTIFORM CARUNCLES. The remains of the hymen. See *Glandulæ myrtiformes.*

MYRTIFORM GLANDS. See *Glandulæ myrtiformes.*

MYRTLE, COMMON. See *Myrtus.*

MYRTLE, DUTCH. See *Myrtus brabantica.*

MYRTUS, (*Myrtus, i.* f. μυστος, from μυρρα, myrrh, becauſe of its ſmell, or from *myrha*, a virgin who was fabled to have been turned into this tree). The myrtle. *Myrtus communis* of Linnæus. The berries of this plant are recommended in alvine and uterine fluxes, and other diſorders from relaxation and debility. They have a roughiſh, and not unpleaſant taſte, and appear to be moderately adſtringent and corroborant, partaking alſo of aromatic qualities.

MYRTUS BRABANTĬCA. Gaule. Sweet willow, or Dutch myrtle. The leaves, flowers, and ſeeds of this plant, *Myrica gale* of Linnæus, have a ſtrong fragrant ſmell, and a bitter taſte. They are ſaid to be uſed amongſt the common people for deſtroying moths and cutaneous inſects, and the infuſion is given internally as a ſtomachic and vermifuge.

MYRTUS CARYOPHYLLĀTA. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the caſſia bark. See *Caſſia caryophyllata.*

MYRTUS COMMŪNIS. The ſyſtematic name of the common myrtle. See *Myrtus.*

MYRTUS PIMENTA. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which bears the Jamaica pepper. See *Pimento.*

MYSTAX. The hair which forms the beard in man, on each ſide the upper lip.

N.

NÆVI MATERNI, (*Nævus, i*, m. Heb.). Mother's marks. Theſe marks are upon the ſkin of children at birth, and are various in their nature, depending upon the longing or averſion of the mother; hence they reſemble mulberries, grapes, bacon, &c. Their ſeat is moſtly in the rete mucoſum or cellular membrane.

NAILS. *Ungues.* Horny laminæ, ſituated on the extremities of the fingers and toes.

NAPELLUS, (*Napellus, i*, f. dim. of *napus*, a kind of turnip, becauſe it has a bulbous root like a turnip). Wolf's bane. See *Aconitum.*

NAPHTHA, (*Naphtha, æ*, f.). A very fluid ſpecies of petroleum, found chiefly in Italy.

NAPHÆ FLORES. A term ſometimes applied to the flowers of the citrus aurantium. See *Aurantium.*

NAPUS, (*Napus, i.* νᾶπυς; from *napus*, Rabb.). *Napus ſylveſtris. Bunias.* Wild navew or rape. *Braſſica nàpus* of Linnæus. The ſeeds yield upon expreſſion a large quantity of oil, called rape oil, which is ſometimes ordered in ſtimulating liniments.

NAPUS DULCIS. See *Rapus.*

NAPUS SYLVESTRIS. See *Rapus.*

NARCŌSIS, (*Narcoſis, is*, f. νάρκωσις; from νάρκοω, to ſtupefy). Stupefaction, ſtupor, numbneſs.

NARCOTICS, (*Narcotica*, ſc. *medicamenta*; from νάρκοω, to ſtupefy). See *Anodynes.*

NARD, CELTIC. See *Nardus celtica.*

NARD, INDIAN. See *Nardus indica.*

NARDUS, (*Nardus, i.* f. νάρδος; from *nard*, Syr.). Spikenard.

NARDUS CELTĬCA. *Spica celtica.* Celtic nard. *Valeriana celtica* of Linnæus. The root of this plant, a native of the Alps, has been recommended as a ſtomachic, carminative, and diuretic. At preſent it is only uſed in this country in the theriaca and mithridate, though its ſenſible qualities promiſe ſome conſiderable medicinal powers. It has a moderately ſtrong ſmell, and a warm, bitteriſh, ſub-acrid taſte.

NARDUS INDĬCA. *Spica nardi. Spica indica.* Indian nard or ſpikenard. The root of this plant, *Andropogon nardus* of Linnæus, is an ingredient in the mithridate and theriaca; it is moderately warm and pungent, accompanied with a flavour not diſagreeable. It is ſaid to be uſed amongſt the Orientals as a ſpice.

NARDUS RUSTĬCA. An old name of the aſarabacca. See *Aſarum.*

NARES, (*Nares, ium*, pl. of *naris, is*, f. a noſtril). The noſtrils. The cavity of the noſtrils is of a pyramidal figure, and is ſituated under the anterior part of the cranium, in the middle of the face. It is compoſed of fourteen bones, viz. the frontal, two maxillary, two naſal, two lachrymal, two inferior ſpongy, the ſphænoid, the vomer, the ethmoid, and two palatine bones, which form ſeveral eminences and cavities. The eminences are the ſeptum narium, the cavernous ſubſtance of the ethmoid bone, called the ſuperior conchæ, and the inferior ſpongy bones. The cavities are three pair of pituitary ſinuſes, namely, the fron-

tal, ſphænoid and maxillary; the anterior and poſterior foramina of the noſtrils; the ductus naſalis, the ſphæno palatine foramina, and anterior palatine foramina. All theſe parts are covered with periofteum, and a pituitary membrane which ſecretes the mucus of the noſtrils. The arteries of this cavity are branches of the internal maxillary. The veins empty themſelves into the internal jugulars. The nerves are branches of the olfactory, ophthalmic, and ſuperior maxillary. The uſe of the noſtrils is for ſmelling, reſpiration, and ſpeech.

NARIS COMPRESSOR. See *Compreſſor naris.*

NASĀLIS. See *Compreſſor naris.*

NASI, DEPRESSOR. See *Depreſſor labii ſuperioris alæque naſi.*

NASĪ OSSA, (*Naſus, i,* m). The two ſmall bones of the noſe that are ſo termed, form the bridge of the noſe. In figure they are quadrangular and oblong.

NASTURTIUM. See *Naſturtium indicum.*

NASTURTĬUM AQUATĬCUM, (*Naſturtium, quod naſum torquent,* becauſe the ſeed when bruiſing irritates the noſe). Water creſſe. This indigenous plant, *Siſymbrium naſturtium* of Linnæus, *Siſymbrium ſiliquis declinatis, foliis pinnatis, foliolis ſubcordatis.* Claſs *Tetradynamia.* Order *Siliquoſa,* grows plentifully in brooks and ſtagnant waters. The leaves have a moderately pungent taſte, emit a quick penetrating ſmell, like that of muſtard ſeed, but much weaker. Water-creſſes obtain a place in the materia medica, for their antiſcorbutic qualities, which have been long very generally acknowledged by phyſicians. The moſt pleaſant way of adminiſtering them is in form of ſalad.

NASTURTĬUM HORTENSE. Dittander. This plant is the *Lepidium ſativum floribus tetradynamiis; foliis oblongis, multifidis* of Linnæus; it poſſeſſes warm, nervine, and ſtimulating qualities, and is given as an antiſcorbutic, antiſceptic, and ſtomachic, eſpecially by the lower orders.

NASTURTĬUM INDĬCUM. Greater Indian creſs or naſturtium. *Trapæolum majus* of Linnæus. This plant is a native of Peru; it was firſt brought to France in 1684, and there called *La grande capucine.* In its recent ſtate this plant, and more eſpecially its flowers, have a ſmell and taſte reſembling thoſe of water creſs; and the leaves, on being bruiſed in a mortar, emit a pungent odour, ſomewhat like that of horſe-radiſh. By diſtillation with water they impregnate the fluid in a conſiderable degree with the ſmell and flavour of the plant. Hence the antiſcorbutic character of the naſturtium ſeems to be well founded, at leaſt as far as we are able to judge from its ſenſible qualities: therefore in all thoſe caſes where the warm antiſcorbutic vegetables are recommended, this plant may be occaſionally adopted as a pleaſant and effectual variety. Patients to whom the nauſeous taſte of ſcurvygraſs is intolerable, may find a grateful ſubſtitute in the naſturtium. The flowers are frequently uſed in ſallads, and the capſules are by many highly eſteemed as a pickle. The flowers, in the warm ſummer months, about the time of ſunſet, have been obſerved to emit ſparks like thoſe of the electrical kind.

NATES, (*Nates, is,* pl. *nates, ium,* f. from *nato,* to flow: becauſe the excrements are diſcharged from them). The fleſhy parts upon which we ſit.

NATES CERĔBRI. See *Tubercula quadrigemina.*

NATRON, (*Natron, i,* n. ſo called from *Natron,* a lake in Judea where it was produced). *Barilla. Soda.* Mineral alkali. Foſſil alkali. This alkali is chiefly obtained from the *Salſoli kali* of Linnæus. Not only

this, but various other plants, on being burned, are found to afford this alkali, and ſome in a greater proportion than this; theſe are

The *Salſola ſativa Lin. Salſola ſonda.* Loſling. *Kali hiſpanicum ſupinum annuum ſedi-foliis brevibus. Kali d'Alicante.* It grows abundantly on that part of the Spaniſh coaſt which is waſhed by the Mediterranean ſea. This ſpecies is deſervedly firſt enumerated by Profeſſor Murray, as it ſupplies all the beſt ſoda conſumed in Europe, which by us is called Spaniſh or Alicant ſoda, and by the Spaniſh merchants Barilla de Alicante. See *Barilla.*

Salſola ſoda. Lin. *Kali majus cochleato ſemine. Le Salicor.* This ſpecies, which grows on the French Mediterranean coaſt, is much uſed in Languedoc for the preparation of this ſalt, which is uſually exported to Sicily and Italy.

Salſola tragus, Lin. affords an ordinary kind of ſoda, with which the French frequently mix that made in Languedoc. This adulteration is alſo practiſed by the Sicilians, who diſtinguiſh the plant by the term ſalvaggia.

Salicornia herbacea, Lin. is common in ſalt marſhes, and on the ſea-ſhore, all over Europe. Linnæus prefers the ſoda obtained from this plant to that of all the others; but though the quantity of foſſil alkali which it yields is very conſiderable, as a great portion of it is united with muriatic acid, it is mixed with much common ſalt.

Salicornia arabica, Lin. *Meſembryanthemum nodiflorum,* Lin. *Plantago ſquarroſa,* Lin. All theſe, according to Alpinus, afford this alkali. It has alſo been procured from ſeveral of the Fuci, eſpecially *F. veſiculoſus,* and diſtinguiſhed here by the name Kelp. Various other marine plants might alſo be noticed as yielding barilla or ſoda by combuſtion; but the principal are confined to the genus Salſola, and that of Salicornia. The Salſola kali, on the authority of Rauwolf, is the ſpecies from which the ſalt is uſually obtained in eaſtern countries.

It is to be regretted, that the different kinds of ſoda which are brought to European markets, have not been ſufficiently analyſed to enable us to aſcertain with tolerable certainty the reſpective value of each; and indeed while the practice of adulterating this ſalt continues, any attempts of this kind are likely to prove fruitleſs. The beſt information on this ſubject is to be had from Juſſica, Maſcoreſſe, Cadet, Borlare, and Seſtini. In thoſe places where the preparation of ſoda forms a conſiderable branch of commerce, as on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, ſeeds of the ſalſola are regularly ſown in a proper ſituation near the ſea, which uſually ſhoot above ground in the courſe of a fortnight. About the time the ſeeds become ripe, the plants are pulled up by the roots, and expoſed in a ſuitable place to dry, where their ſeeds are collected; this being done, the plants are tied up in bundles, and burned in an oven conſtructed for the purpoſe, where the aſhes are then while hot continually ſtirred with long poles. The ſaline matter, on becoming cold, forms a hard ſolid maſs, which is afterwards broken in pieces of a convenient ſize for exportation.

According to chemical analyſis, ſoda generally contains a portion of vegetable alkali, and neutral ſalts, as common ſalt, and ſometimes vitriolated tartar, or Glauber ſalt, likewiſe liver of ſulphur, and not unfrequently ſome portion of iron is contained in the maſs; it is therefore to be conſidered as more or leſs a compound, and its goodneſs is to be eſtimated accordingly. The Spaniſh ſoda, of the beſt ſort, is in dark coloured

maſſes, of a blueiſh tinge, very ponderous, ſonorous, dry to the touch, and externally abounding with ſmall cavities, without any offenſive ſmell, and very ſalt to the taſte; if long expoſed to the air, it undergoes a degree of ſpontaneous calcination. The beſt French ſoda is alſo dry, ſonorous, brittle, and of a deep blue colour, approaching to black. The ſoda which is mixed with ſmall ſtones, which gives out a fetid ſmell on ſolution, and is white, ſoft, and deliqueſcent, is of the worſt kind. The method of purifying this ſalt is directed in the London pharmacopœia, under the article of Natron præparatum, and in the Edinburgh pharmacopœia under that of Sal alkalinus fixus foſſilis purificatus. The pure cryſtals, thus formed of Alicant barilla, are colourleſs, tranſparent, lamellated, of a rhomboidal figure, and one hundred parts are found to contain twenty of alkali, ſixteen of aerial acid, and ſixty-four of water; but upon keeping the cryſtals for a length of time, if the air be not excluded, the water evaporates, and they aſſume the form of a white powder. According to Inſlin, one ounce of water at the temperature 62 of Fahr. diſſolves five drams and fifteen grains of the cryſtals. The ſame author alſo found that this ſalt, though not ſo long as the vegetable alkali-natron, has been thought uſeful in ſcrophulous diſorders, but it is ſeldom given in its ſimple ſtate.

In combination with vitriolic acid the alkali forms Glauber ſalt, or *natron vitriolatum*; with nitrous acid, cubic nitre; with marine acid, common ſalt; with the ſedative ſalt of Homberg, borax; with cream of tartar, Rochelle ſalt, or ſal ſeignette.

Soda, or the mineral alkali as it is termed, is in common uſe in the manufacture of glaſs and ſoap, and as the latter is an article of the materia medica, it will be proper to conſider its medicinal effects in this place.

All the ſoaps, of which there are various kinds, are compoſed of expreſſed vegetable oils, or animal fats, united with alkaline lixivia. The *ſapo ex oleo olivæ et natro confectus* of the London pharmacopœia, or the *ſapo albus criſpanus* of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia, (white Spaniſh ſoap), being made of the finer kinds of olive oil, is the beſt, and therefore preferred for internal uſe. Soap was imperfectly known to the antients. It is mentioned by Pliny as made of fat and aſhes, and as an invention of the Gauls. Aretæus and others inform us, that the Greeks obtained their knowledge of its medical uſe from the Romans. Its virtues, according to Bergius, are detergent, reſolvent, and aperient, and its uſe recommended in jaundices, gout, calculous complaints, and in obſtructions of the viſcera. The efficacy of ſoap, in the firſt of theſe diſeaſes, was experienced by Sylvius, and ſince recommended very generally by various authors who have written on this complaint; and it has alſo been thought of uſe in ſupplying the place of bile in the primæ viæ. The utility of this medicine, in icterical caſes, was inferred chiefly from its ſuppoſed power of diſſolving biliary concretions; but this medicine has loſt much of its reputation in jaundice, ſince it is now known, that gall-ſtones have been found in many after death, who had been daily taking ſoap for ſeveral months, and even years. Of its good effects in urinary calculous affections, we have the teſtimonies of ſeveral, eſpecially when diſſolved in lime water, by which its efficacy is conſiderably increaſed; for it thus becomes a powerful ſolvent of mucus, which an ingenious modern author ſuppoſes to be the chief agent in the formation

of calculi; it is however only in the incipient ſtate of the diſeaſe that theſe remedies promiſe effectual benefit, though they generally abate the more violent ſymptoms, where they cannot remove the cauſe. With Boerhaave, ſoap was a general medicine; for as he attributed moſt complaints to viſcidity of the fluids, he and moſt of the Boerhavian ſchool preſcribed it, in conjunction with different reſinous and other ſubſtances, in gout, rheumatiſm, and various viſceral complaints. Soap is alſo externally employed as a reſolvent, and gives name to ſeveral officinal preparations.

NATRON MURĬATUM. See *Murias ſodæ*.

NATRON PRÆPARĀTUM. *Soda præparata. Sal ſodæ. Alkali minerale aeratum.* This ſalt conſiſts of ſoda ſaturated with carbonic acid, and is therefore called *carbonas ſodæ* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is given in doſes of from ten grains to half a drachm as an attenuant and antacid; and, joined with bark and aromatics, it is highly praiſed by ſome in the cure of ſcrophula. It is likewiſe a powerful ſolvent of mucus, a deobſtruent and diuretic, and an antidote againſt oxyd of arſenic and the corroſive ſublimate. The other diſeaſes in which it is adminiſtered are thoſe ariſing from an abundance of mucus in the primæ viæ; calculous complaints, gout, ſome affections of the ſkin, rickets, tinea capitis, cruſta lactea, and worms. Externally it is recommended by ſome in the form of lotion, to be applied to ſcrophulous ulcers. See *Alkali minerale* and *Natron*.

NATRON TARTĀRISĀTUM. *Sal Rupellenſis. Sal polychreſtum ſeignetti. Alkali minerale tartariſatum.* This preparation is a combination of the acid of tartar with ſoda, and called in the new chemical nomenclature *tartris ſodæ*. It poſſeſſes mildly cathartic, diuretic, and deobſtruent virtues, and is adminiſtered in the doſe of from half an ounce to an ounce as a cathartic, and in the doſe of from twenty to thirty grains, in abdominal phyſconia, and torpidity of the kidneys.

NATRON VITRĬOLĀTUM. *Alkali minerale vitriolatum. Sal mirabile ſeu catharticus Glauberi.* Glauber's ſalt. This preparation being a ſulphat of the mineral alkali is termed *ſulphas ſodæ*, in the new chemical nomenclature. It poſſeſſes cathartic and diuretic qualities, and is in high eſteem as a mild cathartic. It is found in the mineral kingdom formed by nature, but that which is uſed medicinally is prepared by art.

NATURAL ACTIONS. Natural functions. Thoſe actions by which the body is preſerved, as hunger, thirſt, &c. See *Function*.

NAUSĔA, (*Nauſea, æ*, f. ναυσεια, from ναυς, a ſhip; becauſe it is a ſenſation ſimilar to that which people experience upon ſailing in a ſhip). An inclination to vomit without effecting it; alſo a diſguſt of food, approaching to vomiting. It is an attendant on cardialgia, and a variety of other diſorders, pregnancy, &c. occaſioning an averſion for food, an increaſe of ſaliva, diſguſted ideas at the ſight of various objects, loſs of appetite, debility, &c.

NAVEW, GARDEN. See *Rapus*.

NAVEW, SWEET. See *Rapus*.

NAVEW, WILD. See *Rapus*.

NAVICULĀRE OS, (*Navicularis*, from *navicula*, a little boat). *Os ſcaphoides*. A bone of the carpus and tarſus is ſo called from its ſuppoſed reſemblance to a boat. See *Carpus* and *Tarſus*.

NECK, (*Collum, i*, n.). The parts which form the neck are divided into external and internal. The external parts are the common integuments, ſeveral muſcles, eight pair of cervical nerves, the eighth pair of nerves of the cerebrum, and the great intercoſtal nerve, the two carotid ar-

teries, the two external jugular veins, and the two internal, the glands of the neck, viz. the jugular, ſubmaxillary, cervical, and thyroid. The internal parts are the fauces, pharynx, œſophagus, larynx, and trachea. The bones of the neck are the ſeven cervical vertebræ.

NECRŌSIS, (*Necroſis, is*, f. νεκρωσις, from νεκροω, to deſtroy). The dry gangrene. A ſpecies of mortification, in which the parts become dry, inſenſible, and black, without any previous inflammation.

NEP. See *Nepeta*.

NEPĒTA, (*Nepeta, æ*, f. from *nepte*, Germ.). *Herba felis*. Nep, or catmint; ſo called becauſe cats are very fond of it. The leaves of this plant, *Nepeta cataria*; *floribus ſpicatis*; *verticillis ſubpedicellatis*; *foliis petiolatis, cordatis, dentata-ſerratis* of Linnæus, have a moderately pungent aromatic taſte and a ſtrong ſmell like an admixture of ſpearmint and pennyroyal. The herb is recommended in uterine diſorders, dyſpepſia, and flatulency.

NĒPĔTA CATARĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the catmint. See *Nepeta*.

NEPHRALGĬA, (*Nephralgia, æ*, f. νεφραλγια, from νεφρος, the kidney, and αλγος, pain). Pain in the kidney.

NEPHRITĬCS, (*Nephritica*, ſc. *medicamenta*, νεφρετικα, from νεφρος, the kidney). Medicines are ſo termed that are employed in the cure of diſeaſes of the kidneys.

NEPHRITIC WOOD. See *Lignum nephriticum*.

NEPHRITĬCUM LIGNUM. See *Lignum nephriticum*.

NEPHRĪTIS, (*Nephritis, ĭdis*, f. νεφριτις, from νεφρος, a kidney). Inflammation of the kidney. It is a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen; known by pyrexia, pain in the region of the kidneys, and ſhooting along the courſe of the ureter; drawing up of the teſticles; numbneſs of the thigh; vomiting; urine high coloured, and frequently diſcharged; coſtiveneſs and colic pains. Nephritis is ſymptomatic of calculus, gout, &c.

NEPHROTOMY, (*Nephrotōmia, æ* f. νεφροτομια, from νεφρος, a kidney, and τεμνω, to cut). The operation of extracting a ſtone from the kidney.

NERĬUM ANTIDYSENTERĬCUM (*Nerium, i*, n. νηριον, from νηρος, humid; ſo called becauſe it grows in moiſt places, and *antidyſentericum*, from its virtues). The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the cadoga pala bark. See *Coniſſi cortex*.

NERVE, (*Nervus, i*, m. νευρον) Formerly it meant a ſinew. This accounts for the oppoſite meanings of the word *nervous*; which ſometimes means ſtrong, ſinewy; and ſometimes weak and irritable. Nerves are long white medullary cords that ſerve for ſenſation. They originate from the brain and ſpinal marrow; hence they are diſtinguiſhed into cerebral and ſpinal nerves, and are diſtributed upon the organs of ſenſe, the viſcera, veſſels, muſcles, and every part that is endowed with ſenſibility. The cerebral nerves are the olfactory, optic, motores oculorum, pathetici or trochleatores, trigimini, or diviſi, abducent, auditory or acouſtic, parva gum and lingual. Heiſter has drawn up the uſes of theſe nerves in the two following verſes:

Olfacions, cernens, oculoſque movens patienſque,
Guſtans, abducens, audienſque, vagansque, loquenſque.

The ſpinal nerves are thirty pair, and are divided into eight pair of cervical, twelve pair of dorſal, five pair of lumbar, and five of ſacral nerves. In the courſe of the nerves there are a number of knots, theſe are called *ganglions*; they are commonly of an oblong ſhape, and of a grayiſh colour, ſome

what inclined to red, which is, perhaps, owing to their being extremely vascular. Some writers have considered these little ganglions as so many little brains. Lancisi fancied he had discovered muscular fibres in them, but they certainly are not of an irritable nature. A late writer, Dr. Johnson, imagines they are intended to deprive us of the power of the will over certain parts, as the heart, for instance; but if this hypothesis were well founded, they should be met with only in nerves leading to involuntary muscles; whereas it is certain that the involuntary muscles receive nerves through ganglions. Dr. Munro, from observing the accurate intermixture of the minute nerves which compose them, considers them as new sources of nervous energy. The nerves, like the blood-vessels, in their course through the body, communicate with each other, and each of these communications constitute what is called a *plexus*, from whence branches are again detached to different parts of the body. The use of the nerves is to convey the principles of motion and sensibility to the brain, from all parts of the system, and from the brain to every part of the system. The manner in which this operation is effected is not yet determined. The inquiry has been a constant source of hypothesis in all ages, and has produced some ingenious ideas, and many erroneous positions, but without having hitherto afforded much satisfactory information. Some physiologists have considered a trunk of nerves as a solid cord, capable of being divided into an infinite number of filaments, by means of which the impressions of feeling are conveyed to the common sensorium. Others have supposed each fibril to be a canal, carrying a volatile fluid, which they term the *nervous fluid*. Those who contend for their being solid bodies, are of opinion that feeling is occasioned by vibration; so that, for instance, according to this hypothesis, by pricking the finger, a vibration would be occasioned, in the nerve distributed through its substance; and the effects of this vibration, when extended to the sensorium, would be an excital of pain; but the inelasticity, the softness, the connection, and the situation of the nerves are so many proofs that vibration has no share in the cause of feeling.

A Table of the Nerves.

CEREBRAL NERVES.

1. The *first pair*, called *olfactory*.
2. The *second pair*, or *optic nerves*.
3. The *third pair*, or *oculorum motorii*.
4. The *fourth pair*, or *pathetici*.
5. The *fifth pair*, or *trigemini*, which gives off
   a. The *ophthalmic*, or *orbital nerve*, which sends
      1. A *branch* to unite with one from the sixth pair, and form the great intercostal nerve.
      2. The *frontal* nerve.
      3. The *lachrymal*.
      4. The *nasal*.
   b. The *superior maxillary*, which divides into
      1. The *sphæno palatine* nerve.
      2. The *posterior alveolar*.
      3. The *infra orbital*.
   c. The *inferior maxillary* nerve, from which arise
      1. The *internal lingual*.
      2. The *inferior maxillary*, properly so called.
6. The *sixth pair*, or *abducentes*, which send off
   1. A *branch* to unite with one from the fifth, and form the great intercostal.
7. The *seventh pair*, or *auditory nerves*, these arise by two separate beginnings, viz.
   The *portio dura*, a nerve going to the face.

The *portio mollis*, which is distributed on the ear.

The *portio dura* or *facial* nerve gives off the *chorda tympani*, and then proceeds to the face.

8. The *eighth pair*, or *par vagum*, arise from the medulla oblongata, and join with the acceſſory of Willis. The parvagum gives off

1. The *right* and *left recurrent nerve*.
2. Several branches in the cheſt, to form the *cardiac plexus*.
3. Several branches to form the *pulmonic plexus*.
4. Several branches to form the *œſophageal plexus*.
5. It then forms in the abdomen the *ſtomachic plexus*.
6. The *hepatic plexus*.
7. The *ſplenic plexus*.
8. The *renal plexus*, receiving ſeveral branches from the great intercoſtal, which aſſiſts in their formation.

9. The *ninth pair*, or *lingual nerves*, which go from the medulla oblongata to the tongue.

Spinal Nerves.

Thoſe nerves are called *ſpinal* which paſs out through the lateral or intervertical foramina of the ſpine.

They are divided into *cervical*, *dorſal*, *lumbar*, and *ſacral* nerves.

Cervical Nerves.

The *cervical nerves* are *eight* pairs.

The *firſt* are called the *occipital*; they ariſe from the beginning of the ſpinal marrow, paſs out between the margin of the occipital foramen and atlas, form a ganglion on its tranſverſe proceſs, and are diſtributed about the occiput and neck.

The *ſecond* pair of cervical nerves ſend a branch to the acceſſory nerve of Willis, and proceed to the parotid gland and external ear.

The *third* cervical pair ſupply the integuments of the ſcapula, cucullaris, and triangularis muſcles, and ſend a branch to form with others the diaphragmatic nerve.

The *fourth*, *fifth*, *ſixth*, *ſeventh*, and *eighth* pair all converge to form the *brachial plexus*, from which ariſe the ſix following

Nerves of the Upper Extremities.

1. The *axillary* nerve, which ſometimes ariſes from the radial nerve. It runs backwards and outwards around the neck of the humerus, and ramifies in the muſcles of the ſcapula.

2. The *external cutaneal*, which perforates the coraco-brachialis muſcle, to the bend of the arm, where it accompanies the median vein as far as the thumb, and is loſt in its integuments.

3. The *internal cutaneal*, which deſcends on the inſide of the arm, where it bifurcates. From the bend of the arm, the anterior branch accompanies the baſilic vein, to be inſerted into the ſkin of the palm of the hand; the poſterior branch runs down the internal part of the fore-arm, to vaniſh in the ſkin of the little finger.

4. The *median* nerve, which accompanies, the brachial artery to the cubit, then paſſes between the brachialis internus, pronator rotundus, and the perforatus and porforans, under the ligament of the wriſt to the palm of the hand, where it ſends off branches in every direction to the muſcles of the hand, and then ſupplies the digital nerves, which go to the extremities of the thumb, fore and middle fingers.

5. The *ulnar* nerve, which deſcends between the brachial artery and baſilic vein, between the internal condyle of the humerus, and the olecranon, and divides in the fore-arm into an *internal* and an *external* branch. The former paſſes over the ligament of the wriſt and ſeſamoid bone, to the hand, where it divides

into three branches, two of which go to the ring and little finger, and the third forms an arch towards the thumb in the palm of the hand, and is loſt in the contiguous muſcles. The latter paſſes over the tendon of the extenſor carpi ulnaris and back of the hand, to ſupply alſo the two laſt fingers.

6. The *radial* nerve, which ſometimes gives off the axillary nerve. It paſſes backwards, about the os humeri, deſcends on the outſide of the arm, between the brachialis externus and internus muſcles to the cubit; then proceeds between the ſupinator longus and brevis to the ſuperior extremity of the radius, giving off various branches to adjacent muſcles. At this place it divides into two branches; *one* goes along the radius, between the ſupinator longus and radialis internus to the back of the hand, and terminates in the interoſſeous muſcles, the thumb and three firſt fingers; the *other* paſſes between the ſupinator brevis and head of the radius, and is loſt in the muſcles of the fore-arm.

Dorsal Nerves.

The *dorſal* nerves are twelve pairs in number. The firſt pair gives off a branch to the brachial plexus. All the dorſal nerves are diſtributed to the muſcles of the back, intercoſtals, ſerati, pectoral, abdominal muſcles and diaphragm. The five inferior pairs go to the cartilages of the ribs, and are called *coſtal*.

Lumbar Nerves.

The five pair of *lumbar* nerves are beſtowed about the loins and muſcles, skin of the abdomen and loins, ſcrotum, ovaria, and diaphragm. The ſecond, third, and fifth pair unite and form the *obturator nerve*, which deſcends over the pſoas muſcle into the pelvis, and paſſes through the foramen thyroideum to the obturator muſcle, triceps, pectineus, &c.

The third and fourth, with ſome branches of the ſecond pair, form the *crural nerve*, which paſſes under Poupart's ligament with the femoral artery, ſends off branches to the adjacent parts, and deſcends in the direction of the ſartorius muſcle to the internal condyle of the femur, from whence it accompanies the ſaphena vein to the internal ankle, to be loſt in the ſkin of the great toe.

The fifth pair are joined to the firſt pair of the ſacral nerves.

Sacral Nerves.

There are five pair of *ſacral* nerves, all of which ariſe from the *cauda equina*, or termination of the medulla ſpinalis; ſo called from the nerves reſembling the tail of a horſe. The four firſt pair give off branches to the pelvic viſcera, and are afterwards united to the laſt lumbar, to form a large *plexus*, which gives off

The *iſchiatic nerve*, the largeſt in the body. The iſchiatic nerve immediately at its origin ſends off branches to the bladder, rectum, and parts of generation; proceeds from the cavity of the pelvis through the iſchiatic notch, between the tuberoſity of the iſchium and great trochanter, to the ham, where it is called the *popliteal nerve*. In the ham it divides into two branches.

1. The *peroneal*, which deſcends on the fibula, and diſtributes many branches to the muſcles of the leg and back of the foot.

2. The *tibial*, which penetrates the gaſtrocnemii muſcles to the internal ankle, paſſes through a notch in the os calcis to the ſole of the foot, where it divides into an *internal* and *external plantar* nerve, which ſupply the muſcles and aponeuroſis of the foot and the toes.

NERVINES, (*Nervina*, sc. *medicamenta*, from *nervus*). Neurotics. Medicines that relieve disorders of the nerves.

NERVOUS FEVER. See *Febris nervosa*.

NERVOUS FLUID. Nervous principle. The vascularity of the cortical part of the brain, and of the nerves themselves, their softness, pulpiness, and natural humid appearance, give reason to believe that between the medullary particles of which they are principally composed, a fine fluid is constantly secreted, which may be fitted to receive and transmit, even more readily than other fluids do, all impressions which are made on it. It appears to exhale from the extremities of the nerves. The lassitude and debility of *muscles* from too great exercise, and the dulness of the sensorial organs from excessive use, would seem to prove this. It has no *smell* nor *taste*; for the cerebrine medulla is insipid and inodorous. Nor has it any *colour*, for the cerebrum and nerves are white. It is of so subtile a *consistence*, as never to have been detected. Its *mobility* is *stupendous*, for in less than a moment, with the consent of the mind, it is conveyed from the cerebrum to the muscles, like the electric matter. Whether the nervous fluid be carried from the organ of sense in the *sensorial* nerves to the cerebrum, and from thence in the *motory* nerves to the muscles, cannot be positively affirmed, but may be proved. The *constituent principles* of this liquid are perfectly unknown, as they cannot be rendered visible by art, or proved by experiment. Upon making a ligature upon a nerve, the motion of the fluid is interrupted, which proves that something corporeal flows through it. It is therefore a weak argument to deny its existence because we cannot see it; for who has seen the matter of heat, oxygen, azot, and other elementary bodies, the existence of which no physician in the present day doubts? The *electric matter*, whose action on the nerves is very great, does not appear to constitute the nervous fluid; for nerves exhibit no signs of spontaneous electricity; nor can it be the *magnetic matter*, as the experiment of Gavian with the magnet demonstrates; nor is it *oxygen*, nor *hydrogen*, nor *azot*; for the first very much irritates the nerves, and the other two suspend their action. The nervous fluid, therefore, is an *element* sui generis, which exists and is produced in the nerves only; hence, like other elements, it is a thing unknown, and only to be known by its effects. The pulpous softness of some nerves, and their lax situation, does not allow them and the brain to act on the body and soul only by *oscillation*. Lastly, a tense chord, although tied, oscillates. The *use* of the nervous fluid is, 1. It appears to be an intermediate substance between the body and the soul, by means of which the latter thinks, perceives, and moves the muscles subservient to the will. Hence the body acts upon the soul, and the soul upon the body. 2. It appears to differ from the *vital principle*; for parts live and are irritable which want nerves, as bones, tendons, plants, and insects.

NERVOUS SYSTEM, PHYSIOLOGY OF. The nervous system, as the organ of sense and motion, is connected with so many functions of the animal economy, that the study of it must be of the utmost importance, and a fundamental part of the study of the whole economy. The nervous system consists of the medullary substance of the brain, cerebellum, medulla oblongata, and spinalis; and of the same substance continued into the nerves by which it is distributed to many different parts of the body. The

whole of this syſtem ſeems to be properly diſtinguiſhed into theſe four parts.

1. The medullary ſubſtance contained in the cranium and vertebral cavity; the whole of which ſeems to conſiſt of diſtinct fibres, but without the ſmaller fibres being ſeparated from each other by any evident enveloping membranes.

2. Connected with one part or other of this ſubſtance are, the *nerves*, in which the ſame medullary ſubſtance is continued, but here more evidently divided into fibres, each of which is ſeparated from the others by an enveloping membrane derived from the pia mater.

3. Parts of the extremities of certain nerves, in which the medullary ſubſtance is diveſted of the enveloping membranes from the pia mater, and ſo ſituated as to be expoſed to the action of certain external bodies, and perhaps ſo framed as to be affected by the action of certain bodies only: theſe are named the *ſentient extremities* of the nerves.

4. Certain extremities of the nerves ſo framed as to be capable of a peculiar contractility; and, in conſequence of their ſituation and attachments, to be, by their contraction, capable of moving moſt of the ſolid and fluid parts of the body. Theſe are named the *moving extremities* of the nerves: They are commonly named *moving* or *muſcular fibres*.

Theſe ſeveral parts of the nervous ſyſtem are every where the ſame continuous medullary ſubſtance which is ſuppoſed to be the vital ſolid of animals, ſo conſtituted in living animals, and in living ſyſtems only, as to admit of motions being readily propagated from any one part to every other part of the nervous ſyſtem, ſo long as the continuity and natural living ſtate of the medullary ſubſtance remains. In the living man, there is an immaterial thinking ſubſtance, or *mind*, conſtantly preſent, and every phenomenon of thinking is to be conſidered as an affection or faculty of the mind alone. But this immaterial and thinking part of man is ſo connected with the material and corporeal part of him, and particularly with the nervous ſyſtem, that motions excited in this give occaſion to thought, and thought, however occaſioned, gives occaſion to new motions in the nervous ſyſtem. This mutual communication or influence is aſſumed with confidence as a fact: but the mode of it we do not underſtand, nor pretend to explain; and therefore are not bound to obviate the difficulties that attend any of the ſuppoſitions which have been made concerning it. The phenomena of the nervous ſyſtem occur commonly in the following order. The impulſe of external bodies acts upon the ſentient extremities of the nerves; and this gives occaſion to perception or thought, which, as firſt ariſing in the mind, is termed *ſenſation*. This ſenſation, according to its various modification, gives occaſion to *volition*, or the willing of certain ends to be obtained by the motion of certain parts of the body; and this volition gives occaſion to the contraction of muſcular fibres, by which the motion of the part required is produced. As the impulſe of bodies on the ſentient extremities of a nerve does not occaſion any ſenſation, unleſs the nerve between the ſentient extremity and the brain be free, and as, in like manner, volition does not produce any contraction of muſcles, unleſs the nerve between the brain and muſcle be alſo free, it is concluded, from both theſe facts, that ſenſation and volition, ſo far as they are connected with corporeal motions, are functions of the brain alone; and it is preſumed, that ſenſation ariſes only in conſequence of external impulſe producing motion in the ſentient extremities of the

nerves, and of that motion's being thence propagated along the nerves to the brain; and, in like manner, that the will operating in the brain only, by a motion begun there, and propagated along the nerves, produces the contraction of muſcles. From what is now ſaid, we perceive more diſtinctly the different functions of the ſeveral parts of the nervous ſyſtem as diſtinguiſhed in, 1. The ſentient extremities ſeem to be particularly fitted to receive the impreſſions of external bodies; and, according to the difference of theſe impreſſions, and of the condition of the ſentient extremity itſelf, to propagate along the nerves motions of a determined kind, which, communicated to the brain, give occaſion to ſenſation. 2. The brain ſeems to be a part fitted for, and ſuſceptible of, thoſe motions with which ſenſation, and the whole conſequent operations of thought, are connected; and thereby is fitted to form a communication between the motions excited in the ſentient, and thoſe in conſequence ariſing in the moving extremities of the nerves, which are often remote and diſtant from each other. 3. The moving extremities are ſo framed as to be capable of contraction, and of having this contraction excited by motion propagated from the brain, and communicated to the contractile fibre. 4. The nerves, more ſtrictly ſo called, are to be conſidered as a collection of medullary fibres, each enveloped in its proper membrane, and thereby ſo ſeparated from every other, as hardly to admit of any communication of motion from any one to the others, and to admit only of motion along the continuous medullary ſubſtance of the ſame fibre, from its origin to the extremities, or contrarywiſe. From this view of the parts of the nervous ſyſtem, of their ſeveral functions and communication with each other, it appears, that the beginning of motion in the animal economy, is generally connected with ſenſation: and that the ultimate effects of ſuch motion are chiefly actions depending immediately upon the contraction of moving fibres, between which and the ſentient extremities the communication is by means of the brain.

NETTLE, COMMON. See *Urtica.*

NETTLE, DEAD. See *Lamium album.*

NEUROLOGY, (*Neurologia, æ*, f. νευρολογια; from νευρον, a nerve, and λογος, a diſcourſe). The doctrine of the nerves.

NEURŌSES, (*Neuroſis, is*, f. νευρωσις; from νευρον, a nerve). Nervous diſeaſes. The ſecond claſs of Cullen's noſology is ſo called; it comprehends affections of ſenſe and motion, diſturbed; without either idiopathic pyrexia, or topical diſeaſes.

NEUTRAL SALTS. Secondary ſalts. Under the name of neutral or ſecondary ſalts are comprehended ſuch matters as are compoſed of two primitive ſaline ſubſtances combined together. They are called neutral, becauſe they do not poſſeſs the characters of acid nor alkaline ſalts, which are primitive ſalts; ſuch are Epſom ſalts, alum, nitre, &c.

NICKEL. A mineral moſtly found united with ſulphur and arſenic. Its ores have a coppery red colour, and are almoſt always covered with a greeniſh gray efflorescence. It is very plentiful in Saxony.

NICOTIĀNA, (*Nicotiana, æ*, f. from Mr. Nicott, who firſt brought it into Europe.) Tobacco. The Virginian tobacco, *Nicotiana tabacum foliis lanceolato-ovatis ſeſſilibus decurrentibus, floribus acutis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Monogynia*, is the plant employed medicinally. It is a very active narcotic and ſternutatory. A decoction of the leaves is

much eſteemed in ſome diſeaſes of the ſkin, and it is by ſome ſaid to be a ſpecific againſt the itch. The fumes and the decoction are employed in obſtinate conſtipations of the bowels, and very frequently with ſucceſs; it is neceſſary, however, to caution the practitioner againſt an effect moſtly produced by its exhibition, namely, ſyncope, with cold ſweats; and in ſome inſtances, death.

NICOTIĀNA MINOR. *Tobacco anglicum. Priapeia. Hyoſciamus luteus.* Engliſh tobacco. This plant, *Nicotiana ruſtica* of Linnæus, is much weaker than the Virginian tobacco; the leaves are chiefly uſed to ſmoke vermin, though they promiſe, from their more gentle operation, to be a ſafer remedy in ſome caſes than the former.

NICOTIĀNA RUSTĬCA. The ſyſtematic name of the Engliſh tobacco. See *Nicotiana minor.*

NICOTIĀNA TABACUM. The ſyſtematic name of the tobacco plant. See *Nicotiana.*

NIGELLA, (*Nigella, æ*, f. *quaſi nigrella*; from *niger*, black, ſo named from its black ſeed). Devil in a buſh, or fennel flower. This plant, *Nigella ſativa* of Linnæus, was formerly employed medicinally as an expectorant and deobſtruent, but is now deſervedly fallen into diſuſe.

NIGELLA SATĪVA. The ſyſtematic name of the devil in a buſh. See *Nigella.*

NIGHT-MARE. *Incubus. Oneirodynia gravans.* The nervous or indiſpoſed perſons are oppreſſed during ſleep with a heavy preſſing ſenſation on the cheſt, by which reſpiration is impeded, or the circulation of blood intercepted, to ſuch a degree as to threaten ſuffocation. Frightful ideas are recollected on waking, which occupied the dreaming mind. Frequent attempts are made to *cry out*, but often without effect, and the horrors and agitations felt by the patient are inexpreſſibly frightful. The ſenſations generally originate in a large quantity of wind, or indigeſtible matter in the ſtomach of *ſupper eaters*, which preſſing the ſtomach againſt the diaphragm, impede reſpiration, or render it ſhort and convulſed. Inflated inteſtines may likewiſe produce ſimilar effects, or mental perturbations.

There is another ſpecies of nightmare mentioned by authors, which has a more dangerous tendency; and this ariſes from an impeded circulation of blood in the lungs, when lying down, or too great relaxation of the heart and its impelling powers. Epilepſy, apoplexy, or ſudden death, are ſometimes amongſt the conſequences of this ſpecies of diſturbed ſleep. Polypi in the large veſſels, aneuriſms, water in the thorax, pericardium, or lungs, empyema, &c. are amongſt the moſt dangerous cauſes. See *Oneirodynia.*

NIGHTSHADE, AMERICAN. See *Phytolacca decandria.*

NIGHTSHADE, DEADLY. See *Belladonna.*

NIGHTSHADE, GARDEN. See *Solanum.*

NIGHTSHADE, PALESTINE. See *Solanum ſanctum.*

NIGHTSHADE, WOODY. See *Dulcamara.*

NIHILUM ALBUM. See *Zincum calcinatum.*

NINSI RADIX. *Ninzin. Nindſin.* This root was long ſuppoſed to be the ſame as ginſing. It now appears, however, to be the produce of a different plant, the *Sium ninſi, foliis ſerratis, pinnatis; rameis ternatis* of Linnæus, poſſeſſing ſimilar though weaker properties than gingſeng.

NINZIN. See *Ninſi radix.*

NIPPLE. The ſmall projecting portion in the middle of the breaſts of men and women. It is much larger in the latter, and has opening in it

the excretory ducts of the lacteal glands.

NIPPLE WORT. See *Lampſana.*

NITRAS AMMONIĂCÆ. *Alkali volatile nitratum. Sal ammoniacus nitroſus. Ammonia nitrata.* Its virtues are irritating, diuretic, and deobſtruent; externally, it is reſolvent and ſialagogue.

NITRAS ARGENTI FUSUS. See *Argentum nitratum.*

NITRAS HYDRARGŸRI. *Hydrargyrum nitroſum.* Of this ſubſtance there are two preparations, the *cryſtallized* and the *acid* nitrate of quickſilver. Its cauſtic quality points out its irritating, emetic, diuretic, and alterative virtues. It is uſed in ſyphilis and phagedenic ulcers. The unguentum citrinum is prepared from it.

NITRAS POTASSÆ. See *Nitre.*

NITRAS POTASSÆ FUSUS. *Sal prunellæ. Nitrum tabulatum.* This ſalt, beſides the nitric acid and potaſh, contains a little ſulphuric acid.

NITRAS SODÆ. *Alkali minerale nitratum. Nitrum cubicum.* Its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of nitrate of potaſh, for which it may be ſafely ſubſtituted.

NITRATES, (*Nitras, tis,* m.). Neutral ſalts, formed by the union of the nitric acid with different baſes; as *nitrat of magneſia, nitrat of mercury,* &c.

NITRE, (*Nitrum, i,* n. νίτρον). *Nitras potaſſæ impurus.* Salt petre. A perfect neutral ſalt formed by the union of the nitrous acid with the fixed vegetable alkali. Its taſte is cooling, and it does not alter the colour of the ſyrup of violets. Nitre exiſts in large quantities in the earth, and is continually formed in inhabited places; it is found in great quantities upon walls which are ſheltered from the rain. It is of great uſe in the arts; it is the principal ingredient in gunpowder; and burned with different proportions of tartar, forms the ſubſtances called fluxes. It is of conſiderable importance in medicine, as a febrifuge, diuretic, and antiphlogiſtic remedy.

NITRITES, (*Nitris, tis,* m.). Salts formed by the combination of the nitrous acid with different baſes; thus, *nitrite of zinc, nitrite of ſilver,* &c.

NITROGEN GAZ. See *Azot.*

NOCTAMBULATION. Walking in the night when aſleep. See *Oneirodynia.*

NODDING CNICUS. The ſyſtematic name of this plant is *Cnicus cernuus* of Linnæus. In Siberia the tender ſtalks are firſt peeled and then boiled and eaten by the inhabitants.

NOLI ME TANGĔRE. A ſpecies of herpes that is very difficult to cure, is ſo termed by authors, becauſe it is exaſperated by moſt applications.

NOMÆ, (*Nomæ, arum,* f. from νεμω, to eat). Ulcers that ſometimes attack the cheek or vulva of young girls. They appear in the form of red and ſomewhat livid ſpots; are not attended with pyrexia, pain, or tumour, and in a few days become gangrenous.

NON-NATURALS. Under this term phyſicians comprehend air, meat and drink, ſleep and watching, motion and reſt, retention and excretion, and the affections of the mind.

NORLANDĬCÆ BACCÆ. The fruit of the *Rubus arctĭcus* of Linnæus, which this illuſtrious character found very grateful and refreſhing in his tour through the northern part of Sweden. In putrid fever, exanthematous diſeaſes, and ſcurvy, they promiſe to be like other ſummer fruits, very ſerviceable.

NOSE. *Naſus.* See *Nares.*

NOSOLOGY, (*Noſŏlogia, æ,* f. from νοσολογια; from νοσος, a diſeaſe, and λογος, a diſcourſe). The doctrine of the names of diſeaſes. Modern phyſicians underſtand by noſology the arrangement of diſeaſes in claſſes, ge-

nera, ſpecies, &c. The following are the approved arrangements of the ſeveral noſologiſts. That of Dr. Cullen is generally adopted in this country, and next to it the arrangement of Sauvage.

Synoptical view of the Claſſes, Orders, and Genera, according to the CULLENIAN *ſyſtem.*

CLASS I.—PYREXIÆ.

ORDER I. FEBRES.
§ 1. *Intermittentes.*
1. Tertiana
2. Quartana
3. Quotidiana
§ 2. *Continuæ.*
4. Synocha
5. Typhus
6. Synochus

ORDER II. PHLEGMASIÆ.
7. Phlogoſis
8. Ophthalmia
9. Phrenitis
10. Cynanche
11. Pneumonia
12. Carditis
13. Peritonitis
14. Gaſtritis
15. Enteritis
16. Hepatitis
17. Spleuitis
18. Nephritis
19. Cyſtitis
20. Hyſteritis
21. Rheumatiſmus
22. Odontalgia
23. Podagra
24. Arthropuoſis

ORDER III. EXANTHEMATA.
25. Variola
26. Varicella
27. Rubeola
28. Scarlatina
29. Peſtis.
30. Eryſipelas
31. Miliaria
32. Urticaria
33. Pemphigus
34. Aphthæ

ORDER IV. HÆMORRHAGIÆ.
35. Epiſtaxis
36. Hæmoptyſis
37. Hæmorrhois
38. Menorrhagia
39. Catarrhus
40. Dyſenteria

CLASS II.—NEUROSES.

ORDER I. COMATA.
41. Apoplexia
42. Paralyſis

ORDER II. ADYNAMIÆ.
43. Syncope
44. Dyſpepſia
45. Hypochondriaſis
46. Chloroſis

ORDER III. SPASMI.
47. Tetanus
48. Triſmus
49. Convulſio
50. Chorea
51. Raphania
52. Epilepſia
53. Palpitatio
54. Aſthma
55. Dyſpnœa
56. Pertuſſis
57. Pyroſis
58. Cholica
59. Cholera
60. Diarrhœa
61. Diabetes
62. Hyſteria
63. Hydrophobia

ORDER IV. VESANIA.
64. Amentia
65. Melancholia
66. Mania
67. Oneyrodynia

CLASS III.—CACHEXIÆ.

ORDER I.
MARCORES.
68. Tabes
69. Atrophia

ORDER II.
INTUMESCENTIÆ.
§ 1. *Adipoſæ.*
70. Polyſarcia
§ 2. *Flatuoſæ.*
71. Pneumatoſis
72. Tympanites
73. Phyſometra
§ 3. *Aquoſæ.*
74. Anaſarca
75. Hydrocephalus
76. Hydrorachitis
77. Hydrothorax
78. Aſcites
79. Hydrometa
80. Hydrocele
§ 4. *Solidæ.*
81. Phyſconia
82. Rachitis

ORDER III.
IMPETIGINES.
83. Scrophula
84. Syphilis
85. Scorbutus
86. Elephantiaſis
87. Lepra
88. Frambeſia
89. Tricoma
90. Icterus

CLASS IV.—LOCALES.

ORDER I.
DYSÆSTHESIÆ.
91. Caligo
92. Amauroſis
93. Dyſopia
94. Pſeudoblepſis
95. Dyſecoea
96. Paracuſis
97. Anoſmia
98. Agheuſtia
99. Anæſtheſia

ORDER II.
DYSOREXIÆ.
§ 1. *Appetitus erronei.*
100. Bulimia
101. Polydipſia
102. Pica
103. Satyriaſis
104. Nymphomania
105. Noſtalgia
§. 2. *Appetitus deficientes.*
106. Anorexia
107. Adipſia
108. Anaphrodiſia

ORDER III.
DYSCINESIÆ.
109. Aphonia
110. Mutitas
111. Paraphonia
112. Pſelliſmus
113. Strabiſmus
114. Dyſphagia
115. Contractura

ORDER IV.
APOCENOSES.
116. Profuſio
117. Ephidroſis
118. Epiphora
119. Ptyaliſmus
120. Enureſis
121. Gonorrhoea

ORDER V.
EPISCHESES.
122. Obſtipatio
123. Iſchuria
124. Dyſuria
125. Dyſpermatiſmus
126. Amenorrhoea

ORDER VI
TUMORES.
127. Aneuriſma
128. Varix
129. Ecchymoma
130. Schirrus
131. Cancer
132. Bubo
133. Sarcoma
134. Veruca
135. Clavus
136. Lupia
137. Ganglion
138. Hydatis
139. Hydarthrus
140. Exoſtoſis

ORDER VII.
ECTOPIÆ.
141. Hernia
142. Prolapſus
143. Luxatio

ORDER. VIII.
DIALYSES.
144. Vulnus
145. Ulcus
146. Herpes
147. Tinea
148. Pſora
149. Fractura
150. Caries

Synoptical view of the ſyſtem of SAUVAGES.

CLASS I. VITIA.

ORDER I. MACULÆ.

Genus 1. Leucoma
2. Vitiligo
3. Ephelis
4. Gutta roſea
5. Nævus
6. Ecchymoma

ORDER II. EFFLORESCENTIÆ.

7. Herpes
8. Epinictis
9. Pſydracia
10. Hidroa

ORDER III. PHYMATA.

11. Erythema
12. Œdema
13. Emphyſema
14. Scirrhus
15. Phlegmone
16. Bubo
17. Parotis
18. Furunculus
19. Anthrax
20. Cancer
21. Paronychia
22. Phimoſis

ORDER IV. EXCRESCENTIAE.

23. Sarcoma
24. Condyloma
25. Verruca
26. Pterygium
27. Hordeolum
28. Bronchocele
29. Exoſtoſis
30. Gibboſitas
31. Lordoſis

ORDER V. CYSTIDES.

32. Aneuriſma
33. Varix
34. Hydatis
35. Mariſca
36. Staphyloma
37. Lupia
38. Hydrarthus
39. Apoſtema
40. Exomphalus
41. Oſcheocele

ORDER VI. ECTOPIAE.

42. Exophthalmia
43. Blepharoptoſis
44. Hypoſtophyle
45. Paragloſſa

ORDER VI. ECTOPIAE.

46. Proptoma
47. Exania
48. Exocyſte
49. Hyſteroptoſis
50. Enterocele
51. Epiplocele
52. Gaſterocele
53. Hepatocele
54. Splenocele
55. Hyſterocele
56. Cyſtocele
57. Encephalocele
58. Hyſteroloxia
59. Parorchydium
60. Exarthrema
61. Diaſtaſis
62. Laxarthrus

ORDER VII. PLAGAE.

63. Vulnus
64. Punctura
65. Excoriatio
66. Contuſio
67. Fractura
68. Fiſſura
69. Ruptura
70. Amputatura
71. Ulcus
72. Exulceratio
73. Sinus
74. Fiſtula
75. Rhagus
76. Eſchara
77. Caries
78. Arthrocace

CLASS II. FEBRES.

ORDER I. CONTINUÆ.

79. Ephemera
80. Synocha
81. Synochus
82. Typhus
83. Hectica

ORDER II. REMITTENTES.

84. Amphimerina
85. Tritæophya
86. Tetartophya.

ORDER III. INTERMITTENTES.

87. Quotidiana
88. Tertiana
89. Quartana
90. Erratica

CLASS III. PHLEGMASIÆ.

Order I. EXAMTHEMATICÆ.

91. Peſtis
92. Variola
93. Pemphigus
94. Rubeola
95. Miliaris
96. Purpura
97. Eryſipelas
98. Scarlatina
99. Eſſera
100. Aphtha

Order II. MEMBRANACEÆ.

101. Phrenitis
102. Paraphreneſis
103. Pleuritis
104. Gaſtritis
105. Enteritis
106. Epiploitis
107. Metritis
108. Cyſtitis

Order III. PARENCHYMATOSÆ.

109. Cephalitis
110. Cynanche
111. Carditis
112. Peripneumonia
113. Hepatitis
114. Splenitis
115. Nephritis

CLASS IV. SPASMI.

Order I. TONICI PARTIALES.

116. Strabiſmus
117. Triſmus
118. Obſtipitas
119. Contractura
120. Crampus
121. Priapiſmus

Order II. TONICI GENERALES.

122. Tetanus
123. Catochus

Order III. CLONICI PARTIALES.

124. Nyſtagmus
125. Carphologia
126. Pandiculatio
127. Apomyttoſis
128. Convulſio
129. Tremor
130. Palpitatio
131. Claudicatio

Order IV. CLONICI GENERALES.

132. Rigor
133. Eclampſia
134. Epilepſia
135. Hyſteria
136. Scelotyrbe
137. Beriberia

CLASS V. ANHELATIONES.

Order I. SPASMODICÆ.

138. Ephialtes
139. Sternutatio
140. Oſcedo
141. Singultus
142. Tuſſis

Order II. OPPRESSIVÆ.

143. Stertor
144. Dyſpnœa
145. Aſthma
146. Orthopnœa
147. Angina
148. Pleurodyne
149. Rhuma
150. Hydrothorax
151. Empyema

CLASS VI. DEBILITATES.

Order I. DYSÆSTHESIÆ.

152. Cataracta
153. Caligo
154. Amblyopia
155. Amaurosis
156. Anosmia
157. Agheustia
158. Dysecœa
159. Paracusis
160. Cophosis
161. Anæsthesia

Order II. ANEPITHYMIÆ.

162. Anorexia
163. Anipsia
164. Anaphrodisia

Order III. DYSCINESIÆ.

165. Mutitas
166. Aphonia
167. Psellismus
168. Paraphonia
169. Paralysis
170. Hemiplegia
171. Paraplexia

Order IV. LEIPOPSYCHIÆ.

172. Asthenia
173. Leipothymia
174. Syncope
175. Asphyxia

Order V. COMATA.

176. Catalepsis
177. Ecstasis
178. Typhomania
179. Lethargus
180. Cataphora
181. Carus
182. Apoplexia

CLASS VII. DOLORES.

Order I. VAGI.

183. Arthritis
184. Ostocopus
185. Rhumatismus
186. Catarrhus
187. Anxietas
188. Lassitudo
189. Stupor
190. Pruritus
191. Algor
192. Ardor

Order II. CAPITIS.

193. Cephalalgia
194. Cephalæa
195. Hemicrania
196. Ophthalmia
197. Otalgia
198. Odontalgia

Order III. PECTORIS.

199. Dysphagia
200. Pyrosis
201. Cardiogmus

Order IV. ABDOMINALES INTERNI.

202. Cardialgia
203. Gastrodynia
204. Colica
205. Hepatalgia
206. Splenalgia
207. Nephralgia
208. Dystocia
209. Hysteralgia

Order V. EXTERNI ET ARTUUM.

210. Mastodynia
211. Rachialgia
212. Lumbago
213. Ischias
214. Proctalgia
215. Pudendagra

CLASS VIII. VESANIAE.

Order I. HALLUCINATIONES.

216. Vertigo
217. Suffusio
218. Diplopia
219. Syrogmos
220. Hypochondriasis
221. Somnambulismus

Order II. MOROSITATES.

222. Pica
223. Bulimia
224. Polydipsia
225. Antipathia
226. Nostalgia
227. Panophobia
228. Satyriasis
229. Nymphomania

230. Tarantiſmus
231. Hydrophobia

ORDER III.
DELIRIA.
232. Paraphroſyne
233. Amentia
234. Melancholia
235. Mania
236. Demonomania

ORDER IV.
VESANIAE ANOMALAE.
237. Amneſia.
238. Agrypnia.

CLASS IX. FLUXUS.

ORDER I.
SANGUIFLUXUS.
239. Hæmorrhagia
240. Hæmoptoſis
241. Stomacace
242. Hæmatemeſis
243. Hæmaturia
244. Menorrhagia
245. Abortus
250. Nauſea
251. Vomitus
252. Ileus
253. Cholera
254. Diarrhæa
255. Cæliaca
256. Lienteria
257. Teneſmus

ORDER II.
ALVIFLUXUS.
246. Hepatirrhœa
247. Hæmorrhois
248. Dyſenteria
249. Melæna

ORDER III.
SERIFLUXUS.
258. Ephidroſis
259. Epiphora
260. Coryza
261. Ptyaliſmus
262. Anacatharſis
263. Diabetes
264. Eneureſis
265. Dyſuria
266. Pyuria
267. Leucorrhœa
268. Gonorrhœa
269. Dyſpermatiſmus
270. Galactirrhœa
271. Octorrhœa

ORDER IV.
AERIFLUXUS.
272. Flatulenta
273. Aedopſophia
274. Dyſodia

CLASS X. CACHEXIAE.

ORDER I.
MACIES.
275. Tabes
276. Phthiſis
277. Atrophia
278. Aridura

ORDER II.
INTUMESCENTIAE.
279. Polyſarcia
280. Pneumatoſis
281. Anaſarca
282. Phlegmatia
283. Phyſconia
284. Graviditas

ORDER III.
HYDROPES PARTIALES.
285. Hydrocephalus
286. Phyſocephalus
287. Hydrorachitis
288. Aſcites
289. Hydrometra
290. Phyſometra
291. Tympanites
292. Metroriſmus
293. Iſchuria

ORDER IV.
TUBERA.
294. Rachitis
295. Scrophula
296. Carcinoma
297. Leontiaſis
298. Malis
299. Frambœſia

ORDER V.
IMPETIGINES.
300. Syphilis
301. Scorbutus
302. Elephantiaſis
303. Lepra
304. Scabies
305. Tinea

ORDER VI.
ICTERITIAE.
306. Aurigo
307. Melaſicterus.
308. Phænigmus
509. Chloroſis

ORDER VII.
CACHEXIAE ANOMALAE.
310. Phthiriaſis
311. Trichoma
312. Alopecia
313. Eleoſis
314. Gangræna
315. Necroſis

Synoptical view of the syſtem of LINNÆUS.

CLASS I. EXANTHEMATICI.

ORDER I. CONTAGIOSI.
1. Morta
2. Peſtis
3. Variola
4. Rubeola
5. Petechia
6. Syphilis

ORDER II. SPORADICI.
7. Miliaria
8. Uredo
9. Aphtha.

ORDER III. SOLITARII.
10. Eryſipelas.

CLASS II. CRITICI.

ORDER I. CONTINENTES.
11. Diaria
12. Synocha
13. Synochus
14. Lenta

ORDER II. INTERMITTENTES.
15. Quotidiana
16. Tertiana
17. Quartana
18. Duplicana
19. Errana

ORDER III. EXACERBANTES.
20. Amphimerina
21. Tritæus
22. Tetartophia
23. Hemitritæa
24. Hectica

CLASS III. PHLOGISTICI.

ORDER I. MEMBRANACEI.
25. Phrenitis
26. Paraphreneſis
27. Pleuritis
28. Gaſtritis
29. Enteritis
30. Proctitis
31. Cyſtitis

ORDER II. PARENCHYMATICI.
32. Sphaceliſmus
33. Cynanche
34. Peripneumonia
35. Hepatitis
36. Splenitis
37. Nephritis
28. Hyſteritis

ORDER III. MUSCULOSI.
39. Phlegmone

CLASS IV. DOLOROSI.

ORDER I. INTRINSECI.
40. Cephalalgia
41. Hemicrania
42. Gravedo
43. Ophthalmia
44. Otalgia
45. Odontalgia
46. Angina
47. Soda
48. Cardialgia
49. Gaſtrica

50. Colica
51. Hepatica
52. Splenica
53. Pleuritica
54. Pneumonica
55. Hyſteralgia
56. Nephritica
57. Dyſuria
58. Pudendagra
59. Proctica

ORDER II.
EXTRINSECI.

60. Arthritis
61. Oſtocopus
62. Rheumatiſmus
63. Volatica
64. Pruritus

CLASS V. MENTALES.

ORDER I.
IDEALES.

65. Delirium
66. Paraphroſyne
67. Amentia
68. Mania
69. Dæmonia
70. Veſania
71. Melancholia

ORDER II.
IMAGINARII.

72. Syringmos
73. Phantaſma
74. Vertigo
75. Panophobia
76. Hypochondriaſis
77. Somnambuliſmus

ORDER III.
PATHETICI.

78. Citta
79. Bulimia
80. Polydipſia
81. Satyriaſis
82. Erotomania
83. Noſtalgia
84. Tarantiſmus
85. Rabies
86. Hydrophobia
87. Cacoſitia
88. Antipathia
89. Anxietas

CLASS VI. QUIETALES.

ORDER I.
DEFECTIVI.

90. Laſſitudo
91. Languor
92. Aſthenia
93. Lipothymia
94. Syncope
95. Aſphyxia

ORDER II.
SOPOROSI.

96. Somnolentia
97. Typhomania
98. Lethargus
99. Cotaphora
100. Carus
101. Apoplexia
102. Paraplegia
103. Hemiplegia
104. Paralyſis
105. Stupor.

ORDER III.
PRIVATIVI.

106. Moroſis
107. Oblivio
108. Ambliopia
109. Cataracta
110. Amauroſis
111. Scotomia
112. Cophoſis
113. Anoſmia
114. Ageuſtia
115. Aphonia
116. Anorexia
117. Adipſia
118. Anæſtheſia
119. Atecnia
120. Atonia

CLASS VII. MOTORII.

ORDER I.
SPASTICI.

121. Spaſmus
122. Priapiſmus.
123. Borborygmos
124. Triſmos
125. Sardiaſis
126. Hyſteria
127. Tetanus
128. Catochus
129. Catalepſis
130. Agrypnia

ORDER II.
AGITATORII.

131. Tremor
132. Palpitatio
133. Orgaſmus
134. Subſultus
135. Carpologia.

136. Stridor
137. Hippos
138. Pſelliſmus
139. Chorea
140. Beriberi

ORDER II.
AGITATORII.
141. Rigor
142. Convulſio

143. Epilepſia
144. Hieranoſus
145. Raphania

CLASS VIII. SUPPRESSORII.

ORDER I.
SUFFOCATORII.
146. Raucedo
147. Vociferatio
148. Riſus
149. Fletus
150. Suſpirium
151. Oſcitatio
152. Pandiculatio
153. Singultus
154. Sternutatio

155. Tuſſis
156. Stertor
157. Anhelatio
158. Suffocatio
159. Empyema
160. Dyſpnœa
161. Aſthma
162. Orthopnœa
163. Ephialtes

ORDER II.
CONSTRICTORII.
164. Aglutitio
165. Flatulentia
166. Obſtipatio
167. Iſchuria
168. Dyſmenorrhœa
169. Dyſlochia
170. Aglactatio
171. Sterilitas

CLASS IX. EVACUATORII.

ORDER I.
CAPITIS.
172. Otorrhœa
173. Epiphora
174. Hæmorrhagia
175. Coryza
176. Stomacace
177. Ptyaliſmus

ORDER II.
THORACIS.
178. Screatus
179. Expectoratio
180. Hæmoptyſis
181. Vomica

ORDER III.
ABDOMINIS.
182. Ructus

183. Nauſea
184. Vomitus
185. Hæmatemeſis
186. Iliaca
187. Cholera
188. Diarrhœa
189. Lienteria
190. Cœliaca
191. Cholirica
192. Dyſenteria
193. Hæmorrhois
194. Teneſmus
195. Crepitus.

ORDER IV.
GENITALIUM
196. Enureſis
197. Stranguria

198. Diabetes
199. Hæmaturia
200. Glus
201. Gonorrhœa

ORDER IV.
GENITALIUM.
202. Leucorrhœa
203. Menorrhagia
204. Parturitio
205. Abortus
206. Mola

ORDER V.
CORPORIS EXTERNI.
207. Galactia
208. Sudor

CLASS X. DEFORMES.

ORDER I.
EMACIANTES.
209. Phthiſis
210. Tabes

211. Atrophia
212. Maraſmus
213. Rachitis

ORDER II.
TUMIDOSI.
214. Polyſarcia

215. Leucophlegmatia
216. Anaſarca
217. Hydrocephalus
218. Aſcites
219. Hypoſarca
220. Tympanites
221. Graviditas

ORDER III.
DECOLORES.

222. Cachexia
223. Chloroſis
224. Scorbutus
225. Icterus
226. Plethora

CLASS XI. VITIA.

ORDER I.
HUMORALIA.

227. Aridura
228. Digitium
229. Emphyſema
230. Oedema
231. Sugillatio
232. Inflammatio
233. Abſceſſus
234. Gangrena
235. Sphacelus

ORDER II.
DIALYTICA.

236. Fractura
237. Luxatura
238. Ruptura
239. Contuſura
240. Profuſio
241. Vulnus
242. Amputatura
243. Laceratura
244. Punctura
245. Morſura
246. Combuſtura
247. Excoriatura
248. Intertrigo
249. Rhagas

ORDER III.
EXULCERATIONES.

250. Ulcus.
251. Cacoethes
252. Noma
253. Carcinoma
254. Ozena
255. Fiſtula
256. Caries
257. Arthrocace
258. Cocyta
259. Paronychia
260. Pernio
261. Preſſura
262. Arctura

ORDER IV.
SCABIES.

263. Lepra
264. Tinea
265. Achor
266. Pſora
267. Lippitudo
268. Serpigo
269. Herpes
270. Varus
271. Bacchia
272. Bubo
273. Anthrax
274. Phlyctæna
275. Puſtula
276. Papula
277. Hordeolum
278. Verruca
279. Clavus
280. Myrmecium
281. Eſchara

ORDER V.
TUMORES PROTUBERANTES.

282. Aneuriſma
283. Varix
284. Schirrus
285. Struma
286. Atheroma
287. Anchyloſus
288. Ganglion
289. Natta
290. Spinola
291. Exoſtoſis

ORDER VI.
PROCIDENTIAE

292. Hernia
293. Prolapſus
294. Condyloma
295. Sarcoma
296. Pterygium
297. Ectropium
298. Phimoſis
299. Clitoriſmus

ORDER VII.
DEFORMATIONE

300. Contractura
301. Gibber
302. Lordoſis
303. Diſtortio
304. Tortura
305. Strabiſmus
306. Lagophthalmia
307. Nyctalopia
308. Preſbytia
309. Myopia
310. Labarium
311. Lagoſtoma
312. Apella
313. Atreta
314. Plica
315. Hirſuties
316. Alopecia
317. Trichiaſis

ORDER VIII. MACULAE.

318. Cicatrix
319. Nævus
320. Morphæa
321. Vibex
322. Sudamen
323. Melasma
324. Hepatizon
325. Lentigo
326. Ephelis

Synoptical view of the system of VOGEL:

CLASS I. FEBRES.

ORDER I. INTERMITTENTES.

1. Quotidiana
2. Tertiana
3. Quartana
4. Quintana
5. Sextana
6. Septana
7. Octana
8. Nonana
9. Decimana
10. Vaga
11. Menstrua
12. Tertiana duplex
13. Quartana duplex
14. Quartana triplex

ORDER II. CONTINUAE.

§ 1. *Simplices.*

15. Quotidiana
16. Synochus
17. Amatoria
18. Phrenitis
19. Epiala
20. Causos
21. Elodes
22. Lethargus
23. Typhomania
24. Leipyria
25. Phricodes
26. Lyngodes
27. Assodes
28. Cholerica
29. Synchopalis
30. Hydrophobia
31. Oscitans
32. Ictericodes
33. Pestilentialis
34. Siriasis

§ 2. *Compositæ.*

¶ 1. *Exanthematicæ.*

35. Varioloſa
36. Morbilloſa
37. Miliaris
38. Petechialis
39. Scarlatina
40. Urtica
41. Bulloſa
42. Varicella
43. Pemphingodes
44. Aphthoſa

¶ 2. *Inflammatoriæ.*

45. Phreniſmus
46. Chemoſis
47. Ophthalmites
48. Otites
49. Angina
50. Pleuritis
51. Peripneumonia
52. Mediaſtina
53. Pericarditis
54. Carditis
55. Paraphrenitis
56. Gaſtritis
57. Enteritis
58. Hepatitis
59. Splenitis
60. Meſenteritis
61. Omentitis
62. Peritonitis
63. Myocolitis
64. Pancreatica
65. Nephritis
66. Ciſtitis
67. Hyſteritis
68. Eryſipelacea
69. Podagrica
70. Panaritia
71. Cyſſotis

¶ 3. *Symptomatica.*

72. Apoplectica
73. Catarrhalis
74. Rheumatica
75. Hæmorrhoidalis
76. Lactea
77. Vulneraria
78. Suppuratoria
79. Lenta
80. Hectica

CLASS II. PROFLUVIA.

Order I. HAEMORRHAGIAE.

81. Hæmorrhagia
82. Epiſtaxis
83. Hæmoptoe
84. Hæmoptyſis
85. Stomacace
86. Odontirrhœa
87. Otorrhœa
88. Ophthalmorrhagia
89. Hæmatemeſis
90. Hepatirrhœa
91. Catarrhexis
92. Hæmaturia
93. Cyſtirrhagia
94. Stymatoſis
95. Hæmatopedeſis
96. Menorrhagia
97. Abortio

Order II. APOCENOSES.

98. Catarrhus
99. Epiphora
100. Coryza
101. Otopuoſis
102. Otoplatos
103. Ptyaliſmus
104. Vomica
105. Diarrhæa
106. Puorrhæa
107. Dyſenteria
108. Lienteria
109. Cœliaca
110. Cholera
111. Pituitaria
112. Leucorrhois
113. Eneureſis
114. Diureſis
115. Diabetes
116. Puoturia
117. Chylaria
118. Gonorrhœa
119. Leucorrhœa
120. Exoneiroſis
121. Hydropedeſis
122. Galactia
123. Hypercatharſis
124. Ecphyſe
125. Dyſodia

CLASS III. EPISCHESES.

126. Gravedo
127. Flatulentia
128. Obſtipatio
129. Iſchuria
130. Amenorrhœa
131. Dyſlochia
132. Deuteria
133. Agalaxis

CLASS IV. DOLORES.

134. Anxietas
135. Bleſtriſmus
136. Pruritus
137. Catapſyxis
138. Rheumatiſmus
139. Arthritis
140. Cephalalgia
141. Cephalæa
142. Clavus
143. Hemicrania
144. Carebaria
145. Odontalgia
146. Hæmodia
147. Odaxiſmus
148. Otalgia
149. Acatapoſis
150. Cionis
151. Himantoſis
152. Cardiogmus
153. Maſtodynia
154. Soda
155. Periadynia
156. Pneumatoſis
157. Cardiaglia
158. Encauſis
159. Nauſea
160. Colica
161. Eilema
162. Ileus
163. Stranguria
164. Dyſuria
165. Lithuriaſis
166. Teneſmus
167. Cluneſia
168. Cedma
169. Hyſteralgia
170. Dyſmenorrhœa
171. Dyſtochia
172. Atocia
173. Priapiſmus
174. Pſoriaſis
175. Podagra
176. Oſteocopus
177. Pſophos
178. Volatica
179. Epiphlogiſma

CLASS V. SPASMI.

180. Tetanus
181. Opiſthotonus
182. Epiſthotonus
183. Catochus
184. Tremor
185. Frigus
186. Horror
187. Rigor
188. Epilepſia
189. Heclampſia
190. Hieranoſus
291. Convulſio
192. Raphania
193. Chorea
194. Crampus
195. Scelerotyrbe
196. Angone
197. Gloſſocele
198. Gloſſocoma
199. Hippos
200. Illoſis
201. Cincleſis
202. Cataclaſis
203. Cilloſis
204. Sternutatio
205. Tuſſis
206. Clamor
207. Triſmus
208. Capiſtrum
209. Sardiaſis
210. Gelaſmus
211. Incubus
212. Singultus
213. Palpitatio
214. Vomitus
215. Ructus
216. Ruminatio
217. Oeſophagiſmus
218. Hypochondriaſis
219. Hyſteria
220. Phlogoſis
221. Digitium.

CLASS VI. ADYNAMIAE.

222. Laſſitudo
223. Aſthenia
224. Torpor
225. Adynamia
226. Paralyſis
227. Paraplegia
228. Hemiplegia
229. Apoplexia
230. Catalepſis
231. Carus
232. Coma
233. Somnolentia
234. Hypophaſis
235. Ptoſis
236. Amblyopia
237. Mydriaſis
238. Amauroſis
239. Cataracta
240. Synizezis
241. Glaucoma
242. Achlys
243. Nyctalopia
244. Hermeralopia
245. Hemalopia
246. Dyſicoia
247. Surditas
248. Anoſmia
249. Apogeuſis
250. Aſaphia
251. Clangor
252. Raucitas
253. Aphonia
254. Leptophonia
255. Oxyphonia
256. Rhenophonia
257. Mutitas
258. Traulotis
259. Pſellotis
260. Iſchnophonia
261. Battariſmus
262. Suſpirium
263 Oſcitatio
264. Pandiculatio
265. Apnæa
266. Macropnœa
267. Dyſpnœa
268. Aſthma
269. Orthopnœa
270. Pnigma
271. Renchus
272. Rhochmos
273. Lipothymia
274 Syncope
275. Aſphyxia
276. Apepſia
277. Dyſpepſia
278. Diaphthora
279. Anorexia
280. Anatrope
281. Adypſia
282. Acyiſis
283. Ageneſia
284. Anodynia

CLASS VII. HYPAERESTHESES.

285. Antipathia
286. Agrypnia
287. Phantaſma
288. Caligo
289. Hæmalopia
290. Marmaryge
291. Dyſopia
292. Suſurrus
293. Vertigo

294. Apogeuſia
295. Polydipſia
296. Bulimus
297. Addephagia
298. Cynorexia
299. Allotriophagia
300. Malacia
301. Pica
302. Bombus
303. Celſa

CLASS VIII. CACHEXIÆ.

304. Cachexia
305. Chloroſis
306. Icterus
307. Melanchlorus
308. Atrophia
309. Tabes
310. Phthiſis
311. Hydrothorax
312. Rachitis
313. Anaſarca
314. Aſcites
315. Hydrocyſtis
316. Tympanites
317. Hyſterophyſe
318. Scorbutus
319 Syphilis
320. Lepra
321. Elephantiaſis
322. Elephantia
323. Plica
324. Phthiriaſis
325. Phyſconia
326. Paracyiſis
327. Gangræna
328. Sphacelus

CLASS IX. PARANOIÆ.

329. Athymia
330. Delirium
331. Mania
332. Melancholia
333. Ecſtaſis
334. Ecplexis
335. Enthuſiaſmus
336. Stupiditas
337. Amentia
338. Oblivio
339. Somnium
340. Hypnobataſis

CLASS X. VITIA.

Order I. INFLAMMATIONES.

341. Ophthalmia
342. Blepharotis
343. Eryſipelas
344. Hieropyr
345. Paronychia
346. Onychia
347. Encauſis
348. Phimoſis
349. Paraphimoſis
350. Pernio

Order II. TUMORES.

351. Plegmone
352. Furunculus
353. Anthrax
354. Abſceſſus
355. Onyx
356. Hippopyon
357. Phygethlon
358. Empyema
359. Phyma
360. Ecthymata
361. Urticaria
362. Parulis
363. Epulis
364. Anchylops
365. Paragloſſa
366. Chilon
367. Scrophula
368. Bubon
369. Bronchocele
370. Parotis
371. Gongrona
372. Sparganoſis
373. Coilima
374. Scirrhus
375. Cancer
376. Sarcoma
377. Polypus
378. Condyloma
379. Ganglion
380. Ranula
381. Terminthus
382. Oedema
383. Encephalocele
384. Hydrocephalum
385. Hydrophthalmia
386. Spina bifida
387. Hydromphalus
388. Hydrocele
389. Hydrops Scroti
390. Steatites
391. Pneumatoſis
392. Emphyſema
393. Hyſteroptoſis
394. Cyſtoptoſis
395. Archoptoma
396. Bubonocele
397. Oſcheocele
398. Omphalocele
399. Merocele
400. Enterocele ovularis

401. Ischiatocele
402. Elytrocele
403. Hypogastrocele
404. Cystocele
405. Cyrtoma
406. Hydrenterocele
407. Varix
408. Aneurisma
409. Cirsocele
410. Gastrocele
411. Hepatocele
412. Splenocele
413. Hysterocele
414. Hygrocirsocele
415. Sarcocele
416. Physcocele
417. Exostoses
418. Hyperostosis
419. Pædarthrocace
420. Encystis
421. Staphyloma
422. Staphylosis
423. Fungus
424. Tofus
425. Flemen

ORDER III.
EXTUBERANTIÆ.
426. Verruca
427. Porrus
428. Clavus
429. Callus
430. Encanthis
431. Pladarotis
432. Pinnula
433. Pterygium
434. Hordeolum
435. Grando
436. Varus
437. Gutta rosacea
438. Ephelis
439. Esoche
440. Exoche

ORDER IV.
PUSTULÆ and PAPULÆ.
441. Epinyctis
442. Phlyctæna
443. Herpes
444. Scabies
445. Aquula
446. Hydroa
447. Variola
448. Varicella
449. Purpura
450. Encauma

ORDER V.
MACULÆ.
451. Ecchymoma
452. Petechiæ
453. Morbilli
454. Scarlatæ
455. Lentigo
456. Urticaria
457. Stigma
458. Vibex
459. Vitiligo
460. Leuce
461. Cyasma
462. Lichen
463. Selina
464. Nebula.

ORDER VI.
DISSOLUTIONES.
465. Vulnus
466. Ruptura
467. Rhagas
468. Fractura
469. Fissura
470. Plicatio
471. Thlasis
472. Luxatio
473. Subluxatio
474. Diachalasis
475. Attritis
476. Porrigo
477. Apostyrma
478. Anapleusis
479. Spasma
480. Coptusio
481. Diabrosis
482. Agomphiasis
483. Eschara
484. Piptonychia
485. Cacoethes
486. Therioma
487. Carcinoma
488. Phagedæna
489. Noma
490. Sycosis
491. Fistula
492. Sinus
493. Caries
494. Achores
495. Crusta lactea
496. Favus
497. Tinea
498. Argemon
499. Ægilops
500. Ozæna
501. Aphthæ
502. Intertrigo
503. Rhacosis

ORDER VII.
CONCRETIONES.
504. Ancyloblepharon
505. Zynizesis
506. Dacrymoma
507. Ancyloglossum
508. Ancylosis
509. Cicatrix
510. Dactylion

CLASS XI. DEFORMITATES.

511. Phoxos
512. Gibber
513. Caput obstipum
514. Strabismus
515. Myopiasis
516. Lagophthalmus
517. Trichiasis
518. Ectropium
519. Entropium
520. Rhœas
521. Rhyssemata
522. Lagocheilos
523. Melachosteon
524. Hirsuties
525. Canities

526. Diſtrix
527. Xiraſia
528. Phalacrotis
529. Alopecia
530. Madaroſis
531. Ptiloſis
532. Rodatio
533. Phalangoſis
534. Coloboma
535. Cercoſis
536 Choloſis
537. Grypoſis
538. Nævus
539. Monſtroſitas
540. Polyſarcia
541. Iſchnotis
542. Rhicnoſis
543. Varus
544. Valgus
545. Leiopodes
546. Apella
547. Hypoſpadiæos
548. Urorhœas
549. Atreta
550. Saniodes
551. Cripſorchis
552. Hermaphrodites
553. Dionyſiſcus
554. Artetiſcus
555. Nefrendis
556. Spanopogon
557. Hyperartetiſcus
558. Galiancon
559. Galbulus
560. Mola

A Synoptical View of the Syſtem of SAGAR.

CLASS I. VITIA.

ORDER I.
MACULÆ.

1. Leucoma
2. Vitiligo
3. Ephelis
4. Nævus
5. Ecchymoma

ORDER II.
EFFLORESCENTIÆ.

6. Puſtula
7. Papula
8. Phlyctʜæna
9. Bacchia
10. Varus
11. Herpes
12. Epinyctis
13. Hemeropathos
14. Hydracia
15. Hydroa

ORDER III.
PHYMATA.

16. Erythema
17. Oedema
18. Emphyſema
19. Scirrhus
20. Inflammatio
21. Bubo
22. Parotis
23. Farunculus
24. Anthrax
25. Cancer
26. Paronychia
27. Phimoſis

ORDER IV.
EXCRESCENTIÆ.

28. Sarcoma
29. Condyloma
30. Verruca
31. Pterygium
32. Hordeolum
33. Trachelophyma
34. Exoſtoſis

ORDER V.
CYSTIDES.

35. Aneuryſma
36. Varix
37. Mariſca
38. Hydatis
39. Staphyloma
40. Lupia
41. Hydarthrus
42. Apoſtema
43. Exomphalus
44. Oſcheophyma

ORDER VI.
ECTOPIÆ.

45. Exophthalmia
46. Blepharoptoſis
47. Hypoſtaphyle
48. Paragloſſa
49. Proptoma
50. Exania
51. Exocyſtis
52. Hyſteroptoſis
53. Colpoptoſis
54. Gaſtrocele
55. Omphalocele
56. Hepatocele
57. Merocele
58. Bubonocele
59. Opodeocele
60. Iſchiocele
61. Colpocele
62. Perinæocele
63. Peritonæorixis

64. Encephalocele
65. Hyſteroloxia
66. Parorchydium
67. Exarthrema
68. Diaſtaſis
69. Loxarthrus
70. Gibboſitas
71. Lordoſis

ORDER VII.
DEFORMITATES.
72. Lagoſtoma
73. Apella
74. Polymeriſma
75. Epidoſis
76. Anchylomeriſma
77. Hirſuties

CLASS II. PLAGÆ.

ORDER I.
SOLUTIONES,
recentes, cruentæ.
78. Vulnus
79. Punctura
80. Sclopetoplaga
81. Morſus
82. Excoriatio
83. Contuſio
84. Ruptura

ORDER II.
SOLUTIONES,
recentes, cruentæ, artificiales.
85. Operatio
86. Amputatio
87. Sutura
88. Paracenteſis

ORDER III.
SOLUTIONES,
incruentæ.
89. Ulcus
90. Exulceratio
91. Fiſtula
92. Sinus
93. Eſchara
94. Caries
95. Arthrocace

ORDER IV.
SOLUTIONES,
anomalæ.
96. Rhagas
97. Ambuſtio
98. Fractura
99. Fiſſura

CLASS III. CACHEXIÆ.

ORDER I.
MACIES.
100. Tabes
101. Phthiſis
102. Atrophia
103. Hæmatoporia
104. Aridura

ORDER II.
INTUMESCENTIÆ.
105. Plethora
106. Polyſarcia
107. Pneumatoſis
108. Anaſarca
109. Phlegmatia
110. Phyſconia
111. Graviditas

ORDER III.
HYDROPES *partiales.*
112. Hydrocephalus
113. Phyſocephalus
114. Hydrorachitis
115. Aſcites
116. Hydrometra
117. Phyſometra
118. Tympanites
119. Meteoriſmus

ORDER IV.
TUBERA.
120. Rachitis
121. Scrophula
122. Carcinoma
123. Leontiaſis
124. Malis
125. Framboeſia

ORDER V.
IMPETIGINES.
126. Syphilis
127. Scorbutus
128. Elephantiaſis
129. Lepra
130. Scabies
131. Tinea

ORDER VI.
ICTERITIÆ.
132. Aurigo
133. Melaſicterus
134. Phœnigmus
135. Chloroſis

ORDER VII.
ANOMALE.
136. Phthiriaſis
137. Trichoma
138. Alopecia
139. Elcoſis
140. Gangræna
141. Neceroſis

CLASS IV. DOLORES.

Order I. VAGI.

142. Arthritis
143. Oſtocopus
144. Rheumatiſmus
145. Catarrhus
146. Anxietas
147. Laſſitudo
148. Stupor
149. Pruritus
150. Algor
151. Ardor

Order II. CAPITIS.

152. Cephalalgia
153. Cephalæa
154. Hemicrania
155. Ophthalmia
156. Otalgia
157. Odontalgia

Order III. PECTORIS.

158. Pyroſis
159. Cardiogmus

Order IV. ABDOMINIS.

160. Cardialgia
161. Gaſtrodynia
162. Colica
163. Hepatalgia
164. Splenalgia
165. Nephralgia
166. Hyſteralgia

Order V. EXTERNARUM.

167. Maſtodynia
168. Rachialgia
169. Lumbago
170. Iſchias
171. Proctalgia
172. Pudendagra
173. Digitium

CLASS V. FLUXUS.

Order I. SANGUIFLUXUS.

174. Hæmorrhagia
175. Hæmoptyſis
176. Stomacace
177. Hæmatemeſis
178. Hæmaturia
179. Metrorrhagia
180. Abortus

Order II. ALVIFLUXUS, *ſanguinolenti.*

181. Hepatirrhœa
182. Hæmorrhois
183. Dyſenteria
184. Melæna

Order III. ALVIFLUXUS, *non ſanguinolenti.*

185. Nauſea
186. Vomitus
187. Ileus
188. Cholera
189. Diarrhœa
190. Cœliaca
191. Lienteria
192. Teneſmus
193. Proctorrhœa

Order IV. SERIFLUXUS.

194. Ephidroſis
195. Epiphora
196. Coryza
197. Ptyaliſmus
198. Anacatharſis
199. Diabetes
200. Enureſis
201. Pyuria
202. Leucorrhœa
203. Lochiorrhœa
204. Gonorrhœa
205. Galactirrhœa
206. Otorrhœa

Order V. AERIFLUXUS.

207. Flatulentia
208. Aedopſophia
209. Dyſodia

CLASS VI. SUPPRESSIONES.

Order I. EGERENDORUM.

210. Adiapneuſtia
211. Sterilitas
212. Iſchuria
213. Dyſuria
214. Aglactatio
215. Dyſlochia

Order II. INGERENDORUM.

216. Dyſphagia
217. Angina

Order III. IMI VENTRIS.

218. Dyſmenorrhœa
219. Dyſtocia
220. Dyſhæmorrhois
221. Obſtipatio

CLASS VII. SPASMI.

Order I. TONICI PARTIALES.

222. Strabiſmus
223. Triſmus
224. Obſtipitas
225. Contractura
226. Crampus
227. Priapiſmus

Order II. TONICI GENERALES.

228. Tetanus
229. Catochus

Order III. CLONICI PARTIALES.

230. Nyſtagmus
231. Carphologia
232. Subſultus
233. Pandiculatio
234. Apomyſtoſis
235. Convulſio
236. Tremor
237. Palpitatio
238. Claudicatio

Order IV. CLONICI GENERALES.

239. Phricaſmus
240. Eclampſia
241. Epilepſia
242. Hyſteria
243. Scelotyrbe
244. Beriberia

CLASS VIII. ANHELATIONES.

Order I. SPASMODICÆ.

245. Ephialtes
246. Sternutatio
247. Oſcedo
248. Singultus
249. Tuſſis

Order II. SUPPRESSIVÆ.

250. Stertor
251. Dyſpnœa
252. Aſthma
253. Orthopnœa
254. Pleurodyne
255. Rheuma
256. Hydrothorax
257. Empyema

CLASS IX. DEBILITATES.

Order I. DYSÆSTHESIÆ.

258. Amblyopia
259. Caligo
260. Cataracta
261. Amauroſis
262. Anoſmia
263. Agheuſtia
264. Dyſecœa
265. Paracuſis
266. Cophoſis
267. Anæſtheſia

Order II. ANEPITHYMIÆ.

268. Anorexia
269. Adipſia
270. Anaphrodiſia

Order III. DYSCINESIÆ.

271. Mutitas
272. Aphonia
273. Pſelliſmus
274. Cacophonia
275. Paralyſis
276. Hemiplegia
277. Parapiexia

Order IV. LEIPOPSYCHIÆ.

278. Aſthenia
279. Lipothymia
280. Syncope
281. Aſphyxia

Order V. COMATA.

282. Catalepſis
283. Ecſtaſis
284. Typhomania
285. Lethargus
286. Cataphora
287. Carus
288. Apoplexia

CLASS X. EXANTHEMATA.

Order I. CONTAGIOSA.

289. Peſtis
290. Variola
291. Pemphigus
292. Purpura
293. Rubeola
294. Scarlatina

Order II. NON CONTAGIOSA.

295. Miliaris
296. Eryſipelas
297. Eſſera
298. Aphtha

CLASS XI. PHLEGMASIÆ.

Order I. MUSCULOSÆ.

299. Phlegmone
300. Cynanche
301. Myoſitis
302. Carditis

Order II. MEMBRANACEÆ.

303. Phrenitis
304. Diaphragmitis
305. Pleuritis
306. Gaſtritis
307. Enteritis
308. Epiploitis
309. Cyſtitis

Order III. PARENCHYMATOSÆ.

310. Cephalitis
311. Peripneumonia
312. Hepatitis
313. Splenitis
314. Nephritis
315. Metritis

CLASS XII. FEBRES.

Order I. CONTINUÆ.

316. Judicatoria
317. Humoraria
318. Frigeraria
319. Typhus
320. Hectica

Order II. REMITTENTES.

321. Amphimerina
322. Tritæophya
323. Tetartophya.

Order III. INTERMITTENTES.

324. Quotidiana
325. Tertiana
326. Quartana
327. Erratica

CLASS XIII. VESANIÆ.

Order I. HALLUCINATIONES.

328. Vertigo
329. Suffuſio
330. Diplopia
331. Syrigmos
332. Hypochondriaſis
333. Somnambuliſmus

Order II. MOROSITATES.

334. Pica
335. Bulimia
336. Polydipſia
337. Antipathia
338. Noſtalgia
339. Panophobia
340. Satyriaſis
341. Nymphomania
342. Tarantiſmus
343. Hydrophobia
344. Rabies

Order III. DELIRIA.

345. Paraphroſine
346. Amentia
347. Melancholia
348. Dæmonomania
349. Mania

Order IV. ANOMALÆ.

350. Amneſia
351. Agrypnia

Synoptical View of the Syſtem of DR. MACBRIDE.

CLASS I. UNIVERSAL DISEASES.

ORDER I.

FEVERS.

1. Continued
2. Intermittent
3. Remittent
4. Eruptive
5. Hectic

ORDER II.

INFLAMMATIONS.

6. External
7. Internal

ORDER III.

FLUXES.

8. Alvine
9. Hæmorrhage
10. Humoral diſcharge

ORDER IV.

PAINFUL DISEASES.

11. Gout
12. Rheumatiſm
13. Oſtocopus
14. Headach
15. Toothach
16. Earach
17. Pleurodyne
18. Pain in the ſtomach
19. Colic
20. Lithiaſis
21. Iſchuria
22. Proctalgia

ORDER V.

SPASMODIC DISEASES.

23. Tetanus
24. Catochus
25. Locked Jaw
26. Hydrophobia
27. Convulſion
28. Epilepſy
29. Ecclampſia
30. Hieranoſos

ORDER VI.

WEAKNESSES and PRIVATIONS.

31. Coma
32. Palſy
33. Fainting

ORDER VII.

ASTMATIC DISORDERS.

34. Dyſpnœa
35. Orthopnœa
36. Aſthma
37. Hydrothorax
38. Empyema

ORDER VIII.

MENTAL DISEAS.

39. Mania
40. Melancholia

ORDER IX.

CACHEXIES, or *Humoral Diſeaſes.*

41. Corpulency
42. Dropſy
43. Jaundice
44. Emphyema
45. Tympany
46. Phyſconia
47. Atrophia
48. Oſteoſarcoſis
49. Sarcoſtoſis
50. Mortification
51. Scurvy
52. Scrophula
53. Cancer
54. Lues Venerea

CLASS II. LOCAL DISEASES.

Order I.

OF THE INTERNAL SENSES.

55. Loſs of Memory
56. Hypochondriaſis
57. Loſs of Judgment

Order II.

OF THE EXTERNAL SENSES.

58. Blindneſs
59. Depraved ſight
60. Deafneſs
61. Depraved Hearing
62. Loſs of Smell
63. Depraved Smell
64. Loſs of Taſte
65. Depraved Taſte
66. Loſs of Feeling

Order III.

OF THE APPETITES.

67. Anorexia
68. Cynorexia
69. Pica
70. Polydipſia
71. Satyriaſis
72. Nymphomania
73. Anaphrodiſia

Order IV.

OF THE SECRETIONS AND EXCRETIONS.

74. Epiphora
75. Coryza
76. Ptyaliſm
77. Anacatharſis
78. Otorrhœa
79. Diarrhœa
80. Incontinence of Urine
81. Pyuria
82. Dyſuria
83. Conſtipation
84. Teneſmus
85. Dyſodia
86. Flatulence
87. Œdoſophia

Order V.

IMPEDING DIFFERENT ACTIONS.

88. Aphonia
89. Mutitas
90. Paraphonia
91. Dyſphagia
92. Wryneck
93. Angone
94. Sneezing
95. Hiccup
96. Cough
97. Vomiting
98. Palpitation of the Heart
99. Chorea
100. Triſmus
101. Nyſtagmus
102. Cramp
103. Scelotyrbe
104. Contraction
105. Paralyſis
106. Anchyloſis
107. Gibboſitas
108. Lordoſis
109. Hydarthrus

Order VI.

OF THE EXTERNAL HABIT.

110. Tumour
111. Excreſcence
112. Aneuriſm
113. Varix
114. Papulæ
115. Phlyctænæ
116. Puſtulæ
117. Scabies, or Pſora
118. Impetigo
119. Leproſy
120. Elephantiaſis
121. Frambœſia
122. Herpes
123. Maculæ
124. Alopecia
125. Trichoma
126. Scald Head
127. Phthiriaſis

Order VII.

DISLOCATIONS.

128. Hernia
129. Prolapſus
130. Luxation

Order VIII.

SOLUTIONS OF CONTINUITY.

131. Wound
132. Ulcer
133. Fiſſure
134. Fiſtula
135. Burn or Scald
136. Excoriation
137. Fracture
138. Caries

CLASS III. SEXUAL DISEASES.

ORDER I.
GENERAL,
proper to Men.

139. Febris teſticularis
140. Tabes dorſalis
146. Paraphymoſis
147. Chryſtalline
148. Hernia humoralis
149. Hydrocele
150. Sarcocele
151. Cirſocele

ORDER II.
LOCAL,
proper to Men.

141. Dyſpermatiſmus
142. Gonorrhœa ſimplex
143. Gonorrhœa virulenta
144. Priapiſm
145. Phymoſis

ORDER III.
GENERAL,
proper to Women.

152. Amenorrhœa
153. Chloroſis
154. Leucorrhœa
155. Menorrhagia
156. Hyſteralgia
157. Graviditas
158. Abortus
159. Dyſtochia
160. Febris puerperalis
161. Maſtodynia

ORDER IV.
LOCAL,
proper to Women.

162. Hydrops ovarii
163. Scirrhus ovarii
164. Hydrometra
165. Phyſometra
166. Prolapſus uteri
167. ——— vaginæ
168. Polypus uteri

CLASS VI. INFANTILE DISEASES.

ORDER I.
GENERAL.

169. Colica meconialis
170. ——— lactentium
171. Diarrhœa infantum.
172. Aphthæ
173. Eclampſia
174. Atrophia
175. Rachitis

ORDER II.
LOCAL.

176. Imperforation
177. Anchylogloſſum
178. Aurigo
179. Purpura
180. Cruſta lactea

NOSTALGĬA, (*Noſtalgia, æ*, f, νοσταλγια; from νοσεω, to return, and αλγος, pain). A vehement deſire of reviſiting one's country. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *dyſorexiæ* of Cullen, known by impatience when abſent from one's native home, and a vehement deſire to return, attended with gloom and melancholy, loſs of appetite, and want of ſleep.

NUCHA, (*Nucha, æ*, f.). The hind part or nape of the neck.

NUCESTA. See *Nux moſchata.*

NUCLEUS, (*Nucleus, i*, m. *è nuce*, from the nut). A kernel. A fruit enclosed in a hard shell.

NUCŬLÆ SAPONARĬÆ. *Baccæ bermudenses.* Soap berries. Bermudas berries. A spherical fruit about the size of a cherry, whose cortical part is yellow, glossy, and so transparent as to show the spherical black nut which rattles within, and which includes a black kernel. It is the produce of the *Sapindus saponaria* of Linnæus. The cortical part has a bitter taste, and no smell; it raises a soapy froth with water, and has similar effects with soap in washing, and it is said to be a medicine of singular and specific virtue in chlorosis.

NUMMULARIA, (*Nummularia, æ*, f. from *nummus*, money; so called because its leaves are round and of the size of the old silver two-pence). *Herundinaria.* Moneywort. This plant, *Lysimachia nummularia* of Linnæus, is very common in our ditches. It was formerly accounted vulnerary; it possesses antiscorbutic and restringent qualities.

NUT, COCOA. The fruit of the *Cocos nucifera* of Linnæus. Within the nut is found a kernel, as pleasant as an almond, and also a large quantity of liquor resembling milk, which the Indians greedily drink before the fruit is ripe, it being then pleasant, but when the nut is matured, the liquor becomes sour. Some full-grown nuts will contain a pint or more of this milk, the frequent drinking of which seems to have no bad effects upon the Indians; yet Europeans should be cautious of making too free with it at first, for when Lionel Wafer was at a small island in the South Sea, where the tree grew in plenty, some of his men were so delighted with it, that at parting they were resolved to drink their fill, which they did; but their appetites had like to have cost them their lives, for though they were not drunk, yet they were so chilled and benumbed, that they could not stand, and were obliged to be carried aboard by those who had more prudence than themselves, and it was many days before they recovered. The shells of these nuts being hard, and capable of receiving a polish, they are often cut transverely, when being mounted on stands, and having their edges silvered or gilt, or otherwise ornamented, they serve the purpose of drinking cups. The leaves of the tree are used for thatching, for brooms, baskets, and other utensils; and of the reticular web growing at their base, the Indian women make cauls and aprons.

NUT, BARBADOES. See *Ricinus major.*

NUT, PISTACHIO. See *Pistachio nut*

NUT, PURGING. See *Ricinus major.*

NUTMEG. See *Nux moschata.*

NUTRITION, (*Nutritio, onis*, f from *nutrio*, to nourish). Under this title might be considered how the matter both of the fluids and solids of the body is supplied: but, as the chyle supplies blood, and digestion chymification, and chylification effect the formation of chyle, we pass by the consideration of the fluids; and we therefore confine ourselves here to consider in what manner the solid parts obtain their increase of matter and growth, or have their occasional waste repaired. There is no doubt says Dr. Cullen, that the solids are formed of the fluid prepared from our aliment; but it is required now to say what portion of the fluids is employed in nourishing the solids, by what channels the nourishment is conveyed to them, and being applied there, how from fluid it becomes solid. With regard to the first question, we have no doubt in asserting, that in oviparous animals, it is the albumen ovi that is employed in nourishing the chick

and we presume that it is an analagous fluid which is employed in nourishing the bird during the whole time of its growth. We think the analogy may be safely applied with respect to all animals, the solid matter of which is of the same kind with that of the oviparous. This analagous fluid we take to be the gluten of the blood, properly diluted and freed from any adhering saline matter. To determine in what manner this nutritious fluid is applied to the nourishment of the solids, it is necessary to consider what are the simple fundamental solids, of which all the others are formed. It seems to be the opinion of the greater part of modern anatomists, that the solid parts consist entirely of a cellular texture, of various density in the different parts; and indeed, the structure of the greatest part of the solids is evidently of this kind. But at the same time it is also true, that a fibrous structure is to be observed almost every where in the body. It appears in the medullary substance of the brain and nerves, in the muscles and tendons, in the arteries, in the excretories of the glands, in the lymphatic vessels, in the alimentary canal, in the uterus and bladder of urine, in the ligaments, and in most membranes; and it is to be seen in those membranes which are afterwards changed into bones, especially whilst this change is going on. From this view of the universality of a fibrous structure in animal bodies we are disposed to believe, that these fibres are the fundamental part of animal solids: that they are the primordial staminal part of animal bodies; and that the cellular texture is, for the most part, an accretion formed upon these fibres. The consideration of the structure and growth of vegetables seems to illustrate and confirm this opinion. At the same time, from the fibrous parts being evidently, in most instances, parts of the nervous system, and from the gradual formation of the fœtus in which the nervous system is first formed, we think it probable, that the whole of the fibres in the different parts of the body are a continuation of the nerves; and this again will lead to the conclusion, that the nourishment of the soft and homogeneous solid every where is conveyed to it by the nerves. This supposes also, what is otherwise probable, that the cortical part of the brain, or common origin of the nerves, is a secretory organ, in which the gluten of the blood being freed from all saline matter before adhering to it, becomes fit for the nourishment of the solids, and being poured in a sufficiently diluted state upon the organ of the nerves, it is filtrated along the fibres of these, and is thus conveyed to every staminal fibre of the system. We suppose, at the same time, that the medullary, or what may be called the solid matter of the nerves, is in the living body constantly accompanied with a subtle elastic fluid, which fits them for being the organs of sense and motion, and which probably is also the means by which the nutritious fluid is carried on in the substance of the nerves, from their origin to their extremities. In what manner the nutritious fluid, thus carried to the several parts, is there applied, so as to increase the length of the nervous fibre itself, or to form a cellular texture upon its surface, and in what manner from fluid it becomes solid, we cannot explain; nor can these particulars be explained upon any other supposition that has been formed with respect to nutrition. It is probable, that for a certain time, at its first beginning, the growth of animal bodies proceeds in the same manner as that of vegetables: but it is evident, that at a certain period,

in the growth of animals, a different œconomy takes place; and that afterwards, the growth ſeems to depend upon an extenſion of the arteries in length and wideneſs by the blood propelled into them by the powers. It may be ſuppoſed, that this extenſion of the arteries is applied to every fibre of the body, and that by the extenſion of theſe it gives an opportunity to the application and accretion of nutritious matter; to the growth therefore of the fibre itſelf, and to the growth of cellular texture on its ſurface. Perhaps the ſame extenſion of the arterial ſyſtem gives occaſion to the ſecretion of fluids, which poured into the cellular texture already formed, according to the diſpoſition of theſe fluids to concrete more or leſs firmly, gives the different degrees of denſity and hardneſs which appears in different parts of the body. By this extenſion of the arterial ſyſtem, the ſeveral parts of the body are gradually evolved, ſome of them ſooner, others later, as by the conſtitution of the original ſtamina, or after occurrences, they are ſeverally put into the conditions by which they are more or leſs expoſed to the impetus of the blood, and fitted to receive a greater quantity of it. But as the parts by theſe cauſes firſt evolved will increaſe the moſt in the denſity of their ſolid parts, they will therefore more and more reſiſt their further growth; and by the ſame reſiſtance, will determine the blood with more force, and in greater quantity, into the parts not then ſo far evolved. Hence the whole ſyſtem will be at length evolved, and every part of the ſolids will, in reſpect of denſity and reſiſtance, be in balance with every other, and with the forces to which they are ſeverally expoſed. The extenſion of the arteries depends upon the reſiſtances which occur to the free tranſmiſſion of the blood through them: and further, from a reſiſtance in the veins. For, as a conſiderable portion of the blood does not commonly paſs into the ſmaller branches of the arteries, but muſt paſs very entirely into the veins; ſo theſe, by their capacity conſtantly diminiſhing as they approach nearer to the heart, and by their coats being of a denſity and firmneſs ſufficient to prevent further dilatation, conſiderably reſiſt the free paſſage of the blood from the arteries into them. While theſe reſiſtances continue, the arteries, and with them almoſt every fibre of the body, muſt be extended at every ſyſtole of the heart; and with this extenſion, the growth of every part will proceed: but as every part, by its receiving an addition of ſolid matter, becomes more denſe and rigid; ſo it is leſs eaſily extended, and perhaps leſs readily receives an accretion of new matter, than before. Hence it is, that the more the body grows, it admits of any additional growth more ſlowly; and unleſs the extending powers increaſe in the ſame proportion with the increaſing denſity of the ſolids, there muſt be a period at which theſe two powers will balance each other, and the growth will proceed no farther. But, as it is evident that the bulk and weight of the heart, and probably therefore its force, does not increaſe with the increaſing bulk of the body, and that the action of the heart is the principal extending power in the ſyſtem; it is alſo plain that the extending power does not increaſe in the ſame proportion with the increaſing denſity of the ſolids; and therefore, that theſe two powers will, at a certain period, come to balance each other. But not only is the force of the heart thus conſtantly diminiſhing, with reſpect to the reſiſtance of the arteries; but the force of the heart, though it were ſtill ſubſiſting, has from other cauſes, leſs

effect in extending the arteries. The blood is more confined to the arteries, and extends them further in proportion to the resistance in the veins; and this resistance in the veins, and the extension of the arteries depending upon it, will be more or less, according to the respective density of these two sets of vessels. But it appears from the experiments of Sir Clifton Wintringham, that the density and firmness of the veins with respect to their correspondent arteries, is much greater in young animals than in old; and thence it appears, that during the growth of animals, the arteries are acquiring an increase of density in a greater proportion than the veins are at the same time; and therefore, that the resistance in the veins with respect to the arteries, must be constantly diminishing; that the veins will therefore receive a greater proportion of blood; that in the same proportion the arteries will be less extended; and, *lastly*, that the diminished resistance in the veins, concurring with the diminished force of the heart, will the sooner bring the increasing rigidity of the arteries, and therefore of every fibre of the body, to be in balance with the extending powers: at least so far as to prevent their producing any further growth. This account of the change of the resistances in the arteries and veins, with respect to one another, is agreeable to phenomena, which show that the arteries are larger, and contain more blood in proportion to the veins in young animals, than in old; that arterial hœmorrhagies occur most frequently in young persons; and that congestions in the veins, with hœmorrhagies or hydropic effusions depending upon them, occur most frequently in old age. It is probable, that the resistance both of arteries and veins goes on increasing, while the force of the heart is not increasing at the same time: but it appears also, that from the diminished force of the heart and the compression which the smaller vessels are constantly exposed to from the distention of the larger, the action of the muscles and other causes, the number of small vessels, and therefore the capacity of the whole system, is constantly diminishing so much, that the heart may still for some time be sufficient for the circulation of the blood. But, while the resistances in the vessels are constantly increasing, the irritability of the moving fibres, and the energy of the brain, are at the same time constantly diminishing; and therefore the power of the heart must at length become unequal to its task, the circulation must cease, and death ensue. The unavoidable death of old persons is thus in part accounted for; but it is, however, still probable, that the same event proceeds chiefly from the decay and total extinction of the excitement or vital power of the nervous system, and that from causes very independent of the circulation of the blood, and arising in the nervous system itself, in consequence of the progress of life. This seems to be proved by the decay of sense, memory, intellect, and irritability, which constantly takes place, as life advances beyond a certain period.

NUX AQUATĬCA. See *Tribulus aquaticus*.

NUX BARBADENSIS. See *Ricinus major*.

NUX BEEN. See *Ben nux*.

NUX CATHARTĬCA AMERICĀNA. See *Ricinus major*.

NUX METELLÆ. See *Nux vomica*.

NUX JUGLANS. See *Juglans*.

NUX MOSCHĀTA, (*Nux, nŭcis*, f.). *Nuciſta. Nux myriſtica.* The nutmeg. The seed or kernel of the *Myriſtica moſchata. Myriſtica foliis lanceolatis, fructu glabro.* Thunb. Class *Dioecia*. Order *Syngeneſia*. It is a spice that is well known, and has

been long used both for culinary and medical purposes. There are three kinds of unctuous substances, called oil of mace, that are really expressed from the nutmeg. The best is brought from the East Indies in stone jars; this is of a thick consistence, of the colour of mace, and has an agreeable fragrant smell; the second sort, which is paler coloured, and much inferior in quality, comes from Holland in solid masses, generally flat, and of a square figure; the third, which is the worst of all, and usually called common oil of mace, is an artificial composition of suet, palm oil, and the like, flavoured with a little genuine oil of nutmeg. The medicinal qualities of nutmeg are supposed to be aromatic, anodyne, stomachic, and adstringent, and hence it has been much used in diarrhœas and dysenteries. The officinal preparations of nutmeg are a spirit and an essential oil, and the nutmeg in substance, roasted, to render it more adstringent: both the spice itself and the essential oil enter several compositions, as the *confectio aromatica*, *spiritus ammoniæ compositus*, &c.

NUX MYRISTĬCA. See *Nux moschata*.

NUX PISTACĬA. See *Pistachio nut*.

NUX PURGANS. See *Ricinus major*.

NUX VOMĬCA. *Nux metella*. The nux vomica, lignum colubrinum, and faba sancti ignatii, have been long known in the Materia Medica as narcotic poisons, brought from the East Indies, while the vegetables which produced them were unknown, or at least not botanically ascertained.

By the judicious discrimination of Linnæus, the nux vomica was found to be the fruit of the tree described and figured in the Hortus Malabaricus under the name of *Caniram*, now called *Strychnos*.

To this genus also, but upon evidence less conclusive, he likewise justly referred the colubrinum. But the faba sancti ignatii he merely conjectured might belong to this family, as appears by the query, *an Strychni species?* which subsequent discoveries have enabled us to decide in the negative; for in the Supp. Plant. it constitutes the new genus *Ignatia*, which Loureiro has lately confirmed, changing the specific name *amara* to that of *philippinica*. The strychnos and ignatia are however nearly allied, and both rank under the order *Solanaceæ*.

Dr. Woodville has enquired thus far into the botanical origin of these productions, from finding that by medical writers they are generally treated of under the same head, and in a very confused and indiscriminate manner. The seed of the fruit or berry of this tree, *Strychnos nux vomica*, is the officinal nux vomica; it is flat, round, about an inch broad, and near a quarter of an inch thick, with a prominence in the middle on both sides, of a grey colour, covered with a kind of woolly matter; and internally hard and tough like horn. To the taste it is extremely bitter, but has no remarkable smell. It consists chiefly of a gummy matter, which is moderately bitter: the resinous part is very inconsiderable in quantity, but intensely bitter; hence rectified spirit has been considered its best menstruum.

Nux vomica is reckoned amongst the most powerful poisons of the narcotic kind, especially to brute animals; nor are instances wanting of its deleterious effects upon the human species. It proves fatal to dogs in a very short time, as appears by various authorities. Hillefeld and others found that it also poisoned hares, foxes, wolves, cats, rabbits, and even some birds, as crows and ducks; and Loureiro relates, that a horse died in four hours after taking a dram of the seed in an half roasted state.

The effects of this baneful drug upon different animals, and even upon those of the same species, appear to be rather uncertain, and not always in proportion to the quantity of the poison given. With some animals it produces its effects almost instantaneously; with others not till after several hours, when laborious respiration, followed by torpor, tremblings, coma, and convulsions, usually precede the fatal spasms or tetanus, with which this drug commonly extinguishes life.

From four cases related of its mortal effects upon human subjects, we find the symptoms corresponded nearly with those which we have here mentioned of brutes; and these, as well as the dissections of dogs killed by this poison, not shewing any injury done to the stomach or intestines, prove that the nux vomica acts immediately upon the nervous system, and destroys life by the virulence of its narcotic influence.

The quantity of the seed necessary to produce this effect upon a strong dog, as appears by experiments, need not be more than a scruple; a rabbit was killed by five, and a cat by four grains: and of the four persons to whom we have alluded, and who unfortunately perished by this deleterious drug, one was a girl ten years of age, to whom fifteen grains were exhibited at twice for the cure of an ague. Loss, however, tells us, that he took one or two grains of it in substance without discovering any bad effect; and that a friend of his swallowed a whole seed without injury.

In Britain, where physicians seem to observe the rule *Saltem non nocere* more strictly than in many other countries, the nux vomica has been rarely if ever employed as a medicine. On the continent, however, and especially in Germany, they have certainly been guided more by the axiom, "What is incapable of doing much harm is equally unable to do much good." The truth of this remark was lately very fully exemplified by the practice of Baron Stoerck, and is farther illustrated by the medicinal character given of nux vomica, which, from the time of Gesner till that of a modern date, has been recommended by a succession of authors as an antidote to the plague, as a febrifuge, as a vermifuge, and as a remedy in mania, hypochondriasis, hysteria, rheumatism, gout, and canine madness. In Sweden it has of late years been successfully used in dysentery; but Bergius, who tried its effects in this disease, says, that it suppressed the flux for twelve hours, which afterwards returned again. A woman who took a scruple of this drug night and morning two successive days, is said to have been seized with convulsions and vertigo, notwithstanding which the dysenteric symptoms returned, and the disorder was cured by other medicines; but a pain in the stomach, the effect of the nux vomica, continued afterwards for a long time.

Bergius therefore thinks it should only be administered in the character of a tonic and anodyne in small doses, (from five to ten grains), and not till after proper laxatives have been employed. Loureiro recommends it as a valuable internal medicine in fluor albus; for which purpose he roasts it till it becomes perfectly black and friable, which renders its medicinal use safe, without impairing its efficacy.

NYCTALOPIA, (*Nyctalopia, æ*, f. νυκταλωπια, from νυξ, the night, and ωψ, an eye). A defect in vision, by which the patient sees little or nothing in the day, but in the evening and night sees tolerably well. The proximate cause is various: 1. Nyctalopia from a periodical amaurosis, or gutta serena, when the blind paroxysm begins in the morning, and terminates in the evening: 2. Nyctalopia from

too great a ſenſibility of the retina, which cannot bear the meridian light. See *Phobotomia*. 3. Nyctalopia from an opaque ſpot in the middle of the cryſtalline lens. When the light of the ſun in the meridian contracts the pupil, there is blindneſs; about evening, or in more obſcure places, the pupil dilates, hence the rays of light paſs through the limbus of the cryſtalline lens. 4. Nyctalopia, from a diſuſe of light; thus perſons who are educated in obſcure priſons ſee nothing immediately in open meridian light; but by degrees their eyes are accuſtomed to diſtinguiſh objects in day-light. 5. Nyctalopia from an immoveable mydriaſis; for in this inſtance the pupil admits too great a quantity of light, which the immobile pupil cannot moderate, hence the patient, in a ſtrong light, ſees little or nothing. 6. Nyctalopia from too great a contraction of the pupil. This admits a ſufficiency of lucid rays in bright light, but towards night the pupil dilates more, and the patient ſees better. 7. Nyctalopia endemica. A whole people have been nyctalops, as the Æthiopians, Africans, Americans, and Aſiatics. A great flow of tears are excreted all the day from their eyes; at night they ſee objects. 8. Nyctalopia from a commotion of the eye; from which a man in the night ſaw all objects diſtinctly.

NYMPHÆ, (*Nympha, æ*, f. from νυμφα, a water nymph; ſo called becauſe it ſtands in the water-courſe). *Labia minora*. Two membranous folds, ſituated within the labia majora, at the ſides of the entrance of the vagina uteri.

NYMPHÆA, (*Nymphæa, æ*, f. νυμφαια, from νυμφα, a water nymph, becauſe it grows in watery places). The water lilly.

NYMPHÆA ALBA. *Leuconymphæa*. White water lilly. This beautiful plant, *Nymphæa alba* of Linnæus, was formerly employed medicinally as a demulcent, and ſlightly anodyne remedy. It is now laid aſide.

NYMPHÆA LUTEA, Yellow water-lilly. *Nymphæa lutea* of Linnæus. This beautiful plant was employed formerly with the ſame intentions as the white, and, like it, is now fallen into diſuſe.

NYMPHÆA LOTUS. The Egyptian lotus. An aquatic plant, a native of both Indies. The root is conical, firm, about the ſize of a middling pear, covered with a blackiſh bark, and ſet round with fibres. It has a ſweetiſh taſte, and, when boiled or roaſted, becomes as yellow within as the yoke of an egg. The plant grows in abundance on the banks of the Nile, and is there much ſought after by the poor, who in a ſhort time collect enough to ſupply their families with food for ſeveral days.

NYMPHOMĀNĬA, (*Nymphomania, æ*, f. νυμφομανια, from νυμφα, nympha, and μανια, madneſs). *Furor uterinus*. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *dyſorexia* of Cullen, characteriſed by exceſſive and violent deſire for coition in woman.

NYMPHOTOMĬA, (*Nymphotomia, æ*, f. νυμφοτομια, from νυμφα, the nympha, and τεμνω, to cut). The operation of removing the nympha when too large.

NYSTAGMUS, (*Nyſtagmus, i*, m. νυσταγμος, from νυσταω, to ſleep). A twinkling of the eyes, ſuch as happens when a perſon is very ſleepy. Authors alſo define nyſtagmus to be an involuntary agitation of the ocular bulb. It is known by the inſtability or involuntary and conſtant motions of the globe of the eye from one canthus to another, or in ſome other directions. Sometimes it is accompanied with an hippus, or an alternate and repeated dilatation and conſtriction of the pupil. The ſpecies are, 1. Nyſtagmus from fear,

This agitation is obſerved under the operation for the cataract; and it is checked by perſuaſion, and waiting a ſhort ſpace of time. 2. Nyſtagmus from ſand or ſmall gravel falling in the eye. 3. Nyſtagmus from a catarrh, which is accompanied with much inflammation. 4. Nyſtagmus from ſaburra in the primæ viæ, as is obſerved in infants afflicted with worms, and is known by the ſigns of ſaburra. 5. Nyſtagmus ſymptomaticus, which happens in hyſteric, epileptic, and ſometimes in pregnancy, and is a common ſymptom accompanying St. Vitus's dance.

O.

OAK. See *Quercus*.

OAK OF JERUSALEM. See *Botrys vulgaris*.

OAK, SEA. See *Quercus marina*.

OAK, WILLOW LEAVED. See *Quercus Phellos*.

OAT. See *Avena*.

OBLIQUUS ASCENDENS ABDOMĬNIS. See *Obliquus internus abdominis*.

OBLIQUUS ASCENDENS INTERNUS. See *Obliquus internus abdominis*.

OBLIQUUS DESCENDENS ABDOMĬNIS. See *Obliquus externus abdominis*.

OBLIQUUS DESCENDENS EXTERNUS. See *Obliquus externus abdominis*.

OBLIQUUS EXTERNUS ABDOMĬNIS. This muſcle, which is ſo named by Morgagni, Albinus, and Winſlow, is the *obliquus deſcendens* of Veſalius and Douglas, and the *obliquus major* of Haller and ſome others. It is a broad, thin muſcle, fleſhy poſteriorly, and tendinous in its middle and lower part, and is ſituated immediately under the integuments, covering all the other muſcles of the lower belly. It ariſes from the lower edges of the eight, and ſometimes, though rarely, of the nine inferior ribs, not far from their cartilages, by as many diſtinct fleſhy portions, which indigitate with correſponding parts of the ſerratus major anticus, and the latiſſimus dorſi. From theſe ſeveral origins, the fibres of the muſcle deſcend obliquely forwards, and ſoon degenerate into a broad and thin aponeuroſis, which terminates in the linea alba. About an inch and a half above the pubis the fibres of this aponeuroſis ſeparate from each other, ſo as to form an aperture, which extends obliquely inwards and forwards, more than an inch in length, and is wider above than below, being nearly of an oval figure. This is what is ſometimes, though erroneouſly, called the *ring* of the abdominal muſcles, for it belongs only to the external oblique, there being no ſuch opening either in the obliquus internus or in the tranſverſalis, as ſome writers, and particularly Douglas and Cheſelden, would give us to underſtand. This opening, or ring, ſerves for the paſſage of the ſpermatic veſſels in men,

and of the round ligament of the uterus in woman, and is of a larger ſize in the former than in the latter. The two tendinous portions, which, by their ſeparation, form this aperture, are called the *columns* of the ring. The anterior, ſuperior, and inner column, which is the broadeſt and thickeſt of the two, paſſes over the ſymphyſis pubis, and is fixed to the oppoſite os pubis; ſo that the anterior column of the right obliquus externus interſects that of the left, and is, as it were, interwoven with it, by which means their inſertion is ſtrengthened, and their attachment made firmer. The poſterior, inferior, and exterior column, approaches the anterior one as it deſcends, and is fixed behind and below it to the os pubis of the ſame ſide. The fibres of that part of the obliquus externus, which ariſes from the two inferior ribs, deſcend almoſt perpendicularly, and are inſerted, tendinous and fleſhy, into the outer edge of the anterior half of the ſpine of the ilium. From the anterior ſuperior ſpinous proceſs of that bone, the external oblique is ſtretched tendinous to the os pubis, forming what is called *Poupart*'s, and ſometimes *Fallopius*'s ligament, Fallopius having firſt deſcribed it. Winſlow, and many others, name it the *inguinal* ligament. But, after all, it has no claim to this name, it being nothing more than the tendon of the muſcle, which is turned or folded inwards at its interior edge. It paſſes over the blood-veſſels of the lower extremity, and is thickeſt near the pelvis; and in women, from the greater ſize of the pelvis, it is longer and looſer than in men. Hence we find, that women are moſt liable to crural herniæ; whereas men, from the greater ſize of the ring of the external oblique, are moſt ſubject to the inguinal. From this ligament, and from that part of the tendon which forms the ring, we obſerve a detachment of tendinous fibres, which are loſt in the *faſcia lata* of the thigh. This may, in ſome meaſure, account for the pain which, in caſes of ſtrangulated herniæ, is felt when the patient ſtands upright, and which is conſtantly relieved upon bending the thigh upwards. This muſcle ſerves to draw down the ribs in expiration; to bend the trunk forwards when both muſcles act, or to bend it obliquely to one ſide, and, perhaps, to turn it ſlightly upon its axis, when it acts ſingly; it alſo raiſes the pelvis obliquely when the ribs are fixed; it ſupports and compreſſes the abdominal viſcera, aſſiſts in the evacuation of the urine and fæces, and is likewiſe uſeful in parturition.

OBLIQUUS INFERĬOR CAPĬTIS. This muſcle is larger than the obliquus ſuperior capitis. It is very obliquely ſituated between the two firſt vertebræ of the neck. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the middle and outer ſide of the ſpinous proceſs of the ſecond vertebra of the neck, and is inſerted, tendinous and fleſhy, into the lower and poſterior part of the tranſverſe proceſs of the firſt vertebra. Its uſe is to turn the firſt vertebra upon the ſecond, as upon a pivot, and to draw the face towards the ſhoulder.

OBLIQUUS INFERĬOR OCŬLI. *Obliquus minor oculi* of Winſlow. An oblique muſcle of the eye, that draws the globe of the eye forwards, inwards, and downwards. It ariſes by a narrow beginning from the outer edge of the orbitar proceſs of the ſuperior maxillary bone, near its junction with the lachrymal bone, and running obliquely outwards, is inſerted into the ſclerotic membrane of the eye.

OBLIQUUS INTERNUS ABDOMĬNIS. This muſcle, which is the *obliquus aſcendens* of Veſalius and Douglas, and the *obliquus minor* of

Haller, is ſituated immediately under the external oblique, and is broad and thin like that muſcle, but ſomewhat leſs conſiderable in its extent. It ariſes from the ſpinous proceſſes of the three inferior lumbar vertebræ, and from the poſterior and middle part of the os ſacrum, by a thin tendinous expanſion, which is common to it and to the ſerratus poſticus inferior; by ſhort tendinous fibres, from the whole ſpine of the ilium, between its poſterior tuberoſity and its anterior and ſuperior ſpinous proceſs; and from two thirds of the poſterior ſurface of what is called Fallopius's ligament, at the middle of which we find the round ligament of the uterus in women, and the ſpermatic veſſels in men, paſſing under the thin edge of this muſcle; and in the latter, it likewiſe ſends off ſome fibres, which deſcend upon the ſpermatic chord, as far as the tunica vaginalis of the teſtis, and conſtitute what is called the *cremaſter* muſcle, which ſurrounds, ſuſpends, and compreſſes the teſticle. From theſe origins, the fibres of the internal oblique run in different directions; thoſe of the poſterior portion aſcend obliquely forwards, the middle ones become leſs and leſs oblique, and, at length, run in an horizontal direction, and thoſe of the anterior portion extend obliquely downwards. The firſt of theſe are inſerted, by very ſhort tendinous fibres, into the cartilages of the fifth, fourth, and third of the falſe ribs; the fibres of the ſecond, or middle portion, form a broad tendon, which, after being inſerted into the lower edge of the cartilage of the ſecond falſe rib, extends towards the linea alba, and ſeparates into two layers; the anterior layer, which is the thickeſt of the two, joins the tendon of the obliquus externus, and runs over the two upper thirds of the rectus muſcle, to be inſerted into the linea alba; the poſterior layer runs under the rectus, adheres to the anterior ſurface of the tendon of the tranſverſalis, and is inſerted into the cartilages of the firſt of the falſe, and the laſt of the true ribs, and likewiſe into the linea alba. By this ſtructure we may perceive that the greater part of the rectus is incloſed, as it were, in a ſheath. The fibres of the anterior portion of the internal oblique, or thoſe which ariſe from the ſpine of the ilium and the ligamentum Fallopii, likewiſe form a broad tendon, which, inſtead of ſeparating into two layers like that of the other part of the muſcle, runs over the lower part of the rectus, and adhering to the under ſurface of the tendon of the external oblique, is inſerted into the fore part of the pubis. This muſcle ſerves to aſſiſt the obliquus externus; but it ſeems to be more evidently calculated than that muſcle is, to draw the ribs downwards and backwards. It likewiſe ſerves to ſeparate the falſe ribs from the true ribs, and from each other.

OBLIQUUS MAJOR ABDOMĬNIS. See *Obliquus externus abdominis*.

OBLIQUUS MAJOR CAPITĬS. See *Obliquus inferior capitis*.

OBLIQUUS MAJOR OCULI. See *Obliquus ſuperior oculi*.

OBLIQUUS MINOR ABDOMĬNIS. See *Obliquus internus abdominis*.

OBLIQUUS MINOR CAPĬTIS. See *Obliquus ſuperior capitis*.

OBLIQUUS MINOR OCŬLI. See *Obliquus inferior oculi*.

OBLIQUUS SUPERĬOR CAPĬTIS. Riolanus, who was the firſt that gave particular names to the oblique muſcles of the head, called this muſcle *obliquus minor*, to diſtinguiſh it from the inferior, which, on account of its being much larger, he named *obliquus major*. Spigelius afterwards diſtinguiſhed the two, from their ſituation with reſpect to each other,

into *ſuperior* and *inferior*; and in this he is followed by Cowper and Douglas. Winſlow retains both names. That uſed by Albinus is here adopted. This little muſcle, which is nearly of the ſame ſhape as the *recti capitis*, is ſituated laterally between the occiput and the firſt vertebra of the neck, and is covered by the complexus and the upper part of the ſplenius. It ariſes, by a ſhort thick tendon, from the upper and poſterior part of the tranſverſe proceſs of the firſt vertebra of the neck, and, aſcending obliquely inwards and backwards, becomes broader, and is inſerted, by a broad flat tendon and ſome few fleſhy fibres, into the os occipitis, behind the back part of the maſtoid proceſs, under the inſertion of the complexus and ſplenius, and a little above that of the rectus major. The uſe of this muſcle is to draw the head backwards, and perhaps to aſſiſt in its rotatory motion.

Obliquus superior oculi. *Trochlearis. Obliquus major* of Winſlow. An oblique muſcle of the eye, that rolls the globe of the eye, and turns the pupil downwards and outwards. It ariſes like the ſtraight muſcles of the eye from the edge of the foramen opticum at the bottom of the orbit, between the rectus ſuperior and rectus internus, from thence runs ſtraight along the papyraceous portion of the ethmoid bone to the upper part of the orbit, where a cartilaginous trochlea is fixed to the inſide of the internal angular proceſs of the os frontis, through which its tendon paſſes, and runs a little downwards and outwards, incloſed in a looſe membranaceous ſheath, to be inſerted into the ſclerotic membrane.

Obstetric, (*Obſtetricus*, from *obſtetrix*, a nurſe). Belonging to midwifry.

Obstipation, (*Obſtipatio, onis*, f. from *obſtipo*, to ſtop up). Coſtiveneſs. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales*, and order *epiſcheſes* of Cullen, comprehending three ſpecies: 1. *Obſtipatio debilium*, in weak and commonly dyſpeptic perſons. 2. *Obſtipatio rigidorum*, in perſons of rigid fibres and a melancholy temperament. 3. *Obſtipatio obſtructorum*, from obſtructions. See *Colica*.

Obturator externus. This is a ſmall flat muſcle, ſituated obliquely at the upper and anterior part of the thigh, between the pectinalis and the fore part of the foramen thyroideum, and covered by the adductor brevis femoris. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from all the inner half of the circumference of the foramen thyroideum, and likewiſe from part of the obturator ligament. Its radiated fibres collect and form a ſtrong roundiſh tendon, which runs outwards, and after adhering to the capſular ligament of the joint is inſerted into a cavity at the inner and back part of the root of the great trochanter. The chief uſes of this muſcle are to turn the thigh obliquely outwards, to aſſiſt in bending the thigh, and in drawing it inwards. It likewiſe prevents the capſular ligament from being pinched in the motions of the joint.

Obturator internus. *Marſupialis*, ſeu *obturator internus* of Douglas. This is a conſiderable muſcle, a great part of which is ſituated within the pelvis. It ariſes, by very ſhort tendinous fibres, from ſomewhat more than the upper half of the internal circumference of the foramen thyroideum of the os innominatum. It is compoſed of ſeveral diſtinct faſciculi, which terminate in a roundiſh tendon that paſſes out of the pelvis, through the nich that is between the ſpine and the tuberoſity of the iſchium, and, after running between the two portions of the gemini in the manner juſt now deſcribed, is inſerted into the cavity at the root of the great trochanter, after adhering to the ad-

jacent part of the capsular ligament of the joint. This muscle rolls the os femoris obliquely outwards, by pulling it towards the ischiatic niche, upon the cartilaginous surface of which its tendon, which is surrounded by a membranous sheath, moves as upon a pulley.

OBTURATOR NERVE. A nerve of the thigh, that is lost upon its inner muscles.

OCCIPITAL BONE. *Os basilare.* This bone, which forms the posterior and inferior part of scull, is of an irregular figure, convex on the outside, and concave internally. Its external surface, which is very irregular, serves for the attachment of several muscles. It affords several inequalities, which sometimes form two semicircular hollows separated by a scabrous ridge. The inferior portion of the bone is stretched forwards in form of a wedge, and hence is called the *cuneiform* process. At the base of this process, situated obliquely on each side of the foramen magnum, are two flat, oblong protuberances, named *condyles*. They are covered with cartilage, and serve for the articulation of the head with the first vertebra of the neck. In the inferior portion of this bone, at the basis of the cranium, and immediately behind the cuneiform process, we observe a considerable hole, through which the medulla oblongata passes into the spine. The nervi accessorii, the vertebral arteries, and sometimes the vertebral veins likewise, pass through it. Man being designed for an erect posture, this foramen magnum is found nearly in the middle of the basis of the human cranium, and at a pretty equal distence from the posterior part of the occiput, and the anterior part of the lower jaw; whereas in quadrupeds it is nearer the back part of the occiput. Besides this hole, there are four other smaller foramina, viz. two before, and two behind the condyles. The former serve for the transmission of the ninth pair of nerves, and the two latter for the veins which pass from the external parts of the head to the lateral sinuses. On looking over the internal surface of the os occipitis, we perceive the appearance of a cross, formed by a very prominent ridge, which rises upwards from near the foramen magnum, and by two transverse sinuosities, one on each side of the ridge. This cross occasions the formation of four fossæ, two above and two below the sinuosities. In the latter are placed the lobes of the cerebellum, and in the former the posterior lobes of the brain. The two sinuosities serve to receive the lateral sinuses. In the upper part of this bone is seen a continuation of the sinuosity of the longitudinal sinus; and at the basis of the cranium we observe the inner surface of the cuneiform process made concave for the reception of the medulla oblongata. The occipital bone is thicker and stronger than any of the other bones of the head, except the petrous part of the ossa temporum; but it is of unequal thickness. At its lateral and inferior parts, where it is thinnest, it is covered by a great number of muscles. The reason for so much thickness and strength in this bone seems to be, that it covers the cerebellum, in which the least wound is of the utmost consequence; and that it is, by its situation, more liable to be fractured by falls than any other bone of the cranium. For, if we fall forwards, the hands are naturally put out to prevent the forehead's touching the ground; and if on one side, the shoulders in a great measure protect the sides of the head; but if a person fall backwards, the hind part of the head consequently strikes against the earth, and that too with considerable violence. Nature therefore has wisely constructed this bone

ſo as to be capable of the greateſt ſtrength at its upper part, where it is the moſt expoſed to injury. The os occipitis is joiued, by means of the cuneiform proceſs, to the ſphenoid bone, with which it often oſſifies, and makes but one bone in thoſe who are advanced in life. It is connected to the parietal bones by the lambdoidal ſuture, and to the temporal bones by the additamentum of the temporal ſuture. The head is likewiſe united to the trunk by means of this bone. The two condyles of the occipital bone are received into the ſuperior oblique proceſſes of the atlas, or firſt vertebra of the neck, and it is by means of this articulation that a certain degree of motion of the head backwards and forwards is performed. But it allows only very little motion to either ſide; and ſtill leſs of a circular motion, which the head obtains principally by the circumvolution of the atlas on the ſecond vertebra, as is deſcribed more particularly in the account of the vertebræ. In the fœtus, the os occipitis is divided by an unoſſified cartilaginous ſubſtance into four parts. One of theſe, which is the largeſt, conſtitutes all that portion of the bone that is above the foramen magnum; two others, which are much ſmaller, compoſe the ſides of the foramen magnum, and include the condyloid proceſſes; and the fourth is the cuneiform proceſs. This laſt is ſometimes not completely united with the reſt ſo as to form one bone, before the ſixth or ſeventh year.

Occipitālis. See *Occipito-frontalis.*

Occĭpĭto-frontālis. *Digaſtricus cranii. Epicranius* of Albinus. *Frontalis et occipitalis* of Winſlow. A ſingle broad digaſtric muſcle, that covers the cranium, pulls the ſkin of the head backwards, raiſes the eyebrows upwards, and, at the ſame time, draws up and wrinkles the ſkin of the forehead. It ariſes from the poſterior part of the occiput, goes over the upper part of the os parietale and os frontis, and is loſt in the eye-brows.

Occĭput, (*Occiput, ĭtis*, n.). The hinder part of the head. See *Caput.*

Ochra, (*Ochra, æ*, f. ὠχρα, from ὠχρος, pale; ſo named becauſe it is often of a pale colour). Ochre. An argillaceous earth impregnated with iron of a red or yellow colour. The Armenian bole, and other earth, are often adulterated with ochre.

Ocimum, (*Ocimum, i*, n, ὠκυμον, from ὠκυς, ſwift; ſo called from its ſudden growth). See *Baſilicum.*

Ocimum basilĭcum. The ſyſtematic name of the common or citron baſil. See *Baſilicum.*

Ocimum caryophyllātum. Small or buſh baſil. This plant is mildly balſamic. Infuſions are drank as tea in catarrhous and uterine diſorders, and the dried leaves are made into cephalic and ſternutatory powders. They are, when freſh, very juicy, of a weak aromatic and very mucilaginous taſte, and of a ſtrong and agreeable ſmell improved by drying.

Ocularĭa, (*Ocularia, æ*, f. from *oculus*, the eye, ſo called from its uſes in diſorders of the eye.) See *Euphraſia.*

Ocŭli adductor. See *Rectus internus oculi.*

Ocŭli attollens. See *Rectus ſuperior oculi.*

Ocŭli cancrōrum. See *Cancer.*

Ocŭli depressor. See *Rectus inferior oculi.*

Ocŭli elevātor. See *Rectus ſuperior oculi.*

Ocŭli levātor. See *Rectus ſuperior oculi.*

Ocŭli obliquus inferĭor. See *Obliquus inferior oculi.*

Ocŭli obliquus major. See *Obliquus ſuperior oculi.*

Oculi obliquus minor. See *Obliquus inferior oculi.*

Oculus bovis. See *Bellis major.*

Odontalgĭa, (*Odontalgia, æ*, f. οδονταλγια, from οδους, a tooth, and αλγος, pain). The toothach.

Odontalgica, (*Medicamenta odontalgica*, οδοντοαλγικα, from οδονταλγια, the toothach). Medicines which relieve the toothach.

Odontoid process, (*Processus odontoides*, from οδους, a tooth, and ειδος, form, becauſe it is ſhaped like a tooth). A proceſs of the ſecond vertebra of the neck. See *Dentatus.*

Odoriferous glands. Theſe glands are ſituated around the corona glandis of the male, and under the ſkin of the labia majora and nymphæ of females. They ſecrete a ſebaceous matter, which emits a peculiar odour; hence their name.

Œconomy, (*Œconomia, æ*, f. οικονομια, from οικος, a houſe, and νομος, a law). The conduct of nature in preſerving animal bodies is called the animal œconomy.

Œdēma, (*Œdoma, ătis*, n. οιδημα, from οιδεω, to ſwell). A ſynonym of anaſarca. See *Anaſarca.*

Oenanthe, (*Oenanthe, es*, f. οινανθη, from οινος, wine, and ανθος, a flower, ſo called becauſe its flowers ſmell like the vine). Hemlock dropwort. This umbilliferous plant, *Œnanthe crocata* of Linnæus, is an active poiſon, and has too often proved fatal, by being eaten in miſtake inſtead of water parſnep. The juice, nevertheleſs, cautiouſly exhibited, promiſes to be an efficacious remedy in inveterate ſcorbutic eruptions. The root of this plant is not unpleaſant to the taſte, and eſteemed to be moſt deleterious of all the vegetables which this country produces. Mr. Howel, ſurgeon at Haverfordweſt, relates, that "eleven French priſoners had the liberty of walking in and about the town of Pembroke. Three of them being in the fields a little before noon, dug up a large quantity of this plant, which they took to be wild celery, to eat with their bread and butter for dinner. After waſhing it, they all three ate, or rather taſted of the roots. As they were entering the town, without any previous notice of ſickneſs at the ſtomach, or diſorder in the head, one of them was ſeized with convulſions. The other two ran home and ſent a ſurgeon to him. The ſurgeon endeavoured firſt to bleed, and then to vomit him; but thoſe endeavours were fruitleſs, and he died preſently. Ignorant of the cauſe of their comrade's death, and of their own danger, they gave of theſe roots to the other eight priſoners, who ate ſome of them with their dinner. A few minutes afterwards, the remaining two who gathered the plants, were ſeized in the ſame manner as the firſt, of which one died; the other was bled, and a vomit with great difficulty forced down, on account of his jaws being as it were locked together. This operated, and he recovered, but was ſome time affected with dizzineſs in his head, though not ſick, or the leaſt diſordered in his ſtomach. The other eight being bled and vomited immediately, were ſoon well. At Clonmel, in Ireland, eight boys, miſtaking this plant for water parſnep, ate plentifully of its roots. About four or five hours after, the eldeſt boy became ſuddenly convulſed and died; and before the next morning four of the other boys died in a ſimilar manner. Of the other three, one was maniacal ſeveral hours, another loſt his hair and nails, but the third eſcaped unhurt. Stalpaart Vander Wiel mentions two caſes of the fatal effects of this root; theſe, however, were attended with great heat in the throat and ſtomach, ſickneſs, vertigo, and purging; they both died in the courſe of two or three hours after

eating the root. Allen, in his Synopsis Medicinæ, also relates, that four children suffered greatly by eating this poison. In these cases great agony was experienced before the convulsions supervened; vomitings likewise came on, which were encouraged by large draughts of oil and warm water, to which their recovery is ascribed. The late Sir William Watson, who refers to the instances here cited, also says, that a Dutchman was poisoned by the leaves of the plant boiled in pottage. It appears from various authorities, that most brute animals are not less affected by this poison than man; and Mr. Lighfoot informs us, that a spoonful of the juice of this plant given to a dog rendered him sick and stupid; but a goat was observed to eat the the plant with impunity. The great virulence of this plant has not, however, prevented it from being taken medicinally. In a letter from Dr. Poulteney to Sir William Watson we are told, that a severe and inveterate cutaneous disorder was cured by the juice of the root, though not without exciting the most alarming symptoms. Taken in the dose of a spoonful, in two hours afterwards the head was affected in a very extraordinary manner, followed with violent sickness and vomiting, cold sweats, and rigours, but this did not deter the patient from continuing the medicine, in somewhat less doses, till it effected a cure.

Oenanthe crocāta. The systematic name of the hemlock dropwort. See *Oenanthe*.

Œsŏphăgus, (*Œsophagus, i.* m. οισοφαγος, from οια, to carry, and φαγω, to eat, because it carries the food into the stomach). The membranous and muscular tube that descends in the neck from the pharynx to the stomach. It is composed of three tunics or membranes, viz. a common, muscular, and mucous. Its arteries are branches of the œsophageal, which arises from the aorta. The veins empty themselves into the vena azygos. Its nerves are from the eighth pair and great intercostal; and it is every where under the internal or mucous membrane, supplied with glands that separate the mucous of the œsophagus, in order that the masticated bole may readily pass down into the stomach.

Œstrum venĕrĕum, (*Œstrum, i* n. from *œstrus*, a gad-bee, because by its bite or sting it agitates cattle) The venereal orgasm, or pleasant sensation experienced during coition.

Officinal, (*Officinalis*, from *officina*, a shop). Any medicine, directed by the colleges of physicians to be kept in the shops, is so termed.

Oil, (*Oleum, i,* n. ελαιον, from *oleu*, the olive, this name being at first confined to the oil expressed from the olive). Oils are defined, by modern chemists, to be proper juices of a fat or unctuous nature, either solid or fluid, indissoluble in water, combustible with flame, and volatile in different degrees. They are never formed but by organic bodies; and all substances in the mineral kingdom, which present oily characters, have originated from the action of vegetable or animal life. Oils are distinguished into fat, and essential oils: under the former head are comprehended oil of olives, almonds, rape, ben, linseed, hemp, and cocoa. Essential oils differ form fat oils by the following characters: their smell is strong and aromatic; their volatility is such that they rise with the heat of boiling water, and their taste is very acrid; they are likewise much more combustible than fat oils; they are obtained by pressure, distillation, &c. from strong-smelling plants. The use of fat oils in the arts, and in medicine, is very considerable; they are medicinally prescribed as relaxing, softening, and laxative remedies; they

enter into many medical compounds, ſuch as balſams, unguents, plaſters, &c. and they are often uſed as food on account of the mucilage they contain. See *Oliva*. Eſſential oils are employed as cordial, ſtimulant, and antiſpaſmodic remedies.

Oil, almond. See *Amygdala*.

Oil, castor. See *Ricinus*.

Oil of mace. See *Oleum macis*.

Oil, olive. See *Oliva*.

Oil, palm. See *Palm oil*.

Oil, rock. See *Petroleum*.

Olĕa europea. The ſyſtematic name of the plant from which the olive oil is obtained. See *Oliva*.

Olĕcrānon, (*Olecranon, i*, n. ωλικρανον, from ωλενη, the ulna, and κρανον, the head. The elbow or head of the ulna, upon which a perſon leans.

Olenē, (*Olene, es*, f. ωλενη). The cubit or ulna.

Olĕum. See *Oil*.

Oleum abietīnum. The reſinous juice which exudes ſpontaneouſly from the ſilver and red firs. It is ſuppoſed to be ſuperior to that obtained by wounding the tree.

Olĕum amygdălæ. See *Amygdale*.

Olĕum animāle. An empyreumatic ſubſtance obtained by diſtillation from animal ſubſtances. It is ſometimes exhibited as an antiſpaſmodic and diaphoretic, in the doſe of from ten to forty drops.

Olĕum anīsi essentiāle. The eſſential oil of aniſeed poſſeſſes all the virtues attributed to the aniſum, and is often given as a ſtimulant and carminative, in the doſe of from five to eight drops, mixed with an appropriate vehicle. See *Aniſum*.

Olĕum camphorātum. In retenſions of urine, rheumatic pains, diſtentions of the abdomen from aſcites; tenſion of the ſkin from abſceſs, this is an excellent application.

Olĕum carpathĭcum. A fine eſſential oil, diſtilled from the freſh, cones of the tree, which affords the common turpentine. See *Terebinthina vulgaris*.

Oleumcarŭi essentiāle. The eſſential oil of carraways is an admirable carminative, diluted with rectified ſpirit into an eſſence, and then mixed with any proper fluid.

Olĕum caryŏphyllI aromatĭci essentiāle. A ſtimulant and aromatic preparation of the clove.

Olĕum cedrĭnum. *Eſſentia de cedro*. The oil of the peel of citrons, obtained in a particular manner, without diſtillation, in Italy.

Oleum cinnamōmi essentiāle. A warm, ſtimulant, and delicious ſtomachic. Given in the doſe of from one to three drops, rubbed down with ſome yolk of egg, in a little wine, it allays violent emotions of the ſtomach from morbid irritability, and is particularly ſerviceable in debility of the primæ viæ, after cholera morbus.

Olĕum cornu cervi. This is applied externally as a ſtimulant to paralytic affections of the limbs.

Olĕum e seminibus lini. Linſeed oil is emollient and demulcent, in the doſe of from half an ounce to an ounce. It is frequently given in the form of glyſter in colics and obſtipation. Cold drawn linſeed oil, with lime water and extract of lead, forms in many inſtances the beſt application for burns and ſcalds.

Olĕum e seminibus rĭcĭni. See *Ricinus*.

Olĕum gabĭanum. See *Petroleum rubrum*.

Olĕum junipĕri essentiāle. Oil of juniper berries poſſeſſes ſtimulant, carminative, and ſtomachic virtues, in the doſe of from two to four drops, and in a larger doſe proves highly diuretic. It is often adminiſtered in the cure of dropſical complaints, when the indication is to provoke the urinal diſcharge.

OLĔUM LAVENDŬLÆ ESSENTIALE. Though moſtly uſed as a perfume, this eſſential oil may be exhibited internally in the doſe of from one to five drops, as a ſtimulant in nervous head-aches, hyſteria and debility of the ſtomach.

OLĔUM LAURI BACCĀRUM EXPRESSUM. An anodyne and antiſpaſmodic application, generally rubbed on ſprains and bruiſes unattended with inflammation.

OLĔUM LAURĪNUM. *Oleum expreſſum baccarum lauri.* An almoſt inſipid fluid oil, obtained by expreſſing the berries of the bay-tree. It is principally uſed as a carminative in glyſters.

OLĔUM LIMŌNIS ESSENTIĀLE. The eſſential oil of lemons poſſeſſes ſtimulant and ſtomachic powers, but is principally uſed externally, mixed with ointments as a perfume.

OLĔUM LUCĬI PISCIS. See *Eſox lucius.*

OLĔUM MACIS. *Oleum myriſticæ expreſſum.* Oil of mace. A fragrant ſebaceous ſubſtance, expreſſed in the Eaſt Indies from the nutmeg. There are two kinds. The beſt is brought in ſtone jars, is ſomewhat ſoft, of a yellow colour, and reſembles in ſmell the nutmeg. The other is brought from Holland in flat ſquare cakes. The weak ſmell and faint colour warrants our ſuppoſing it to be the former kind ſophiſticated. Their uſe is chiefly external, in form of plaſter, unguent, or liniment.

OLĔUM MALABATHĬI. An oil ſmilar in flavour to that of cloves, brought from the Eaſt Indies, where it is ſaid to be drawn from the leaves of the cinnamon-tree.

OLĔUM MENTHÆ PIPERITĬDIS. Eſſential oil of peppermint poſſeſſes all the active principle of the plant. It is moſtly uſed to make the ſimple water: mixed with rectified ſpirit it forms an eſſence, which is put into a variety of compounds, as ſugar drops and trochiſches, which are exhibited as ſtimulants, carminatives, and ſtomachics.

OLĔUM MENTHÆ SATĪVÆ. This eſſential oil is moſtly in uſe for making the ſimple water, but may be exhibited in the doſe of from two to five drops as a carminative, ſtomachic, and ſtimulant.

OLĔUM NEROLI. *Eſſentia neroli.* The eſſential oil of the flowers of the ſeville orange tree. It is brought to us from Italy and France.

OLĔUM MYRĪSTĬCÆ ESSENTIĀLE. The eſſential oil of nutmegs is an excellent ſtimulant and aromatic, and may be exhibited in every caſe where ſuch remedies are indicated, with advantage.

OLĔUM MYRĪSTĬCÆ EXPRESSUM. This is commonly called oil of mace. See *Oleum macis.*

OLĔUM OLĪVÆ. See *Oliva.*

OLĔUM ORIGĂNI ESSENTIĀLE. A very acrid and ſtimulating eſſential oil. It is employed for alleviating the pain ariſing from caries of the teeth, and for making the ſimple water of marjoram.

OLĔUM PALMÆ. See *Palm oil.*

OLĔUM PETRÆ. See *Petroleum.*

OLĔUM PIMENTO ESSENTIĀLE. A ſtimulant and aromatic oil.

OLĔUM PULEGĬI ESSENTIĀLE. A ſtimulant and antiſpaſmodic oil, which may be exhibited in hyſterical and nervous affections.

OLĔUM RORIS MARINĪ ESSENTIĀLE. The eſſential oil of roſemary is an excellent ſtimulant, and may be given with great advantage in nervous and ſpaſmodic affections of the ſtomach.

OLĔUM SABĪNÆ ESSENTIĀLE. A ſtimulating emmenagogue: it is beſt adminiſtered with myrrh, in the form of bolus.

OLĔUM SASSAFRAS. An agreeable ſtimulating ſtomachic carminative and ſudorific.

OLĔUM SINAPĔOS. This is an

emollient oil, the acrid principle of the muſtard remaining in the ſeed.

Olĕum succĭni. Oil of amber is moſtly uſed externally as a ſtimulating application to paralytic limbs, or thoſe affected with cramp and rheumatiſm. Hooping cough, and other convulſive diſeaſes, are ſaid to be relieved alſo by rubbing the ſpine with this oil.

Olĕum succĭni rectificātum. Stimulant, diaphoretic, and antiſpaſmodic virtues, reſide in this preparation, which is given in the doſe of from ten to twenty drops, or more, in hyſterical affections, epilepſy, and other convulſive diſeaſes.

Olĕum sulphurātum. This, which was formerly called ſimple balſam of ſulphur, is an acrid and ſtimulating preparation, and much praiſed by ſome in the cure of coughs and other phthiſical complaints.

Olĕum syriæ. A fragrant eſſential oil, obtained by diſtillation from the balm of gilead plant. See *Moldavica*.

Olĕum templinum. *Oleum templinum verum.* A terebinthinate oil obtained from the freſh cones of the *Pinus abies* of Linnæus.

Olĕum terræ. See *Petroleum*.

Olĕum terebinthĭnæ. Bruiſes, ſprains, rheumatic pains, and ſome affections of the joint, are relieved by liniments in which this is the chief article. Mixed with ointments it is employed as a ſtimulating detergent.

Olĕum terebinthĭnæ rectificātum. Stimulant, diuretic, and ſudoriſic virtues are attributed to this preparation, in the doſe of from ten drops to twenty, which are given in rheumatic pains of the chronic kind, eſpecially ſciatica. Its chief uſe internally, however, is as an anthelmintic and ſtyptic. Uterine, pulmonic, gaſtric, inteſtinal, and other hemorrhages, when paſſive, are more effectually relieved by its exhibition than by any other medicine.

Olĕum vinĭ. Stimulant and anodyne in the doſe of from one to four drops.

Olĕum vitrĭoli. See *Sulphureous acid*.

Olfactory nerves, (*Nervi olfactorii*; from *olfactus*, the ſenſe of ſmelling). The firſt pair of nerves are ſo termed, becauſe they are the organs of ſmelling. They ariſe from the corpora ſtriata, perforate the ethmoid bone, and are diſtributed very numerouſly on the pituitary membrane of the noſe.

Olĭbănum, (*Olibanum*, *i*, n. λιβανον; from *lebona*, Chald.). *Thus.* Frankincenſe. The gum-reſin that is ſo called is the juice of the *Juniperus lycia*. *Juniperus foliis ternis undique imbricatis ovatis obtuſis.* Claſs *Dioecia*. Order *Monadelphia*. It is ſaid to ooze ſpontaneouſly from the bark of the tree, appearing in drops or tears of a pale yelloviſh, and ſometimes of a reddiſh colour. Olibanum has a moderately ſtrong and not very agreeable ſmell, and a bitteriſh, ſomewhat pungent taſte: in chewing it ſticks to the teeth, becomes white, and renders the ſaliva milky. It is eſteemed as an adſtringent, and though not in general uſe, is by many conſidered as a valuable medicine in fluor albus, and debilities of the ſtomach and inteſtines: applied externally in form of plaſter, it is ſaid to be corroborant, &c. and with this intention it forms the baſis of the *emplaſtrum thuris*.

Olīva. The olive. The fruit of the *Olea europea* of Linnæus. *Olea foliis lanceolatis integerrimis, racemis axillaribus coarctatis.* Hort. Kew. Claſs *Monandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The olive-tree, in all ages, has been greatly celebrated, and held in peculiar eſtimation, as the bounteous gift of heaven; it was formerly exhibited in the religious ceremonies of the Jews,

and is ſtill conſidered as emblematic of peace and plenty. The utility of the fruit is very extenſive. Pickled olives, which are of two kinds, Spaniſh and French, are extremely grateful to many ſtomachs, and ſaid to excite appetite and promote digeſtion; they are prepared from the green unripe fruit, which is repeatedly ſteeped in water, to which ſome quick-lime or alkaline ſalt is added, in order to ſhorten the operation: after this they are waſhed and preſerved in a pickle of common ſalt and water, to which an aromatic is ſometimes added. The principal conſumption, however, of this fruit is in the preparation of the common ſallad oil, or *oleum olivæ* of the pharmacopœias, which is obtained by grinding and preſſing them when thoroughly ripe: the finer and purer oil iſſues firſt by gentle preſſure, and the inferior ſorts on heating what is left, and preſſing it more ſtrongly. The beſt olive oil is of a bright pale amber colour, bland to the taſte, and without any ſmell: it becomes rancid by age, and ſooner if kept in a warm ſituation. With regard to its utility, oil, in ſome ſhape, forms a conſiderable part of our food, both animal and vegetable, and affords much nouriſhment. With ſome, however, oily ſubſtances do not unite with the contents of the ſtomach, and are frequently brought up by eructation; this happens more eſpecially to thoſe whoſe ſtomachs abound with acid. Oil, conſidered as a medicine, is ſuppoſed to correct acrimony, and to lubricate and relax the fibres; and therefore has been recommended internally, to obviate the effects of various ſtimuli, which produce irritation, and conſequent inflammation: on this ground it has been generally preſcribed in coughs, catarrhal affections, and eroſions. The oil of olives is ſucceſsfully uſed in Switzerland againſt the *tænia oſculis ſuperficialibus*, and it is in ver high eſtimation in this and othe countries againſt nephritic pain ſpaſms, cholic, conſtipation of th bowels, &c. Externally it has bee found an uſeful application to bite and ſtings of various poiſonous an mals, as the mad dog, ſeveral ſe pents, &c. alſo to burns, tumour and other affections, both by itſe or mixed in liniments or poultice Oil rubbed over the body is ſaid to b of great ſervice in dropſies, particu larly aſcites. Olive oil enters ſeveral officinal compoſitions, and whe united with water, by the interven tion of alkali, is uſually given i coughs and hoarſeneſſes.

OLIVES. See *Oliva*.

OLIVE, SPURGE. See *Mezereum*.

OMENTĪTIS, (*Omentītis, ĭdis*, from *omentum*, the cawl). Inflammation of the omentum, a ſpecies o peritonitis.

OMENTUM, (*Omentum, i*, n. from *omen*, a gueſs; ſo called becauſe th ſoothſayers propheſied from an in ſpection of this part). *Epiploon* The caul. An adipoſe membranou viſcus of the abdomen, that is attache to the ſtomach, and lies on the an terior ſurface of the inteſtines. It i thin and eaſily torn, being formed o a duplicature of the peritoneum with more or leſs of fat interpoſed. I is diſtinguiſhed into the great omen tum and the little omentum.

The great omentum, which is alſ termed *gaſtrocolicum*, ariſes from th whole of the great curvature of th ſtomach, even as far as the ſpleen from whence it deſcends looſel behind the abdominal parietes, an over the inteſtines to the navel, an ſometimes into the pelvis. Havin deſcended thus far, its inferior mar gin turns inwards and aſcends again and is faſtened to the colon and th ſpleen, where its veſſels enter.

The ſmall omentum, or *hepatic*

ſtricum, ariſes poſteriorly from the anſverſe fiſſure of the liver. It is ompoſed of a duplicature of peri-neum, paſſes over the duodenum id ſmall lobe of the liver; it alſo aſſes by the lobulus ſpigelii and pan-eas, proceeds into the colon and nall curvature of the ſtomach, and implanted ligamentous into the ſophagus. It is in this omentum iat Winſlow diſcovered a natural pening, which goes by his name. f air be blown in at the foramen of Vinſlow, which is always found be-ind the lobulus ſpigelii, between ie right ſide of the liver and hepatic eſſels, the vena portarum and duo-enum, the cavity of the omentum, nd all its ſacs may be diſtended.

The omentum is always double, nd between its lamellæ cloſely con-ected by very tender cellular ſub-ance, the veſſels are diſtributed and he fat collected. Where the top f the right kidney, and the lobulus pigelius of the liver, with the ſub-acent large veſſels, form an angle vith the duodenum, there the exter-al membrane of the colon, which omes from the peritoneum joining vith the membrane of the duodenum, which alſo ariſes immediately from he peritoneum lying upon the kid-ey, enters back into the tranſverſe iſſure of the liver for a conſiderable pace, is continuous with its external coat, contains the gall-bladder, ſup-ports the hepatic veſſels, and is very yellow and ſlippery. Behind this membranous production, betwixt the right lobe of the liver, hepatic veſ-ſels, vena portarum, biliary ducts, aorta, and adjacent duodenum, there is the natural opening juſt mentioned, by which air may be blown extenſively into all the cavity of the omentum. From thence, in a courſe continuous with this membrane from the pylorus and the ſmaller curvature of the ſtomach, the external membrane of the liver joins in ſuch a manner with that of the ſtomach, that the thin membrane of the liver is continued out of the foſſa of the venal duct acroſs the little lobe into the ſtomach ſtretched before the lobe and before the pancreas. This little omentum, or *hepatico-gaſtricum*, when inflated, reſembles a cone, and gradually becoming harder and emaciated, it changes into a true ligament, by which the œſophagus is connected to the diaphragm. But the larger omentum, the *gaſtrocalicum*, is of a much greater extent. It begins at the firſt acceſſion of the right gaſtro-epiploic artery to the ſtomach, being continued there from the upper plate of the tranſverſe meſocolon; and then from the whole great curve of the ſtomach, as far as the ſpleen, and alſo from the right convex end of the ſtomach towards the ſpleen, until it alſo terminates in a ligament, that ties the upper and back part of the ſpleen to the ſtomach: this is the anterior lamina. Being continued downward, ſometimes to the navel, ſometimes to the pelvis, it hangs before the inteſtines, and behind the muſcles of the abdomen, until its lower edge being reflected upon itſelf, aſcends, leaving an intermediate vacuity between it and the anterior lamina, and is continued to a very great extent into the external membrane of the tranſverſe colon, and laſtly, into the ſinus of the ſpleen, by which the large blood veſſels are received, and it ends finally on the œſophagus, under the diaphragm. Behind the ſtomach, and before the pancreas, its cavity is continuous with that of the ſmaller omentum. To this the omentum colicum is connected, which ariſes farther to the right than the firſt origin of the omentum gaſtrocolicum from the meſocolon, with the cavity of which it is continuous, but produced ſolely

from the colon and its external membrane, which departs double from the inteſtine; it is prolonged, and terminates by a conical extremity, ſometimes of longer, ſometimes of ſhorter extent, above the inteſtinum cæcum. For all the blood which returns from the omentum and meſocolon, goes into the vena portarum, and by that into the liver itſelf. The omentum gaſtrocolicum is furniſhed with blood from each of the gaſtro-epiploic arteries, by many deſcending articulated branches, of which the moſt lateral are the longeſt, and the loweſt anaſtomoſe by minute twigs with thoſe of the colon. It alſo has branches from the ſpleenic, duodenal, and adipoſe arteries. The omentum colicum has its arteries from the colon, as alſo the ſmaller appendices, and alſo from the duodenal and right epiploic. The arteries of the ſmall omentum come from the hepatics, and from the right and left coronaries. The omentum being fat and indolent, has very ſmall nerves. They ariſe from the nerves of the eight pair, both in the greater and leſſer curvatures of the ſtomach. The arteries of the meſentery are in general the ſame with thoſe which go to the inteſtine, and of which the ſmaller branches remain in the glands and fat of the meſentery. Various ſmall acceſſory arteries go to both meſocolons from the intercoſtals, ſpermatics, lumbars, and capſulary, to the tranſverſe portion from the ſplenic artery and pancreato-duodenalis, and to the left meſocolon, from the branches of the aorta going to the lumbar glands. The veins of the omentum in general accompany the arteries, and unite into ſimilar trunks; thoſe of the left part of the gaſtrocolic omentum into the ſplenic, and alſo thoſe of the hepatigaſtric, which likewiſe ſends its blood to the trunk of the vena portarum: thoſe from the larger and right part of the gaſtrocolic omentum, from the omentum colicum, and from the appendices epiploides, into the meſenteric trunk. All the veins of the meſentery meet together in one wick in the trunk of the large vena portarum, being collected firſt into two large branches of which the one, the meſenteric, receives the gaſtro-epiploic vein, the colicæ mediæ, the iliocolica, and all thoſe of the ſmall inteſtines as far as the duodenum; the other, which going tranſverſely inſerts itſelf into the former, above the origin of the duodenum, carries back the blood of the left gaſtric veins, and thoſe of the rectum, except the lowermoſt which belongs partly to thoſe of the bladder, and partly to the hypogaſtric branches of the pelvis. The vein which is called hæmorrhoidalis interna is ſometimes inſerted rather into the ſplenic than into the meſenteric vein. Has the omentum alſo lymphatic veſſels? Certainly there are conglobate glands, both in the little omentum and in the gaſtro-colicum; and ancient anatomiſts have obſerved pellucid veſſels in the omentum; and a modern has deſcribed them for lacteals of the ſtomach.

OMENTUM GASTRO-COLĬCUM. See *Omentum*.

OMĔNTUM HEPATĬCO-GASTRĬCUM. See *Omentum*.

OMO. Names compounded with this word belong to muſcles which are attached to the ſcapula; from ὠμος, the ſhoulder. As,

OMO-HYOIDĒUS. *Coraco-hyoideus* of Albinus and Douglas. A muſcle ſituated between the os hyoides and ſhoulder, that pulls the os hyoides obliquely downwards. It ariſes broad, thin, and fleſhy from the ſuperior coſta of the ſcapula, near the ſemilunar notch, and from the ligament that runs acroſs it; thence aſcending obliquely, it becomes tendinous below the ſterno-cleido-maſtoideus, and growing fleſhy

gain, is inserted into the baſe of the s hyoides.

Omoplăta, (*Omoplata, æ*, f. μοπλατη; from ωμος, the ſhoulder, nd πλατυς, broad). See *Scapula.*

Omphălocēle, (*Omphalocele, es*, . ομφαλοκηλη; from ομφαλος, the avel, and κηλη, a tumour). An um- elical hernia. See *Hernia.*

Oneirodynĭa, (*Oneirodynia, æ*, . ονειροδυνια; from ονειρον, a dream, nd οδυνη, anxiety). Diſturbed ima- ination during ſleep. A genus of iſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes*, and or- er *veſaniæ* of Cullen, containing two pecies: 1. *Oneirodynia activa*, walk- ng in the ſleep. 2. *Oneirodynia gra- ans*, the incubus or night-mare. See *Night-mare.*

Onion. See *Cepa.*

Onion, sea. See *Scilla.*

Oniscus, (*Oniſcus, i*, ονισκος; rom ονος, an aſs; ſo called becauſe ike the aſs it requires much beating before it is uſeful). The ſtock-fiſh. Alſo the ſlow-worm.

Oniscus aselLus. The ſyſ- ematic name of the woodlouſe. See *Millepodes.*

Onōnis, (*Ononis, is*, f. ονωνις; rom ονος, an aſs, becauſe it interrupts aſſes when at plough). *Reſta bovis. Arreſta bovis. Remora aratri.* Reſt harrow. The roots of this plant, *Ononis ſpinoſa, vel arvenſis* of Linnæ- us, have a faint unpleaſant ſmell, and a ſweetiſh, bitteriſh, ſomewhat nau- ſeous taſte. Their active matter is confined to the cortical part, which has been ſometimes given in powder, or other forms, as an aperient and diuretic.

Onōnis arvensis. The ſyſ- tematic name of the reſt harrow. See *Ononis.*

Onōnis spinōsa. The ſyſ- tematic name of the reſt harrow. See *Ononis.*

Onosma echioides. The ſyſ- tematic name of the plant whoſe root is called *Anchuſa lutea* in ſome phar- macopœias. It is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs menagogue virtues.

Onopordĭum acanthĭum, (*Onopordium, i*, n. ονοπορδον; from ονος, an aſs, and πεδω, to break wind; ſo named from its being much coveted by aſſes, and from the noiſe it makes upon preſſure, and *acanthi- um*, from ακανθιος, thorny). The ſyſtematic name of the cotton thiſtle. See *Carduus tormentoſus.*

Onyx, (*Onyx, ĭchis*, m. & f. ονυξ). *Unguis.* An abſceſs, or collection of pus between the lamella of the cornea; ſo called from its reſemblance to the ſtone called onyx. The diag- noſtic ſigns are, a white ſpot or ſpeck, prominent, ſoft, and fluctuat- ing. The ſpecies are: 1. *Abſceſſus ſuperficialis*, ariſing from inflamma- tion, not dangerous, for it vaniſhes when the inflammation is reſolved by the uſe of aſtringent collyria. 2. *Abſceſſus profundus*, or a deep abſceſs, which is deeper ſeated between the lamellæ of the cornea, ſometimes breaking internally, and forming an hypopium: when it opens externally it leaves a fiſtula upon the cornea; whenever the pus is exſiccated, there remains a leucoma.

Ophiorrhīza mungos. The ſyſtematic name of the plant whoſe root is called radix ſerpentum in the pharmacopœias. See *Mungos radix.*

Ophioxўlum serpentīnum. The ſyſtematic name of the tree whoſe wood is termed lignum ſerpen- tinum. See *Serpentinum lignum.*

Ophthalmĭa, (*Ophthalmia, æ*, f. οφθαλμια; from οφθαλμος, the eye). An inflammation of the membranes of the eye, or of the whole bulb of the eye, diſtinguiſhable by redneſs, heat, pain, and tenſion of the parts, accompanied with intolerance of light, and effuſion of tears. It is a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ*, and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen; aud comprehends two ſpecies: 1. *Oph- thalmia membranarum*, inflammation

of the coats of the eye. 2. *Ophthalmia tarsi*, in which small ulcers are seen of the sebaceous glands of the tarsus, discharging a glutinous matter.

Ophthalmic ganglion. *Ganglion ophthalmicum.* Lenticular ganglion. This ganglion is formed in the orbit, by the union of a branch of the third or fourth pair with the first branch of the fifth pair of nerves.

Ophthalmic nerve. *Nervus ophthalmicus.* Orbital nerve. The first branch of the ganglion or expansion of the fifth pair of nerves. It is from this nerve that a branch is given off, to form, with a branch of the sixth, the great intercostal nerve.

Ophthalmodynia, (*Ophthalmodynia, æ*, f. οφθαλμοδυνια, from οφθαλμος, an eye, and οδυνη, pain). A vehement pain in the eye, without, or with very little redness. The sensation of pain is various, as itching, burning, or as if gravel were between the globe of the eye and lids. The species are: 1. *Ophthalmodynia rheumatica*, which is a pain in the muscular expansions of the globe of the eye, without redness in the albuginea. The rheumatic inflammation is serous, and rarely produces redness. 2. *Ophthalmodynia periodica*, is a periodical pain in the eye, without redness. 3. *Ophthalmodynia spasmodica*, is a pressing pain in the bulb of the eye, arising from spasmodic contractions of the muscles of the eye, in nervous, hysteric, and hypochondriac persons. It is observed to terminate by a flow of tears. 4. *Ophthalmodynia from an internal inflammation* of the eye. In this disorder, there is a pain and sensation as if the globe was pressed out of the orbit. 5. *Ophthalmodinia hydrophthalmica.* After a great pain in the inferior part of the os frontis, the sight is obscured, the pupil is dilated, and the bulb of the eye appears larger, pressing on the lid. This species is likewise perceived from an incipient hydrophthalmia of the vitreous humour. 6. *Ophthalmodynia arenosa*, is an itching and sensation of pain in the eye, as if sand or gravel were lodged between the globe and lid. 7. *Ophthalmodynia symptomatica*, which is a symptom of some other eye disease, and is to be cured by removing the exciting cause. 8. *Ophthalmodynia cancrosa*, which arise from cancerous acrimony deposited in the eye, and is rarely curable.

Ophthalmoptōsis, (*Ophthalmoptosis, is*, f. οφθαλμοπτωσις, from οφθαλμος, an eye, and πτωσις, a fall) A falling down of the globe of the eye on the cheek, canthus, or upwards, the globe itself being scarce altered in magnitude. The cause is a relaxation of the muscles, and ligamentous expansions of the globe of the eye. The species are: 1. *Ophthalmoptosis violenta*, which is generated by a violent contusion or strong stroke, as happens sometimes in boxing. The eye falls out of the socket on the cheek or canthus of the eye, and from the elongation and extension of the optic nerve occasions immediate blindness. 2. *Ophthalmoptosis*, from a tumour within the orbit. An exostosis, tophs, abscess, encysted tumours, as, atheroma, hygroma, or scirrhus, forming within the orbit, induration of the orbital adeps, may throw the bulb of the eye out of the socket upwards, downwards, or towards either canthus. 3. *Ophthalmoptosis paralytica*, or the paralytic ophthalmoptosis, which arises from a paralysis or palsy of the recti muscles, from hence a stronger power in the oblique muscles of the bulb. 4. *Ophthalmoptosis staphylomatica*, when the staphyloma depresses the inferior eyelid and extends on the cheek.

Opiates. *Medicamenta opiata.* Medicines that procure sleep, &c. See *Anodynes*.

Opisthŏtŏnos, (*Opisthotonus, i*, m. οπισθοτονος, from οπισθεν, backwards, and τεινω, to draw). A clonic spasm of several muscles, so as to keep the

body in a fixed position, and bent backwards. Cullen considers it as a variety of tetanus. See *Tetanus*.

Opium, (*Opium, i*, n. οπιον, from οπος, juice, or rather from *opi*, Arab.). A gummy juice obtained by incisions from the head of the *papaver somniferum* of Linnæus. *Papaver capsulis capsuliſque glabris, foliis amplexicaulibus incisis.* Class *Polyandria*. Order *Monogynia*; in Persia, Arabia, and other warm regions of Asia. It is imported into Europe in flat cakes, covered with leaves to prevent their sticking together; it has a reddish brown colour, and a strong peculiar smell; its taste at first is nauseous and bitter, but soon becomes acrid, and produces a slight warmth in the mouth. The use of this celebrated medicine, though not known to Hippocrates, can be clearly traced back to Diagoras, who was nearly his cotemporary, and its importance has ever since been gradually advanced by succeeding physicians of different nations. Its extensive practical utility, however, has not been long well understood; and in this country perhaps may be dated from the time of Sydenham. Opium is the chief narcotic now employed; it acts directly upon the nervous power, diminishing the sensibility, irritability, and mobility of the system; and, according to Cullen, in a certain manner suspending the motion of the nervous fluid to and from the brain, and thereby inducing sleep, one of its principal effects. From this sedative power of opium, by which it allays pain, inordinate action, and restlessness, it naturally follows, that it may be employed with advantage in a great variety of diseases. Indeed, there is scarcely any disorder in which, under some circumstances, its use is not found proper; and though in many cases it fails of producing sleep, yet, if taken in a full dose, it occasions a pleasant tranquillity of mind, and a drowsiness, which approaches to sleep, and which always refreshes the patient. Besides the sedative power of opium, it is known to act more or less as a stimulant, when given in a larger dose, exciting the motion of the blood. By a certain conjoined effort of this sedative and stimulant effect, opium has been thought to produce intoxication, a quality for which it is much used in eastern countries. It is frequently employed in fevers where there is no inflammatory diathesis; in hæmorrhages, dysentery, diarrhœas, cholera, and pyrosis; colic, tetanus, and all convulsive disorders. Respecting the external application of opium, authors seem not sufficiently agreed. Some allege, that when applied to the skin it allays pain and spasm, procures sleep, and produces all the salutary or dangerous effects which result from its internal use; while others say, that thus applied it has little or no effect whatever. It has also been asserted, that when mixed with caustic it diminishes the pain which would otherwise ensue; and if this be true, it is probably by decreasing the sensibility of the part. Injected by the rectum, it has all the effect of opium taken into the stomach; but to answer this purpose, double the quantity is to be employed. Applied to the naked nerves of animals, it produces immediate torpor and loss of power in all the muscles with which the nerves communicate. Opium, taken into the stomach in immoderate doses, proves a narcotic poison, producing vertigo, tremors, convulsions, delirium, stupor, stertor, and finally, fatal apoplexy. In the year 1779, opium was introduced into practice as a specific against the lues venerea. It was employed in several of the military hospitals, where it acquired the reputation of a most efficacious remedy; and Dr. Michaelis, physician of the Hessian forces, published

an account of a great number of ſucceſsful experiments made with it, in the firſt volume of the Medical Communications in the year 1784. Opium was afterwards given as an antivenereal remedy in ſome foreign hoſpitals. Many trials were alſo made of its virtues in ſeveral of the London hoſpitals, and in the Royal Infirmary at Edinburgh. Very favourable reports of its efficacy in removing venereal complaints were publiſhed by different practitioners; but, at the ſame time, ſo many deductions were to be made, and ſo many exceptions were to be admitted, that it required little ſagacity to diſcover, that moſt of the advocates for this medicine repoſed but a ſlender and fluctuating confidence in its antivenereal powers. Mr. Pearſon made ſeveral experiments on the virtues of opium in lues venerea at the Lock Hoſpital in the year 1784 and 1785; and publiſhed a narrative of its effects, in the ſecond volume of the Medical Communications.

The reſult of my experiments, ſays he, was very unfavourable to the credit of this new remedy; and I believe that no ſurgeon in this country relies on opium as a ſpecific againſt the venereal virus. I have been long accuſtomed to adminiſter opium with great freedom during the venereal courſe; and the experience of nearly twenty years has taught me, that when it is combined with mercury, the proper efficacy of the latter is not in any meaſure increaſed; that it would not be ſafe to rely upon a ſmaller quantity of the mineral ſpecific, not to contract the mercurial courſe within a ſhorter limit than where no opium has been employed. This repreſentation will not, I preſume, admit of controverſy; yet we frequently hear people expreſſing themſelves upon this head, as if opium manifeſted ſome peculiar qualities in venereal complaints, of a diſtinct nature from its well known narcotic properties, and thus afforded an important aid to mercury in the removal of lues venerea. Perhaps it may not be unuſeful to diſentangle this ſubject from the perplexity in which ſuch indefinite language neceſſarily involves it. Opium, when given in conjunction with mercury, by diminiſhing the ſenſibility of the ſtomach and bowels, prevents many of thoſe inconveniencies which this mineral is apt to excite in the primæ viæ; and thus its admiſſion into the general ſyſtem is facilitated. Mercury will likewiſe often produce a morbid irritability, accompanied with reſtleſſneſs and inſomnoleſcence, and it ſometimes renders venereal ſores painful and diſpoſed to ſpread. Theſe accidental evils, not neceſſarily connected with the venereal diſeaſe, may be commonly alleviated, and often intirely removed, by a judicious adminiſtration of opium; and the patient will conſequently be enabled to perſiſt in uſing the mineral ſpecific. it, however, muſt be perfectly obvious, that opium, in conferring this ſort of relief, communicates no additional virtues to mercury, and that, in reality, it aſſiſts the conſtitution of the patient, not the operation of the medicine with which it is combined. The ſalutary effects of mercury as an antidote, may be diminiſhed or loſt by the ſupervention of vomiting, dyſentery, &c. Opium will often correct theſe morbid appearances, and ſo will ſpices, wine, an appropriate diet, &c. yet it would be a ſtrange uſe of words to urge, wherever theſe articles of food were beneficial to a venereal patient, that they concurred in augmenting the medicinal virtues of mercury. It may be ſuppoſed that the majority of medical men would underſtand by the terms, "to aſſiſt a medicine in curing a contagious diſeaſe," that the drug conjoined with the ſpecific actually increaſed its medicinal efficacy; whereas, in the

instances before us, it is the human body only which has been aided to resist the operation of certain noxious powers, which would render a preference in the antidote prejudicial or impossible. The soothing qualities of this admirable medicine can scarcely be estimated too highly. Yet we must beware of ascribing effects to them which have no existence; since a confidence in the antivenereal virtues of opium would be a source of greater mischief, than its most valuable properties would be able to compensate. The officinal preparations of this drug are, *opium purificatum*, *pilulæ ex opio*, *pulvis opiatus*, *tinctura opii*, and *tinctura opii camphorata*: it is also an ingredient in the *pulvis sudorificus*, *balsamum anodynum*, *electuarium japonicum*, *pulvis e creta compositus*, &c.

Opobalsamum. See *Balsamum Gileadense*.

Opodeldoc, A term of no meaning, invented by Paracelsus. Formerly it signified a plaster for all external injuries, but now is confined to a camphorated soap liniment.

Opŏpanax, (*Opopanax*, *ăcis*, οποπανας, from οπος, juice, and παν, the panacea). The gummi-resinous juice of the *Pastinaca opopanax* of Linnæus, (*Pastinaca foliis pinnatis*, *foliolis basi antica excisis*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*), obtained by means of incisions made at the bottom of the stalk of the plant, from which it gradually exudes, and by undergoing spontaneous concretion, assumes the appearance under which we have it imported from Turkey and the East Indies, viz. sometimes in little drops or tears, more commonly in irregular lumps, of a reddish yellow colour on the outside, with specks of white; internally of a paler colour, and frequently variegated with large white pieces. Opopanax has a strong disagreeable smell, and a bitter, acrid, somewhat nauseous taste. It is only employed in the present practice as an antispasmodic, in combination with other medicines, although it was formerly in high estimation as an attenuant, deobstruent, and aperient. Its antispasmodic virtues are less powerful than galbanum, and more so than ammoniacum. It has no place in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, but is directed by the London College in the *pilulæ e gummi*.

Opponens pollicis. See *Flexor ossis metacarpi pollicis*.

Optic nerves, (*Nervi optici*, from οπτομαι, to see; because they are the organs of sight). They are the second pair of nerves of the brain, arise from the thalami nervorum opticorum, perforate the bulb of the eye, and in it form the retina.

Opuntia, (*Opuntia*, *æ*, f. *ab opunte*, from the city *Opus*, near which it flourished). The prickly leaves of this plant, *Cactus opuntia* of Linnæus, abound with a mucilaginous matter, which is esteemed in its native countries as an emolient, in the form of poultice.

Orache, stinking. See *Atriplex fœtida*.

Orange, *Aurantium*. China or sweet orange. *Aurantium sinensis*. *Aurantia dulcis*. This delicious fruit possesses all the virtues ascribed to the summer fruits, see *Fruits, summer*; and is of infinite utility in the cure of scurvy.

Orange, seville. See *Aurantium*.

Orange, shaddock. See *Shaddock*.

Orbiculāre os, (*Orbicularis*, shaped like a ring, from *orbiculus*, a little ring). A very small round bone, not larger than a pin-head, that belongs to the internal ear.

Orbiculāris oris, (*Musculus orbicularis oris*, from *orbiculus*, a little ring; so called from its shape). *Sphincter labiorum* of Douglas. *Semi*

orbicularis of Winslow. *Constrictor oris* of Cowper. A muscle of the mouth, formed in a great measure by those of the lips; the fibres of the superior descending, those of the inferior ascending and decussating each other about the corner of the mouth, they run along the lip to join those of the opposite side, so that the fleshy fibres appear to surround the mouth like a sphincter. Its use is to shut the mouth, by contracting and drawing both lips together, and to counteract all the muscles that assist in forming it.

ORBICULARIS PALPĔBRARUM, (*Orbicularis, scil. musculus*). A muscle common to both the eyelids. It arises by a number of fleshy fibres from the outer edge of the orbitar process of the superior maxillary bone, and from a tendon near the inner angle of the eye; these fibres run a little downwards and outwards, over the upper part of the cheek, below the orbit, covering the under eyelid, and surround the external angle, being closely connected only to the skin and fat; they then run over the superciliary ridge of the os frontis, towards the inner canthus, where they mix with the fibre of the occipito-frontalis and corrugator supercilii; then covering the upper eyelid, they descend to the inner angle opposite to their inferior origin, and firmly adhere to the internal angular process of the os frontis, and to the short round tendon which serves to fix the palpebræ and muscular fibres arising from it. It is inserted into the nasal process of the superior maxillary bone by a short round tendon, covering the anterior and upper part of the lachrymal sac, which tendon can be easily felt at the inner canthus of the eye. The use of this muscle is to shut the eye, by drawing both lids together, the fibres contracting from the outer angle towards the inner, press the eyeball, squeeze the lachrymal gland, and convey the tears towards the puncta lachrymalia.

ORBITS, (*Orbita, æ*, f.). The two conoid cavities under the forehead, in which the eyes are situated, are so termed. The angles of the orbits are called *canthi*. Each orbit is composed of seven bones, viz. the frontal, maxillary, jugal, lachrymal, ethmoid, palatine, and sphænoid. The use of this bony socket is to maintain and defend the organ of sight, and its adjacent parts.

ORCHIS, (*Orchis, is*, m. ορχις, from ορεγομαι, to desire). A testicle. Also a plant whose roots resemble the testicles.

ORCHIS BIFOLĬA. The systematic name of the butterfly orchis. See *Satyrion*.

ORCHIS MASCŬLA. The systematic name of the male orchis. See *Satyrion*.

ORCHIS MORĬO. The systematic name of the orchis from whose root the salep is made. See *Salep*.

ORCHĪTIS, (*Orchitis, ĭdis*, f. ορχιτις, from ορχις, a testicle). *Inflammatio testis. Hernia humoralis.* An inflammation of the testicle.

ORCHOTOMY, (*Orchotomia, æ*, f. ορχοτομια, from ορχις, a testicle, and τεμνω, to cut). Castration. The operation of extracting a testicle.

OREOSELINUM. (*Oreoselinum, i*, n. ορεοσελινον, from ορος, a mountain, and σελινον, parsley, so named because it grows wild upon mountains). Black mountain parsley. The root and seed of this plant, *Athaminta oreoselinum*; *foliolis divaricatis* of Linnæus, as well as the whole herb, were formerly used medicinally. Though formerly in so high estimation as to obtain the epithet of *polychesta*, this plant is seldom used in the practice of the present day. An extract and tincture prepared from the root were said to be attenuant, aperient, deobstruent, and lithontriptic. The oil obtained by distillation from the seed was esteemed to allay the toothach;

and the whole was recommended as an antiſcorbutic and corroborant.

ORĪGĂNUM, (*Origanum, i*, n. ορι-γανον, from ορος, a mountain, and γαιοω, to rejoice; ſo called becauſe it grows upon the ſide of mountains). Wild marjoram. *Origanum vulgare* of Linnæus. *Origanum ſpicis ſubrotundis paniculatis conglomeratis, bracteis calyce longioribus ovatis.* Claſs *Didynamia.* Order *Gymnoſpermia.* This plant grows wild in many parts of Britain. It has an agreeable aromatic ſmell, approaching to that of marjoram, and a pungent taſte, much reſembling thyme, to which it is likewiſe thought to be more readily allied in its medicinal qualities, and therefore deemed to be emmenagogue, tonic, ſtomachic, &c. The dried leaves uſed inſtead of tea, are ſaid to be exceedingly grateful. They are alſo employed in medicated baths and fomentations.

ORĪGĂNUM CRETĬCUM. See *Dictamnus creticus.*

ORĪGĂNUM DICTAMNUS. The ſyſtematic name of the dittany of Crete. See *Dictamnus creticus.*

ORĪGĂNUM MAJORĂNA. The ſyſtematic name of ſweet marjoram. See *Marjorana.*

ORĪGĂNUM SYRIACUM. The ſyſtematic name of the Syrian herb maſtich. See *Marum.*

ORĪGĂNUM VULGĂRE. The ſyſtematic name of the wild marjoram. See *Origanum.*

ORIS CONSTRICTOR. See *Orbicularis oris.*

ORLEANA TERRA, (*Orleana*, ſo named from the place where it grows). The ſubſtance ſo called is a ceraceous maſs obtained from the ſeeds of the *Bixa orleana* of Linnæus. In Jamaica and warm climates it is conſidered as a uſeful remedy in dyſentery, poſſeſſing adſtringent and ſtomachic qualities.

ORNITHOGĂLUM MARITĬMUM, (*Ornithogalum, i*, n. ορνιθογαλον, from ορνις, a bird, and γαλα, milk, ſo called from the colour of its flowers which are like the milk found in eggs). A kind of wild onion. See *Scilla.*

ORNITHOGLOSSUM, (*Ornithogloſſum, i*, n. ορνιθογλωσσον, from ορνις, a bird, and γλωσσα, a tongue, ſo called from its ſhape). Birds tongue. The ſeeds of the aſh tree, as ſometimes ſo called.

ORNITHOLOGY, (*Ornithologia, æ*, f. ορνιθολογια, from ορνις, a bird, and λογος, a diſcourſe). That part of natural hiſtory which treats of birds.

OROBUS, (*Orobus, i*, m. οροβος, from ερεπω, to eat). See *Ervum.*

OROBUS TUBERŌSUS. The heath pea. The root of this plant is ſaid to be nutritious. The Scotch Highlanders hold them in great eſteem, and chew them like tobacco.

ORPINE. See *Faba craſſa.*

ORPIMENT. Native orpiment is found in yellow, brilliant, and, as it were, talky maſſes, often mixed with realgar, and ſometimes of a greeniſh colour. See *Arſenic.*

ORTHOPNOEA, (*Orthopnoea, æ*, f. ορθοπνοια, from ορθρος, erect, and πνοη, breathing). A very quick and laborious breathing, during which the perſon is obliged to be in an erect poſture.

ORRIS, COMMON. See *Iris noſtras.*

ORRIS, FLORENTINE. See *Iris florentina.*

ORŸZA, (*Oryza, æ*, f. ορυζα, from *orez*, Arab.). Rice. The ſeeds of the *Oryza ſativa* of Linnæus. Rice is the principal food of the inhabitants in all parts of the Eaſt, where it is boiled and eaten, either alone or with their meat. Large quantities of it are annually ſent into Europe, and it meets with a general eſteem for family purpoſes. The people of Java have a method of making puddings of rice, which ſeems to be unknown here, but is not difficult to put in practice if it ſhould merit attention. They take a conical earthen pot, which is

open at the large end, and perforated all over: this they fill about half full with rice, and putting it into a larger earthen pot of the same shape, filled with boiling water, the rice in the first pot soon swells, and stops the perforations so as to keep out the water; by this method the rice is brought to a firm consistence, and forms a pudding, which is generally eaten with butter, oil, sugar, vinegar, and spices. The Indians eat stewed rice with good success against the bloody flux; and in most inflammatory disorders they cure themselves with only a decoction of it. The spirituous liquor called arrack is made from this grain. Rice grows naturally in moist places; and will not come to perfection, when cultivated, unless the ground be sometimes overflowed, or plentifully watered. The grain is of a grey colour when first reaped; but the growers have a method of whitening it before it is sent to market. The manner of performing this, and beating it out in Egypt, is thus described by Hasselquist: They have hollow iron cylindrical pestles, about an inch diameter, lifted by a wheel worked with oxen. A person sits between the pestles, and, as they rise, pushes forward the rice, whilst another winnows and supplies fresh parcels. Thus they continue working until it is entirely free from chaff. Having in this manner cleaned it, they add one thirtieth part of salt, and rub them both together, by which the grain acquires a whiteness; then it is passed through a sieve, to separate the salt again from it. In the island of Ceylon they have a much more expeditious method of getting out the rice; for, in the field where it is reaped they dig a round hole, with a level bottom, about a foot deep, and eight yards diameter, and fill it with bundles of corn. Having laid it properly, the women drive about half a dozen oxen continually round the pit; and thus they will tread out forty or fifty bushels a-day. This is a very ancient method of treading out corn, and is still practised in Africa upon other sorts of grain.

Oryza sativa. The systematic name of the rice plant. See *Oryza*.

Oscheocele, (*Oschocele*, es, f. οσχεοκηλη, from οσχεον, the scrotum, and κηλη, a tumour). This term is sometimes given to a tumour of the scrotum, from an accumulation of water, (see *Hydrocele*); and sometimes to a scrotal hernia, (see *Hernia*).

Oscitatio, (*Oscitatio*, onis, f. from *oscito*, to gape.) Yawning, Gaping.

Oscillation of Boerhaave. See *Irritability*.

Osculum, (*Osculum*, i, n. dim. of *os*, a mouth). A little mouth.

Osmunda regalis. The systematic name of the osmund royal. Its root possesses adstringent and styptic virtues.

Osmund royal. See *Osmunda regalis*.

Os, (*Os*, *ossis*, n.). See *Bone*.

Ossa spongiosa. The spongy bones are two in number, and are called *ossa spongiosa inferiora*. The ethmoid bone has two turbinated portions, which are sometimes called the superior spongy bones. These bones, which from their shape are sometimes called *ossa turbinata*, have, by some anatomists, been described as belonging to the ethmoid bone; and by others, as portions of the ossa palati. In young subjects, however, they are evidently distinct bones. They consist of a spongy lamella in each nostril. The convex surface of this lamella is turned towards the septum narium, and its concave part towards the maxillary bone, covering the opening of the lachrymal duct into the nose. From their upper edge arise two processes: the posterior of these, which is the broadest, hangs as it were upon the edge of the antrum Highmorianum; the anterior

one joins the os unguis, and forms a part of the lachrymal duct. These bones are complete in the fœtus. They are lined with the pituitary membrane; and, besides their connection with the ethmoid bone, are joined to the ossa maxillaria superiora, ossa palati, and ossa unguis. Besides these ossa spongiosa inferiora, there are sometimes two others, situated lower down, one in each nostril. These are very properly considered as a production of the sides of the maxillary sinus turned downwards. In many subjects, likewise, we find other smaller bones, standing out into the nostrils, which, from their shape, might also deserve the name of *turbinata*, but they are uncertain in their size, situation, and number.

Ossĭcŭla audītus. The small bones of the internal ear are four in number, viz. the malleus, incus, stapes, and os orbiculare; and are situated in the cavity of the tympanum. See *Malleus*, *Incus*, *Stapes*, and *Orbiculare os*.

Ossification, (*Ossificatio, onis*, f. from *os*, a bone, and *facio*, to make). See *Bone*.

Ossifraga, (*Ossifraga, æ*, f. from *os*, a bone, and *frango*, to break). A petrified root, called the bone binder, from its supposed virtues in uniting fractured bones.

Ossifragus. See *Osteocolla*.

Osteites, (ὀστεῖτης, from ὀστέον, a bone). The bone binder. See *Osteocolla*.

Osteocolla, (*Osteocolla, æ*, f. ὀστεοκόλλα, from ὀστέον, a bone, and κόλλα, to glue). *Ossifragus. Osteites. Ammosteus. Osteolithos. Stelochites. Bone binder.* A particular carbonate of lime, found in some parts of Germany, particularly in the Marché of Bandenburg, and in other countries. It is met with in loose sandy grounds, spreading from near the surface to a considerable depth, into a number of ramifications, like the roots of a tree; it is of a whitish colour, soft whilst under the earth, friable when dry, rough on the surface, for the most part either hollow within, or filled with a solid wood, or with a powdery white matter. It was formerly celebrated for promoting the coalition of fractured bones, and the formation of callus; which virtues are not attributed to it in the present day.

Osteocopus, (*Osteocopus, i*, m. ὀστεοκόπος, from ὀστέον, a bone, and κόπος, uneasiness). A very violent fixed pain in any part of the bone.

Osteogeny, (*Osteogenia, æ*, f. ὀστεογένεια, from ὀστέον, a bone, and γένεσις, generation). The growth of bones. See *Bone*.

Osteography, (*Osteographia, æ*, f. ὀστεογραφία, from ὀστέον, a bone, and γράφω, to describe). The description of the bones. See *Bone*.

Osteolithos, (*Osteolithos, i*, m. ὀστεόλιθος, from ὀστέον, a bone, and λίθος, a stone. See *Osteocolla*.

Osteology, (*Osteologia, æ*, f. ὀστεολογία, from ὀστέον, a bone, and λόγος, a discourse). The doctrine of the bones. See *Bone*.

Ostreum, (*Ostreum, i*, n. ὄστρεον, from ὄστρακον, a shell). The oyster. The shell of this fish is occasionally used medicinally; its virtues are similar to those of the carbonate of lime. See *Creta*.

Ostruthium, (*Ostruthium, i*, n. Blanchard calls it a corruption from *Laserpitium*). See *Imperatoria*.

Otalgĭa, (*Otalgia, æ*, f. ὠταλγία, from ὠς, the ear, and ἄλγος, pain). The ear-ache.

Otītis, (*Otitis, ĭdis*, f. ὠτῖτις, from ὠς, the ear). Inflammation of the internal ear. It is known by pyrexia, and an excruciating and throbbing pain in the internal ear, that is sometimes attended with delirium.

Ovarĭum, (*Ovarium, i*, n. dim. of *ovum*, an egg). The ovaria are two flat oval bodies, about one inch in

length, and rather more than half in breadth and thickneſs, ſuſpended in the broad ligaments, at about the diſtance of one inch from the uterus behind, and a little below the Fallopian tubes. To the ovaria, according to the idea of their ſtructure entertained by different anatomiſts, various uſes have been aſſigned, or the purpoſe they anſwer has been differently explained. Some have ſuppoſed that their texture was glandular, and that they ſecreted a fluid equivalent to, and ſimilar to the male ſemen; but others, who have examined them with more care, aſſert that they are ovaria in the literal acceptation of the term, and include a number of veſicles, or ova, to the amount of twenty-two of different ſizes, joined to the internal ſurface of the ovaria by cellular threads or pedicles; and that they contain a fluid which has the appearance of thin lymph. Theſe veſicles are, in fact, to be ſeen in the healthy ovaria of every young woman. They differ very much in their number in different ovaria, but are very ſeldom ſo numerous as has juſt been ſtated. All have agreed that the ovaria prepare whatever the female ſupplies towards the formation of the fœtus; and this is proved by the operation of ſpaying, which conſiſts in the extirpation of the ovaria, after which the animal not only loſes the power of conceiving, but deſire is for ever extinguiſhed. The outer coat of the ovaria, together with that of the uterus, is given by the peritonæum; and whenever an ovum is paſſed into the Fallopian tube, a fiſſure is obſerved at the part through which it is ſuppoſed to have been transferred. Theſe fiſſures healing, leave ſmall longitudinal cicatrices on the ſurface, which are ſaid to enable us to determine, whenever the ovarium is examined, the number of times a woman has conceived. The corpora lutea are oblong glandular bodies of a yellowiſh colour, found in the ovaria of all animals when pregnant, and, according to ſome, when they are ſalacious. They are ſaid to be calyces, from which the impregnated ovum has dropped; and their number is always in proportion to the number of conceptions found in the uterus. They are largeſt and moſt conſpicuous in the early ſtate of pregnancy, and remain for ſome time after delivery, when they gradually fade and wither till they diſappear. The corpora lutea are extremely vaſcular, except at their centre, which is whitiſh; and in the middle of the white part is a ſmall cavity, from which the impregnated ovum is thought to have immediately proceeded. The ovaria are the ſeat of a particular kind of dropſy, which moſt commonly happens to women at the time of the final ceſſation of the menſes, though not unfrequently at a more early period of life. It is of the encyſted kind, the fluid being ſometimes limpid and thin, and at others diſcoloured and gelatinous. In ſome caſes it has been found to be contained in one cyſt, often in ſeveral, and in others the whole tumefaction has been compoſed of hydatids not larger than grapes. The ovaria are alſo ſubject, eſpecially a ſhort time after delivery, to inflammation, terminating in ſuppuration, and to ſcirrhous and cancerous diſeaſes, with conſiderable enlargement. In the former ſtate, they generally adhere to ſome adjoining part, as the uterus, rectum, the bladder, or the external integuments, and the matter is diſcharged from the vagina by ſtool, by urine, or by an external abſceſs of the integuments of the abdomen.

OVIDUCT, (*Oviductus*, from *ovum*, an egg, and *ductus*, a canal). The Fallopian tube, or canal, which runs from the ovary to the bottom of the womb.

OVIPAROUS, (from *ovum*, an egg,

and *pario*, to bring forth). Animals which exclude their young in the egg, which are afterwards hatched.

Ovum, (*Ovum, i*, n.) See *Egg*.

Oxalats, (*Oxalas, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the combination of the oxalic acid with different baſes; thus, *oxalat of ammoniac*, &c.

Oxalic acid. *Acidum oxalicum*. Salt of ſorrel. Acid of ſugar. This acid is obtained by evaporating the freſh juice of ſorrel almoſt to the conſiſtence of honey, when it is to be poured into a glaſs veſſel with a narrow neck, and covered with a ſtratum of the oil of olives. After ſome weeks the ſides of the bottle are inveſted with a cruſt, which is the ſalt of ſorrel, or *oxalas potaſſæ acidulus*. The ſalt of ſorrel is then to be diſſolved in boiling water, and a ſmall quantity of the nitrate of barytes added to it, when the barytes will unite with the oxalic acid, and the potaſh with the nitric acid. The oxalat of barytes, which is precipitated, is then to be decompounded by digeſtion with ſulphuric acid, by which means the oxalic acid is let looſe. Formerly this acid was conſidered as different from that of ſugar, but it is now proved by experiments to be the ſame in all its properties.

Oxălis, (*Oxalis, ĭdis*, f. ὀξαλις, from ὀξυς, ſharp, ſo called from the ſharpneſs of its juice). Wood ſorrel.

Oxălis acetocella, (*Acetoſella, æ*, f. dim. of *acetoſa*). The ſyſtematic name of the wood ſorrel. See *Lugula*.

Ox-eye-daisy. See *Bellis major*.

Ox's-tongue. See *Picris echioides*.

Oxyacantha galēni, (*Oxyacantha, æ*, f. ὀξυακανθα, from ὀξυς, ſharp, and ακανθα, a thorn, ſo called from the acidity of its fruit). The Bar-berry. See *Berberis*.

Oxycoccos, (*Oxycoccos, i*, f. ὀξυκοκκος, from ὀξυς, acid, and κοκκος, a berry, ſo named from its acidity). The cranberry. The berries of the *Vaccinium oxycoccos* of Linnæus, are ſo termed in ſome pharmacopœias. They are about the ſize of our haws, and are pleaſantly acid, with which intention they are uſed medicinally in Sweden. In this country they are moſtly preſerved and made into tarts.

Oxyd, (*Oxydum, i*, n.). *Calx*. A ſubſtance formed by the union of oxygen with a baſis: thus, *oxyd of iron*, *oxyd of copper*, &c.

Oxydation. Oxygen gaz, that is, vital air, is decompoſed by metals, and ſome other bodies, at a higher or lower temperature; they combine with its baſis or oxygen, and form various compounds, the caloric being at the ſame time diſengaged, paſſes off in the ſtate of ſenſible heat. The operation by which this is effected is termed oxydation, and the compound bodies thus obtained are called *oxydes*.

Oxŷdum arsenĭci album. *Arſenicum calcinatum. Arſenicum album. Calx arſenici*. This is a moſt powerful cauſtic and poiſon. Internally it is ſaid to be given with advantage in elephantiaſis, and obſtinate diſeaſes of the ſkin, cancer, agues, and dropſies. It cannot be too carefully adminiſtered. The antidotes againſt it, when taken as a poiſon, are, ſolutions of ammoniacal ſulphuret, potaſh, or ſoda, the carbonate of potaſh or ſoda, ſoap, milk, fixed oils, and mucilages. See *Arſenic*.

Oxŷdum cupri virĭde acetātum. See *Ærugo Æris*.

Oxŷdum ferri lutĕum. See *Rubigo ferri*.

Oxŷdum ferri rubrum. *Colcothar vitrioli. Calx ferri rubra. Crocus martis*. This oxyd of iron is principally uſed as an external remedy to lax ulcers and condylomata.

Oxŷdum hydrargŷri nigrum. *Æthops per ſe. Pulvis mer-*

curialis cinereus. Mercurius cinereus. Turpethum nigrum. Mercurius præcipitatus niger. There are four preparations of this oxyd in high eſtimation: 1. The *oxydum hydrargyri gummoſum*, made by rubbing mercury with mucilage of gum arabic. Plenk, of Vienna, has written a treatiſe on the ſuperior efficacy of this medicine. It is very troubleſome to make; and does not appear to poſſeſs more virtues than ſome other mercurial preparations. 2. The *oxydum hydrargyri ſaccharatum*, made by triturating equal parts of ſugar and mercury together. 3. The *oxydum hydrargyri mellitum*, compoſed of equal parts of honey and hydrargyrus purificatus. 4. The *oxydum hydrargyri unguinoſum*, called *unguentum hydrargyri fortius* in the ſhops. All theſe preparations poſſeſs antihelmintic, antiſyphilitic, alterative, ſialagogue, and deobſtruent virtues, and are exhibited in the cure of worms, ſyphilis, amenorrhœa, diſeaſes of the ſkin, chronic diſeaſes, obſtructions of the viſcera, &c.

Oxŷdum hydrargŷri rubrum. A red oxyd of mercury may be obtained either by ſimple expoſure to heat and air, or by the nitric acid. See *Hydrargyrus calcinatus*, and *Hydrargyrus nitratus ruber*.

Oxŷdum plumbi album. See *Ceruſſa*.

Oxŷdum plumbi rubrum. *Minium. Calx plumbi rubra.* Red lead. The red oxyd of lead poſſeſſes adſtringent and ſedative virtues if cautiouſly exhibited. Its uſe in the preſent day is in form of powder or ointment, in the cure of ulcers, prurities, and ſome diſeaſes of the ſkin.

Oxydum plumbi semivitrĕum. *Lithargyrus. Lythargyrum.* This preparation of lead is employed to make the *Aqua lithargyri acetata*, whoſe uſe is very extenſive in the practice of ſurgery. See *Aqua lithargyri acetati*.

Oxŷdum stibĭi album. See *Antimonium calcinatum*.

Oxŷdum stibĭi semivitrĕum. *Vitrium antimonii.* This preparation of antimony is employed to make antimonial wine.

Oxydum stibĭi sulphurātum. *Hepar antimonii. Crocus metallorum. Crocus antimonii.* This preparation of antimony was formerly exhibited in the cure of fevers and atonic diſeaſes of the lungs. Its principal uſe now is in preparing other medicines.

Oxŷdum zinci album. See *Tutia*.

Oxŷdum zinci sublimātum. See *Zincum calcinatum*.

Oxŷdum zinci vitrĭolatum. See *Zincum vitriolatum*.

Oxygen, (*Oxygenĭum, i*, n. from ὀξυς, acid, and γινομαι, to generate, on account of the property it poſſeſſes of changing a great number of ſubſtances with which it unites into the ſtate of acid). Vital air. Baſis of vital air. Acidifying principle. Empyreal principle. Sorbile principle. Dephlogiſticated air. Vital air was firſt diſcovered by the celebrated Prieſtley. Mixed with azot it conſtitutes the atmoſpheric air. See *Atmoſpheric air*. It is the moſt general agent in the operations of nature; exiſts in combination with various ſubſtances; and it is by their decompoſition that it may be extracted and procured. All acids have vital air for their baſis. Meſſrs. Prieſtley, Ingenhouſz, and Sennebier diſcovered nearly at the ſame time, that vegetables expoſed to the light of the ſun emit vital air. Oxygenous gaz exhibits certain properties, according to its degree of purity, which depends in general upon the ſubſtances which afford it: viz. 1. It is more ponderous than the air of the atmoſphere; the cubic foot of atmoſpherical air weighing 720 grains, while that of pure air weighs 765. 2. Oxygenous gaz is the only proper fluid for combuſtion, which cauſed Scheele to call it the air of fire; and it is aſcertained, that combuſtion never

takes place without it; that in every combuſtion there is an abſorption of vital air; that there is an augmentation of weight in the products of combuſtion, equal to the weight of the vital air that is abſorbed; and that in all combuſtions there is a diſengagement of light and heat. 3. It is the only gaz proper for reſpiration, hence it is termed vital air. It has long been known that animals cannot live without the aſſiſtance of air, but the phenomena of reſpiration have been very imperfectly known until lately. Modern philoſophers have eſtabliſhed a number of intereſting experiments concerning it; and it is now aſcertained, that, during the paſſage of the blood through the lungs, there is an abſorption of oxygen into that which is contained in the pulmonary veins. 4. The baſis of vital air, united to the baſis of inflammable gas, conſtitutes water. 5. It diſcolours vegetable and animal ſubſtances. This air, mixed in a certain proportion with atmoſpheric air, has been exhibited with ſucceſs in putrid fevers, hyſteria, ulcers of the legs, &c. and all debilitated caſes.

Oxygenated muriatic acid. *Acidum muriaticum oxygenatum.* Take one part of the native oxyd of manganeſe, one of red precipitate of mercury or red lead, put it into a glaſs retort, and add four parts of concentrated muriatic acid. This, on diſtillation, affords a quantity of yellow aeriform fluid, which is oxygenated muriatic acid gaz, and by agitating it with water it combines and forms oxygenated muriatic acid. Oxygenated muriatic acid gaz has a yellow tranſparent colour, and poſſeſſes a peculiar and ſuffocating ſmell. It extinguiſhes bodies inflamed, and is the moſt noxious to the lungs of all the gazes with which we are acquainted.

Oxylapathum, (*Oxylapathum, i,* n. ὀξυλαπαθον, from ὀξυς, acid, and λαπαθον, the dock, ſo named from its acidity). *Lapathum acutum. Rumex acutus* of Linnæus. Sharp pointed dock. *Rumex floribus hermaphroditis; valvula dentatis graniferis, foliis cordato oblongis acuminatis.* The decoction of the root of this plant is uſed in Germany to cure the itch; and it appears to have been uſed in the time of Dioſcorides in the cure of leprous and impetigenous affections, both alone and boiled with vinegar.

Oxymel æruginis. This preparation is ordered in the place of *Mel Ægyptiacum*; it is applied externally as a detergent to keep down fungus fleſh. When ſufficiently diluted, it ſerves as an uſeful application to ſcrophulous ſores, and is often of ſervice to venereal ulceration of the mouth and fauces. When employed as a collutory, great care is required leſt any be ſwallowed.

Oxymel colchici. Oxymel of meadow ſaffron is an acrid medicine, but is nevertheleſs employed for its diuretic virtues in dropſies.

Oxymel scillæ. A very uſeful expectorant.

Oxyopia, (*Oxyopia, æ,* f. ὀξυωπια, from ὀξυς, acute, and ὀψις, viſion). The faculty of ſeeing more acutely than uſual Thus there have been inſtances known of perſons who could ſee the ſtars in the daytime. The proximate cauſe is a preternatural ſenſibility of the retina. It has been known to precede the gutta ſerena; and it has been aſſerted, that priſoners who have been long detained in darkneſs, have learned to read and write in darkened places.

Oxyphoenicon. See *Tamarindus.*

Oxys alba. See *Ligula.*

Oyster. See *Oſtreum.*

Oystershel. See *Oſtreum.*

Ozæna, (*Ozæna, æ,* f. ὀζαινα, from ὀζη, a ſtench). A malignant ulcer in the noſtrils.

P.

P. A contraction of *pugillus*, a pugil, or eighth part of a handful.

P. Æ. A contraction of *partes æquales*.

Pabŭlum, (*Pabulum*, *i*, n. from *paſco*, to feed). Food, aliment. The animal heat and animal ſpirits are called *pabulum vitæ*, the food of life.

Pacchionian glands. See *Glandulæ Pacchionæ*.

Padus. The wild cluſter cherry, or bird's cherry. *Prunus padus* of Linnæus. The bark and berries of this ſhrub are uſed medicinally. The former, when taken from the tree, has a fragrant ſmell, and a bitter, ſubaſtringent taſte, ſomewhat ſimilar to that of bitter almonds. Made into a decoction, it cures intermittents, and it has been recommended in the cure of the ſeveral forms of ſiphylis. The latter are ſaid to cure the dyſentery.

Pæonĭa, (*Pæonia*, *æ*, παιωνια, from *Pæon*, who firſt applied it to medicinal purpoſes). Common peony. Male and female peony. This plant, *Pæonia officinalis; foliis oblongis* of Linnæus, has long been conſidered as a powerful medicine; and, till the late reviſion by the London College, it had a place in the catalogue of the Materia Medica; in which the two common varieties of this plant are indiſcriminately directed for uſe: and, on the authority of G. Bauhin, improperly diſtinguiſhed into male and female peony.

The roots and ſeeds of peony have, when freſh, a faint, unpleaſant ſmell, ſomewhat of the narcotic kind, and a mucilaginous, ſubacrid taſte, with a ſlight degree of bitterneſs and adſtringency. In drying, they loſe their ſmell, and part of their taſte. Extracts made from them by water are almoſt inſipid, as well as inodorous; but extracts made by rectified ſpirit are manifeſtly bitteriſh, and conſiderably adſtringent. The flowers have rather more ſmell than any of the other parts of the plant, and a rough, ſweetiſh taſte, which they impart, together with their colour, both to water and ſpirit.

The roots, flowers, and ſeeds of peony, have been eſteemed in the character of an anodyne and corroborant, but more eſpecially the roots; which ſince the days of Galen have been very commonly employed as a remedy for the epilepſy. For this purpoſe, it was uſual to cut the root into thin ſlices, which were to be attached to a ſtring, and ſuſpended about the neck as an amulet; if this failed of ſucceſs, the patient was to have recourſe to the internal uſe of this root, which Willis directs to be given in the form of powder, and in the quantity of a drachm, two or three times a day, by which, as we are informed, both infants and adults were cured of this diſeaſe. Other

authors recommended the expreſſed juice to be given in wine, and ſweetened with ſugar, as the moſt effectual way of adminiſtering this plant. Many writers, however, eſpecially in modern times, from repeated trials of the peony in epileptic caſes, have found it of no uſe whatever; though Profeſſor Home, who gave the radix pæoniæ to two epileptics at the Edinburgh infirmary, declares that one received a temporary advantage from its uſe. Of the good effects of this plant in other diſorders we find no inſtances recorded.

PÆONĬA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the common peony. See *Pæonia*.

PAIGIL. See *Primula veris*.

PAIN, (*Dolor*, *oris*, m.). Any unpleaſant ſenſation or irritation.

PALATE. *Palatum*. The roof of the mouth.

PALĀTI CIRCUMFLEXUS. See *Circumflexus*.

PALĀTI LEVĀTOR. See *Levator palati*.

PALĀTI OSSA, (*Palatum*, *i*, n. from *palo*, to hedge in, becauſe it is ſtaked in as it were by the teeth). Theſe bones are of a very irregular figure. They are placed between the oſſa maxillaria ſuperiora and the os ſphenoides, at the back part of the roof of the mouth, and extend from thence to the bottom of the orbit. Each of theſe bones may be divided into four parts; viz. the inferior or ſquare portion, the pterygoid proceſs, the naſal lamella, and orbitar proceſs. The firſt of theſe, or the ſquare part of the bone, helps to form the palate of the mouth. The upper part of its internal edge riſes into a ſpine, which makes part of the ſeptum narium. The *pterygoid* proceſs, which is ſmaller above than below, is ſo named from its being united with the pterygoid proceſſes of the ſphenoid bone, with which it helps to form the pterygoid foſſæ. It is ſeparated from the ſquare part of the bone, and from the naſal lamella, by an oblique foſſa, which, applied to ſuch another in the os maxillare, forms a paſſage for a branch of the fifth pair of nerves. The *naſal* lamella is nothing more than a very thin bony plate, which ariſes from the upper ſide of the external edge of the ſquare part of the bone. Its inner ſurface is concave, and furniſhed with a ridge which ſupports the back part of the os ſpongioſum inferius. Externally, it is convex, and firmly united with the maxillary bone. The *orbitar* proceſs is more irregular than any other part of the bone. It has a ſmooth ſurface where it helps to form the orbit; and, when viewed in its place, we ſee it contiguous to that part of the orbit which is formed by the os maxillare, and appearing as a ſmall triangle at the inner extremity of the orbitar proceſs of this laſt mentioned bone. This fourth part of the os palati likewiſe helps to form the zygomaſtic foſſa on each ſide, and there its ſurface is concave. Between this orbitar proceſs and the ſphenoid bone, a hole is formed, through which an artery, vein, and nerve, are tranſmitted to the noſtrils. The oſſa palati are complete in the fœtus. They are joined to the oſſa maxillaria ſuperiora, os ſphenoides, os ethmoides, oſſa ſpongioſa inferiora, and vomer.

PALĀTI TENSOR. See *Circumflexus*.

PALĀTO-PHARYNGĒUS. *Muſculus palato-pharyngeus*. *Thyro-ſtaphilinus* of Douglas. *Thyro-pharyngo-ſtaphilinus* of Winſlow. A muſcle ſituated at the ſide of the entry of the fauces. It ariſes by a broad beginning from the middle of the velum pendulum palati at the root of the uvula poſteriorly, and from the ten-

dinous expanſion of the circumflexus palati. The fibres are collected within the poſterior arch behind the tonſils, and run backwards to the top and lateral part of the pharynx, where the fibres are ſcattered and mixed with thoſe of the ſtylo-pharyngeus. It is inſerted into the edge of the upper and back part of the thyroid cartilage. Its uſe is to draw the uvula and velum pendulum palati downwards and backwards, and at the ſame time to pull the thyroid cartilage and pharynx upwards, and ſhorten it; with the *conſtrictor ſuperior pharyngis* and tongue, it aſſiſts in ſhutting the paſſage into the noſtrils; and in ſwallowing, it thruſts the food from the fauces into the pharynx.

Palāto-staphilīnus. See *Staphilinus*.

Palm oil. *Oleum palmæ*. This oil is produced chiefly from the fruit of the *Cocos butyracea inermis, frondibus pennatis: foliolis ſimplicibus* of Linnæus, by bruiſing and diſſolving the kernels of the fruit in water, without the aid of heat, by which the oil is ſeparated, and riſes to the ſurface, and on being waſhed two or three times is rendered fit for uſe. When brought into this country it is of the conſiſtence of an ointment, and of an orange yellow colour, with little taſte, and of a ſtrong, though not diſagreeable ſmell. Its uſe is confined to external applications in pains, tumours, and ſprains; but it appears to poſſeſs very little if any advantage over other bland oils.

Palma christi. See *Ricinus*.

Palmāris brĕvis, (*Palmaris*, from *palma*, the hand). A ſmall, thin, cutaneous flexor muſcle of the hand, ſituated on the fore arm, between the wriſt and the little-finger. Fallopius tells us, that it was diſcovered by Cananus. Winſlow names it *palmaris cutaneus*. It ariſes from a ſmall part of the internal annular ligament, and inner edge of the aponeuroſis palmaris, and is inſerted by ſmall bundles of fleſhy fibres into the os piſiforme, and into the ſkin and fat that cover the abductor minimi digiti. This muſcle ſeems to aſſiſt in contracting the palm of the hand.

Palmaris cutaneus. See *Palmaris brevis*.

Palmāris longus. *Ulnaris gracilis* of Winſlow. A flexor muſcle of the arm ſituated on the fore arm, immediately under the integuments. It ariſes tendinous from the inner condyle of the os humeri, but ſoon becomes fleſhy, and after continuing ſo about three inches, terminates in a long ſlender tendon, which near the wriſt, ſeparates into two portions, one of which is inſerted into the internal annular ligament, and the other loſes itſelf in a tendinous membrane, that is nearly of a triangular ſhape, and extends over the palm of the hand, from the carpal ligament to the roots of the fingers, and is called *aponeuroſis palmaris*. Some of the fibres of this expanſion adhere ſtrongly to the metacarpal bones, and ſeparate the muſcles and tendons of each finger. Several anatomical writers have conſidered this aponeuroſis as a production of the tendon of this muſcle, but ſeemingly without reaſon, becauſe we now and then find the latter wholly inſerted into the carpal ligament, in which caſe it is perfectly diſtinct from the aponeuroſis in queſtion; and, in ſome ſubjects, the palmaris longus is wanting, but the aponeuroſis is always to be found. Rhodius indeed ſays that the latter is now and then deficient, but there is good reaſon to think that he was miſtaken. This muſcle bends the hand, and may aſſiſt in its pronation; it likewiſe ſerves to ſtretch the aponeuroſis palmaris.

PALPĔBRÆ, (*Palpebra, æ*, f.). The eyelids, diſtinguiſhed into upper and under: at each end they unite and form the canthus.

PALPĔBRÆ SUPERĬORIS LEVĀTOR. See *Levator palpebræ ſuperioris.*

PALPĔBRUM APERĬENS RECTUS. See *Levator palpebræ ſuperioris.*

PALPITĀTĬO, (*Palpitatio, onis*, f.). Palpitation of the heart, which is either conſtant or frequently returning. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes*, and order *ſpaſmi* of Cullen.

PALSY. See *Hemiplegia, Paraplegia, Paralyſis*, &c.

PANACĒA, (*Panacea, æ*, f. παναικεια; from πας, all, and ακεομαι, to make well). An epithet given by the antients to thoſe remedies which they conceived would cure every diſeaſe. Unfortunately for thoſe of the preſent day, there are no ſuch remedies.

PANADA, (dim. of *pane*, bread, Ital.). Bread boiled in water to a proper conſiſtence for feeding children or infirm perſons with.

PANARIS, (*Panaris*, corrupted from *paronychia*). See *Paronychia.*

PANAX, (παναξ, from πας, all, and ακος, a cure). Hercules's alheal or wound wort. The ſeeds and roots of this plant, *Laſerpitium chironium* of Linnæus, are warm, and ſimilar in flavour and qualities to thoſe of the parſnip. The roots and ſtalks have a much ſtronger ſmell, which reſembles that of opoponax, and Boerhaave relates, that on wounding the plant in the ſummer, he obtained a yellow juice, which being inſpiſſated a little in the ſun, agreed perfectly in both reſpects with that exotic gum reſin.

PANAX QUINQUEFOLĬUM. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the ginſeng root. See *Ginſeng.*

PANCREAS, (*Pancreas, ătis*, n. πανκρεας; from πας, all, and κρεας, fleſh; ſo called from its fleſhy conſiſtence). A glandular viſcus of the abdomen, of a long figure, compared to a dog's tongue, ſituated in the epigaſtric region under the ſtomach. It is compoſed of innumerable ſmall glands, the excretory ducts of which unite and form one duct, called the pancreatic duct, which perforates the duodenum with the ductus communis choledochus, and conveys a fluid, in its nature ſimilar to ſaliva, into the inteſtines. The pancreatic artery is a branch of the ſplenic. The veins evacuate themſelves into the ſplenic vein. Its nerves are from the par vagum and great intercoſtal. The uſe of the pancreas is to ſecrete the pancreatic juice, which is to be mixed with the chyle in the duodenum. The quantity of the fluid ſecreted is uncertain; but it muſt be very conſiderable, if we compare it with the weight of the ſaliva, the pancreas being three times larger, and ſeated in a warmer place. It is expelled by the force of the circulating blood, and of the incumbent viſcera in the full abdomen; as the liver, ſtomach, ſpleen, meſenteric and ſplenic arteries, and the aorta. Its great utility appears from its conſtancy, being found in almoſt all animals; nor is it refuted by the few experiments in which a part of it was cut out from a robuſt animal, without occaſioning death; becauſe the whole pancreas cannot be removed without the duodenum: for even a part of the lungs may be cut out without producing death, but they are not therefore uſeleſs. It ſeems principally to dilute the viſcid cyſtic bile, to mitigate its acrimony, and to mix it with the food. Hence it is poured into a place remote from the cyſtic duct, as often as there is no gall-bladder. Like the reſt of the inteſtinal humours, it dilutes and reſolves

the mass of aliments, and performs every other office of the saliva.

PANCREATIC DUCT. See *Ductus pancreaticus*.

PANDEMIC, (*Pandemicus*: from πᾶν, all, and δῆμος, the people). A synonym of epidemic. See *Epidemic*.

PANĬCUM, (*Panicum, i*, n. a *paniculis*, from its many particles; a herb whose spike consists of innumerable thick seeds, disposed in many panicles). Common panic.

PANĬCUM ITALĬCUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the millet seed. See *Millet seed*.

PANĬCUM MILĬACĔUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the Indian millet seed. See *Millet seed Indian*.

PANOPHOBĬA, (*Panophobia, æ*, f. πανφοβία; from πᾶν, all, and φόβος, fear). That kind of melancholy which is attended with groundless fears. The moderns consider it as symptomatic.

PANSIES. See *Viola tricolor*.

PAPĀVER ALBUM, (*Papaver, ĕris*, n. from *pappa*, pap; so called because nurses used to mix this plant in children's food to relieve the colic and make them sleep). The white poppy. *Papaver somniferum* of Linnæus. *Papaver calycibus capsulisque glabris, foliis amplexicaulibus incisis*. Class *Polyandria*. Order *Monogynia*. It is from heads of this plant that the opium is obtained. See *Opium*. They are also directed for medicinal use in the form of fomentation, and in the *syrupus papaveris albi*, a useful anodyne, which often succeeds in procuring sleep where opium fails; it is, however, more especially adapted to children. The seeds of this species of poppy contain a bland oil, and in many places are eaten as food: as a medicine, they have been usually given in the form of emulsion in catarrhs, stranguries, &c.

PAPĀVER ERRATĬCUM. Red o corn poppy. *Papaver rhœas* of Lin næus. *Papaver capsulis glabris globosis caule piloso multifloro, foliis pennatifidi incisis*. Class *Polyandria*. Orde *Monogynia*. The heads of this spe cies, like those of the somniferum contain a milky juice of a narcoti quality; from which an extract i prepared, that has been successfull employed as a sedative. The flowe have somewhat of the smell of opium and a mucilaginous taste, accompa nied with a slight degree of bitte ness. A syrup of these flowers i directed in the London pharmaco pœia, which has been thought us ful as an anodyne and pectoral, an is therefore prescribed in coughs an catarrhal affections.

PAPĀVER NIGRUM. The seed and heads of the *papaver somniferum* are called in some pharmacopœias *semina* and *capitula papaveris nigri*. See *Papaver album*.

PAPĀVER RHÆAS. The systematic name of the red corn poppy. See *Papaver erraticum*.

PAPĀVER SOMNIFĔRUM. The systematic name of the white poppy. See *Papaver album*.

PAPAW. The fruit of the *Carica papapa* of Linnæus, a native of bot Indies, and Guinea coast of Africa. When the roundish fruit are nearl ripe, the inhabitants of India bo and eat them with their meat, as w do turnips. They have somewh the flavour of a pompion. Previou to boiling, they soak them for som time in salt and water, to extra the corrosive juice, unless the me they are to be boiled with should b very salt and old, and then this juic being in them will make it as tend as a chicken. But they mostly pick the long fruit, and thus they mak no bad succedaneum for mang The buds of the female flowers a gathered, and made into a swee meat; and the inhabitants are suc

good husbands of the produce of this tree, that they boil the shells of the ripe fruit into a repast, and the insides are eaten with sugar in the manner of melons.

Papilla, (*Papilla, æ*, f.). The nipple of the breast. See *Nipple*.

Papillæ. This term is applied by anatomists to the fine terminations of nerves, &c. as the nervous papillæ of the tongue, skin, &c.

Papillaris herba. See *Lampsana*.

Pappus, (*Pappus, i*, m.). The hair on the middle of the chin. See *Capillus*.

Papŭlæ, (*Papula, æ*, f. dim of *pappa*, a dug or nipple). Very small and accuminated elevations of the cuticle, with an inflamed base, not containing a fluid, nor tending to suppuration. The duration of papulæ is uncertain, but they terminate for the most part in scurf.

Par vagum, (*Par, păris*, n. a pair.). The eighth pair of nerves. They arise from the corpora olivaria of the medulla oblongata, and proceed into the neck, thorax, and abdomen. In the neck the par vagum gives off two branches, the lingual and superior laryngeal; and, in the thorax, four branches, the recurrent laryngeal, the cardiac, the pulmonary, and the œsophageal plexuses. At length the trunks of the nervi vagi, adjacent to the mediastinum, run into the stomach, and there form the stomachic plexus, which branches to the abdominal plexuses.

Parăcentēsis, (*Paracentesis, is*, f. παρακέντησις; from παρακεντέω, to pierce through). The operation of tapping to evacuate the water in ascites, dropsy of the ovarium, uterus, &c.

Paracūsis, (*Paracusis, is*, f. παρακοὴ; from παρά, wrong, and ἀκέω, to hear). Hearing depraved. Singing in the ears. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ* of Cullen: species, 1. *Paracusis imperfecta*, when existing sounds are not heard as usual. 2. *Paracusis imaginaria*, when imaginary sounds are heard.

Paradisi grana. See *Grana paradisi*.

Paralўsis, (*Paralysis, is*, et *eos*, f. παράλυσις; from παραλύω, to loose). The palsy. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *comata*, of Cullen, known by a loss of the power of voluntary motion, affecting certain parts: species 1. *Paralysis partialis*, partial, or palsy of some particular muscles. 2. *Paralysis hemiplegica*, palsy of one side. 3. *Paralysis paraplegica*, palsy of one half of the body. *Paralysis venenata*, from the sedative effects of poisons. Paralysis is also symptomatic of several diseases, as worms, scrophula, syphilis, &c.

Paralysis herba, (*Paralysis, eos*, et *is*, f. παράλυσις; from παραλύω, to weaken; so called from its use in paralytic disorders). The cowslip and primrose are sometimes so termed. See *Primula veris*, and *Primula vulgaris*.

Paraphymōsis, (*Paraphymosis, is*, f. παραφίμωσις; from παρά, about, and φίμωω, to bend). The paraphymosis is a disorder wherein the prepuce, being retracted toward the root of the penis, cannot be returned again over the glans, but makes a sort of ligature behind the corona. This disease is easily known; the glans is uncovered, the skin tumefied on the corona, and above it forms a circular collar or stricture, which, from the skin being unequally extended, becomes indented, and makes several rings round the part. This disease may proceed from two causes; as first from the imprudence of young people, and sometimes also of grown persons, who having the end of their prepuce too straight,

cannot uncover their glans without Pain, and when they have done it, neglect returning it so soon as they ought; and thus the contracted part of the prepuce forms a constriction behind the glans. Soon after, the glans and penis swell, and the prepuce being consequently very much distended, is affected in the same manner; an inflammation seizes upon both, and swellings quickly appear upon the stricture formed by the prepuce, so that the whole may be liable to a gangrene, if not speedily relieved. The second thing that may produce a paraphymosis, is a venereal virus. In adults, whose glans is uncovered, there frequently arise venereal chancres in the prepuce after impure coition, which before they digest, are generally attended with inflammation, more or less considerable. This inflammation is alone sufficient to render the prepuce too strait for the size of the penis, in consequence of which a swelling or inosculation may ensue like that before mentioned; and this is what is termed a paraphymosis.

PARAPHŌNĬA, (*Paraphonia, æ*, f. παραφωνια; from παρα, wrong, and φωνη, sound). Alteration of the voice. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dyscinesia* of Cullen, comprehending six species, viz. *paraphonia puberum*, *paraphonia rauca*, *paraphonia resonans*, *paraphonia palatina*, *paraphonia clangens*, and *paraphonia comatosa*.

PARAPHRENĪTIS, (*Paraphrenitis, idis*, f. παραφρενιτις; from παρα, dim. and φρην, the mind). *Diaphragmitis*. An inflammation of the diaphragm. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexiæ* and order *phlegmasiæ* of Cullen, known by delirium, with difficulty of breathing, and pain in the region of the diaphragm.

PARAPLEGĬA, (*Paraplegia, æ*, f. παραπληγια; from παραπλησσω, to strike inharmoniously). Palsy of one half of the body taken transversely. A species of paralysis. See *Paralysis*.

PARASITIC. Animals, &c. are so termed, that receive their nourishment in the bodies of others, as worms, polypes, hydatids, &c.

PARATHENAR, (παραθεναρ; from παρα, near, and θεναρ, the sole of the foot). A muscle situated near the sole of the foot.

PARATHENAR MINOR. See *Flexor brevis minimi digiti pedis*.

PAREGORICS, (*Medicamenta paregorica*, παρηγορικος; from παραγορεω, to mitigate, to assuage). Medicines that allay pain are so termed.

PARENCHYMA, (*Parenchyma, atis*, n. παρεγχυμα; from παρεγχεω, to strain through, because the ancients believed the blood was strained through it). The spongy and cellular substance that connects parts together. It is now only, in anatomy, applied to the connecting medium of the substance of the lungs.

PARĔSIS, (*Paresis, is*, f. παρεσις; from παριημι, to relax). An imperfect palsy.

PARIĒRA BRAVA, (*Pariera, æ*, f. Span.). The root of this plant, *Cissampelos pareira, foliis pellatis cordatis emarginatis* of Linnæus, Class *Dioecia*. Order *Monadelphia*, a native of South America and the West Indies, has no remarkable smell, but to the taste it manifests a notable sweetness of the liquorice kind, together with a considerable bitterness, and a slight roughness covered by the sweet matter. The facts adduced on the utility of the *radix pareiræ bravæ* in nephritic and calculous complaints, are principally mentioned by foreigners, and no remarkable instances of its efficacy are recorded by English practitioners.

PARIETAL BONES, (*Parietalis*, from *paries*, a wall, because they de-

ſend the brain like walls). *Offa verticis. Offa ſyncipitis. Offa verticalia vel bregmatis.* Two arched and ſomewhat quadrangular bones, ſituated one on each ſide of the ſuperior part of the cranium. Each of theſe bones forms an irregular ſquare. They are thicker above than below; but are ſomewhat thinner, and at the ſame time more equal and ſmooth than the other bones of the cranium. The only foramen we obſerve in them, is a ſmall one towards the upper and poſterior part of each. It has been named the parietal foramen, and ſerves for the tranſmiſſion of a ſmall vein to the longitudinal ſinus. In many ſubjects this foramen is wanting. On the inner ſurface of theſe bones are the marks of the veſſels of the dura mater, and of the convoluted ſurface of the brain. On the inſide of their upper edge we may likewiſe obſerve a conſiderable furrow, which correſponds with the longitudinal ſinus of the dura mater; and lower down, towards their poſterior and inferior angle, is a ſmaller one for part of the lateral ſinuſes. Theſe bones are joined to each other by the ſagittal ſuture; to the os ſphenoides, and oſſa temporum, by the ſquamous ſuture; to the os occipitis by the lamboidal ſuture; and to the os frontis by the coronal ſuture. Their connection with this latter bone is well worthy our attention. We ſhall find, that in the middle of the ſuture, where the os frontis, from its ſize and flatneſs, is the moſt in danger of being injured, it reſts upon the arch formed by the parietal bones; whereas at the ſides, the parietal bones are found reſting upon the os frontis, becauſe this ſame arch is there in the greateſt danger from preſſure. In new-born infants, the oſſa parietalia are ſeparated from the middle of the divided os frontis by a portion of the cranium, then unoſſified. When the finger is applied to this part, the motion of the brain, and the pulſation of the arteries of the dura mater, may be eaſily diſtinguiſhed. In general, the whole of this part is completely oſſified before we are ſeven years of age.

PARIETĀRĬA, (*Parietaria, æ*, f. from *paries*, a wall, becauſe it grows upon old walls, and among rubbiſh). Wall pelitory. *Parietaria officinalis* of Linnæus. *Parietaria foliis lanceolato-ovatis, pedunculis dichotomis, calycibus diphyllis.* Claſs *Polygamia.* Order *Monoecia.* This plant has no ſmell, and its taſte is ſimply herbaceous. In the practice of the preſent day it is wholly laid aſide, although it was formerly in high eſtimation as a diuretic.

PARIETĀRĬA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the wall pellitory. See *Parietaria.*

PARIS, (*Paris, idis*, f. ſo called in reference to the youth of that name who adjudged the golden apple to Venus, this herb bearing but one ſeed). The herb Paris. The herb true love. *Paris quadrifolia* of Linnæus. The colour and ſmell of this plant indicate its poſſeſſing narcotic powers. The leaves and berries are ſaid to be efficacious in the cure of hooping cough, and to act like opium. Great caution is requiſite in their exhibition, as convulſions and death are cauſed by an overdoſe. The root poſſeſſes emetic qualities.

PARIS QUADRIFOLĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the herb paris. See *Paris.*

PARONYCHĬA, (*Paronychia, æ*, f. παρονυχια; from παρα, about, and ονυξ, the nail). *Panaris. Panaritium.* A whitlow, or whitloe. Any collection of pus formed in the fingers is termed by authors panaris or whitloe, and is an abſceſs of the ſame nature with thoſe ariſing in other

parts of the body. These abscesses are situated more or less deep, which has induced the writers upon the subject to divide them into several species: accordingly they have ranged them under four heads, agreeable to the places where they are formed. The first kind of panaris is formed under the cuticle, on one side of the nail, and sometimes all round it. The second is seated in the fat lying under the skin, between that and the sheath which involves the flexor tendons. The third is described by authors to be formed within the sheath; and they still add a fourth species, arising between the periosteum and the bone.

PARORCHIDĬUM, (*Parorchidium*, *i*, n. παρορχιδιον; from παρα, and ορχις, a testicle). A tumour in the groin, occasioned by the testicle, which is passing into the scrotum.

PAROTID GLAND, (*Glandula parotidea*, from παρα, about, and ους, the ear). A large conglomerate and salival gland, situated under the ear, between the mamillary process of the temple bone, and the angle of the lower jaw. The excretory duct of this gland opens in the mouth, and is called, from its discoverer, the *Stenonian* duct.

PAROXYSM, (*Paroxysmus*, *i*, m. παροξυσμος; from παροξυνω, to aggravate). A periodical exacerbation or fit of a disease.

PARSLEY, BLACK MOUNTAIN. See *Oreoselinum*.

PARSLEY, COMMON. See *Petroselinum*.

PARSLEY, MACEDONIAN. See *Petroselinum macedonicum*.

PARSNIP. See *Pastinaca*.

PARSNIP, WATER. See *Sium*.

PARŪLIS, (*Parulis*, *is*, f. παρουλις; from παρα, and ουλον, the gum). A gum boil.

PARTHENĬUM, (*Parthenium*, *i*, n. παρθενιον; from παρθενος, a virgin; so called because of its uses in diseases of young women). See *Matricaria*.

PARTHENĬUM MAS. See *Tanacetum*.

PASSA MINOR. See *Uva passa minor*.

PASSIFLORA LAURĬFOLĬA. Bay-leaved passion flower. A native of Surinam. The fruit have a delicious smell and flavour, and are excellent for quenching thirst, abating heat of the stomach, increasing the appetite, recruiting the spirits, and allaying the heat in burning fevers.

PASSIFLORA MALIFORMIS. Apple-shaped granadelley. The fruit of this species of passion flower is esteemed a delicacy in the West Indies, where it is served up at table in deserts: they are not unwholesome.

PASSION CŒLIAC. See *Diarrhœa*.

PASSION HYSTERIC. See *Hysteria*.

PASSŬLÆ MAJŌRES. See *Uva passa major*.

PASTINĀCA, (*Pastinaca*, *æ*, f. *a pasta*, from its usefulness as a food). The parsnip. The wild plant is sometimes called *Elaphoboscum*; the cultivated or garden parsnip is the *Pastinaca sativa*, *foliolis simpliciter pinnatis* of Linnæus. Its roots are sweet and nutritious, and in high esteem as an article of food. They possess an aromatic flavour, more especially those of the wild plant, and are exhibited in calculous complaints for their diuretic and sheathing qualities.

PASTINĀCA OPOPĂNAX. The systematic name of the plant which yields opoponax. See *Opoponax*.

PASTINĀCA SATIVA. The systematic name of the parsnip. See *Pastinaca*.

PATELLA, (*Patella*, *æ*, dim. of *patĭna*, a dish; so named from its shape). *Rotula*. The knee-pan. A small flat bone, which in some

measure resembles the common figure of the heart with its point downwards, and is placed at the fore part of the joint of the knee. It is thicker in its middle part than at its edge. Anteriorly, it is a little convex, and rough for the insertion of muscles and ligaments; posteriorly, it is smooth, covered with cartilage, and divided by a middle longitudinal ridge, into two slightly concave surfaces, of which the external one is the largest and deepest. They are both exactly adapted to the pulley of the os femoris. The edges of this posterior surface are rough and prominent, where the capsular ligament is attached, and below is a roughness at the point of the bone, where the upper extremity of a strong tendinous ligament is fixed, which joins this bone to the tuberosity at the upper end of the tibia. This ligament is of considerable thickness, about an inch in breadth, and upwards of two inches in length. The rotula is composed internally of a cellular substance, covered by a thin bony plate; but its cells are so extremely minute, that the strength of the bone is, upon the whole, very considerable. In new-born children it is entirely cartilaginous. The use of this bone seems to be, to defend the articulation of the joint of the knee from external injury. It likewise tends to increase the power of the muscles which act in the extension of the leg, by removing their direction farther from the center of motion, in the manner of a pulley. When we consider the manner in which it is connected with the tibia, we find that it may very properly be considered as an appendix to the latter, which it follows in all its motions, so as to be to the tibia what the olecranon is to the ulna; with this difference, however, that the rotula is moveable, whereas the olecranon is a fixed process. Without this mobility the rotatory motion of the leg would have been prevented.

PATHETĬCI, (*Patheticus*, from πάθος, an affection, because they direct the eyes to express the passions of the mind). *Trochleatores*. The fourth pair of nerves. They arise from the crura of the cerebellum laterally, and are distributed in the musculus obliquus superior *seu* trochlearis.

PATHOGNOMONIC, (*Pathognomonicus*, παθογνωμονικος; from πάθος, a disease, and γινωσκω, to know). A term given to those symptoms which are peculiar to a disease. They are also termed proper or characteristic symptoms.

PATHOLOGY, (*Pathologia*, æ, f. παθολογια; from πάθος, a disease, and λογος, a discourse). The doctrine of diseases. It comprehends *nosology*, *ætiology*, *symptomatology*, and *therapia*.

PATĪENTĬA, (*Patientia*, æ, f. from *patior*, to bear or suffer). The name of the herb monk's rhubarb, from its gentle purging qualities). See *Rhabarbarum*.

PATIENCE, GARDEN. See *Rhabarbarum monachorum*.

PAUL'S BETONY. See *Veronica*.

PAVĀNÆ LIGNUM. See *Lignum pavanæ*.

PEACH. See *Persica*.

PEAGLE. See *Primula veris*.

PEARL. See *Margarita*.

PEARL-ASHES. Purified potash. See *Potash*.

PEARL BARLEY. See *Hordeum*.

PECHURIM CORTEX. An highly aromatic bark, the produce of a species of *Laurus*. It is extremely fragrant, like unto that of cinnamon, which it greatly resembles in its properties. In Lisbon it is much esteemed in the cure of dysenteries, and for allaying obstinate vomitings.

PECHURIUM FABA. See *Faba pechurim.*

PECHURIS. See *Pechurim.*

PECQUET'S DUCT. *Ductus pecquettii.* See *Thoracic duct.*

PECTINĀLIS, (*Pectinalis*, fc. *muſculus*, ſo named from its ariſing at the *pecten*, or pubis). *Pectinæus* of Albinus. This is a ſmall flat muſcle, ſituated obliquely between the pubis and the little trochanter, at the upper and anterior part of the thigh. It ariſes broad and fleſhy from all the anterior edge of the os pectinis, or pubis, as it is more commonly called, as far as its ſpine, and deſcending obliquely backwards and outwards, is inſerted by a ſhort and broad tendon, into the upper and anterior part of the linea aſpera of the os femoris a little below the leſſer trochanter. This muſcle ſerves to bend the thigh, by drawing it upwards and inwards, and likewiſe aſſiſts in rolling it outwards.

PECTINĀTI MUSCŬLI, (*Pectinatus*, from *pecten*, a comb; ſo named from their ſuppoſed reſemblance). The faſciculated muſcular fibres of the right auricle of the heart.

PECTINÆUS. See *Pectinalis.*

PECTORĀLIS. See *Pectoralis major.*

PECTORĀLIS MAJOR, (*Muſculus pectoralis*; from *pectus*, the breaſt). *Pectoralis* of Albinus. This is a broad, thick, fleſhy, and radiated muſcle, ſituated immediately under the integuments, and covering almoſt the whole anterior part of the breaſt. Winſlow calls it *pectoralis major*, to diſtinguiſh it from the ſerratus anticus, which he has named *pectoralis minor*. It ariſes from the cartilaginous extremities of the fifth and ſixth ribs, from the laſt of which its tendinous fibres deſcend over the upper part of the obliquus externus and rectus abdominis, helping to form a part of the ſheath in which the latter is included. It likewiſe ſprings from almoſt the whole length of the ſternum by ſhort tendinous fibres, which evidently decuſſate thoſe on the other ſide; and tendinous and fleſhy from more than a third of the anterior part of the clavicle. From theſe origins the fibres run in a folding manner towards the axilla, and are inſerted by a broad tendon into the os humeri, above the inſertion of the deltoid muſcle, and at the outer ſide of the groove which lodges the tendon of the long head of the biceps: ſome of its fibres likewiſe extend into that groove; and, from the lower part of this tendon, which is ſpread near two inches along the os humeri, we find it ſending off other fibres, which help to form the faſcia that covers the muſcles of the arm. It often happens, that that part of the pectoralis which ariſes from the clavicle, is ſeparated from the inferior portion, ſo as to appear like a diſtinct muſcle. This has induced Winſlow to divide it into parts, one of which he calls the *clavicular*, and the other the *thoracic* portion. Sometimes theſe two portions are inſerted by ſeparate tendons, which croſs one another at the upper and inner part of the os humeri, the tendon of the thoracic portion being inſerted at the outer edge of the bicipital groove, immediately behind the other. This muſcle, and the latiſſimus dorſi, form the cavity of the axilla or arm-pit. The uſe of the pectoralis is to move the arm forwards, or to raiſe it obliquely towards the ſternum. It likewiſe occaſionally aſſiſts in moving the trunk upon the arm; thus, when we exert any efforts with the hand, as in raiſing ourſelves from off an arm chair, or in ſealing a letter, the contraction of this muſcle is particularly obſervable. To theſe uſes Haller adds that of aſſiſting in reſpiration, by raiſing the ſternum and ribs. He tells us he well remembers, that when

this muſcle was affected by rheumatiſm, his breathing was incommoded: and that, when troubled with difficulty of reſpiration, he has often found himſelf greatly relieved by raiſing and drawing back his ſhoulders, keeping his arms at the ſame time firmly fixed. Winſlow, however, has denied this uſe, and Albinus has omitted it, probably becauſe it does not take place in a natural ſtate.

PECTORĀLIS MINOR. *Serratus anticus* of Albinus. Douglas calls this muſcle *ſerratus minor anticus*, and Winſlow gives it the name of *pectoralis minor*. It is a fleſhy and pretty conſiderable muſcle, ſituated at the anterior and lateral part of the thorax, immediately under the pectoralis major. It ariſes from the upper edges of the third, fourth, and fifth ribs, near where they join with their cartilages by an equal number of tendinous and fleſhy digitations, which have been compared to the teeth of a ſaw, whence this and ſome other muſcles, from their having a ſimilar origin or inſertion, have gotten the name of *ſerrati*. From theſe origins it becomes thicker and narrower as it aſcends, and is inſerted by a flat tendon into the upper part of the coracoid proceſs of the ſcapula. The principal uſe of this muſcle is to draw the ſcapula forwards and downwards; and when that is fixed, it may likewiſe ſerve to elevate the ribs.

PECTORALS, (*Medicamenta pectoralia*, from *pectus*, the breaſt). Medicines that relieve diſorders of the cheſt.

PECTUS, (*Pectus, oris*, n.). The breaſt. See *Thorax*.

PEDES HIPPOCAMPI, (*Pes, dis*, m. pl. *pedes*). Two columns at the end of the fornix of the brain, which diverge poſteriorly. They are ſo named from their reſemblance to the feet of the *hippocampus*, or ſea-horſe.

PEDICŬLARĬA, (*Pedicularia, æ*, f. from *pediculus*, a louſe; ſo called from its uſe in deſtroying lice). The herb ſtaves acre. See *Staphiſagria*.

PEDILUVĬUM, (*Pediluvium, i*, n. from *pedes*, the feet, and *lavo*, to waſh). A bath for the feet.

PELAGRA. The diſeaſe called the *pelagra*, does not appear to have been noticed by any of our noſologiſts. Indeed few accounts of it have hitherto been publiſhed, although the peculiar ſymptoms with which it is attended, and the fatal conſequences which generally enſue from it, render it equally curious and important. In certain diſtricts, as Milan and Padua in Italy, where it is peculiarly prevalent, it is computed to attack five inhabitants out of every hundred. The following account of this ſingular diſeaſe is extracted from Dr. Janſen's treatiſe on the ſubject who had ſeen the diſeaſe at Milan.

About the month of March or April, when the ſeaſon invites the farmers to cultivate their fields, it often happens that a ſhining red ſpot ſuddenly ariſes on the back of the hand, reſembling the common eryſipelas, but without much itching or pain, or indeed any other particular inconvenience. Both men and women, girls and boys, are equally ſubject to it. Sometimes this ſpot affects both hands, without appearing on any other part of the body. Not uncommonly it ariſes alſo on the ſhins, ſometimes on the neck, and now and then, though very rarely, on the face. It is ſometimes alſo ſeen on the breaſts of women, where they are not covered by the clothes, but ſuch parts of the body as are not expoſed to the air, are very ſeldom affected; nor has it ever been obſerved to attack the palm of the hand, or the ſole of the foot. This red ſpot elevates the ſkin a little,

producing numerous ſmall tubercles of different colours; the ſkin becomes dry and cracks, and the epidermis ſometimes aſſumes a fibrous appearance. At length it falls off in white furfuraceous ſcales; but the ſhining redneſs underneath ſtill continues, and in ſome inſtances remains through the following winter. In the mean time, excepting this mere local affection, the health is not the leaſt impaired, the patient performs all his rural labours as before, enjoys a good appetite, eats heartily, and digeſts well. The bowels are generally relaxed at the very commencement of the diſeaſe, and continue ſo throughout its whole courſe. All the other excretions are as uſual; and, in females, the menſes return at their accuſtomed periods, and in the proper quantity. But what is moſt ſurpriſing is, that in the month of September, when the heat of the ſummer is over, in ſome caſes ſooner, in others later, the diſorder generally altogether diſappears, and the ſkin reſumes its natural healthy appearance. This change has been known to take place as early as the latter end of May or June, when it has only been in its earlieſt ſtage. The patients, however, are not now to be conſidered as well; the diſeaſe hides itſelf, but is not eradicated: For no ſooner does the following ſpring return, but it quickly reappears, and generally is accompanied with ſeverer ſymptoms. The ſpot grows larger, the ſkin becomes more unequal and hard, with deeper cracks. The patient now begins to feel uneaſineſs in his head, becomes fearful, dull, leſs capable of labour, and much wearied with his uſual exertions. He is exceedingly affected with the changes of the atmoſphere, and impatient both of cold and heat. Nevertheleſs, he generally gets through his ordinary labour, with leſs vigour and chearfulneſs indeed than formerly, but ſtill without being obliged to take to his bed; and, as he has no fever, his appetite continues good, and the chylopoietic viſcera perform their proper functions. When the pelegra has even arrived at this ſtage, the returning winter, nevertheleſs, commonly reſtores the patient to apparent health; but the more ſevere the ſymptoms have been, and the deeper root the diſeaſe has taken, the more certainly does the return of ſpring produce it with additional violence. Sometimes the diſeaſe in the ſkin diſappears, but the other ſymptoms remain notwithſtanding. The powers both of the mind and body now become daily more enfeebled; peeviſhneſs, watchings, vertigo, and at length complete melancholy ſupervene. Nor is there a more diſtreſſing kind of melancholy any where to be ſeen, than takes place in this diſeaſe. "On entering the hoſpital at Legnano," ſays Dr. Janſen, "I was aſtoniſhed at the mournful ſpectacle I beheld, eſpecially in the women's ward. There they all ſat, indolent, languid, with downcaſt looks, their eyes expreſſing diſtreſs, weeping without cauſe, and ſcarcely returning an anſwer when ſpoken to; ſo that a perſon would ſuppoſe himſelf to be among fools and mad people: and indeed with very good reaſon; for gradually this melancholy increaſes, and at length ends in real mania.

Many, as I had an opportunity of obſerving in this hoſpital, were covered with a peculiar and characteriſtic ſweat, having a very offenſive ſmell, which I know not how better to expreſs than by comparing it to the ſmell of mouldy bread. A perſon accuſtomed to ſee the diſeaſe would at once recognize it by this ſingle ſymptom. Many complained of a burning pain at night in the ſoles of the feet, which often deprived

them of ſleep. Some with double viſion; others with fatuity; others with viſceral obſtructions; others with additional ſymptoms. Nevertheleſs, fever ſtill keeps off, the appetite is unimpaired, and the ſecretions are regularly carried on. But the diſeaſe goes on increaſing, the nerves are more debilitated, the legs and thighs loſe the power of motion, ſtupor or delirium come on, and the melancholy terminates in confirmed mania. In the hoſpital at Legnano, I ſaw both men and women in this maniac ſtate. Some lay quiet; others were raving, and obliged to be tied down to the bed, to prevent them from doing miſchief to themſelves and others. In almoſt all theſe the pulſe was ſmall, ſlow, and without any character of fever. One woman appeared to have a ſlight degree of furor uterinus; for at the ſight of men ſhe became merry, ſmiled, offered kiſſes, and by her geſtures deſired them to come towards her. Some were occupied in conſtant prayers; ſome pleaſed themſelves with laughter, and others with other things. But it was remarkable, that all who were in this ſtage of the diſeaſe had a ſtrong propenſity to drown themſelves. They now begin to grow emaciated, and the delirium is often followed by a ſpecies of tabes. A colliquative diarrhœa comes on, which no remedy can ſtop, as alſo has been obſerved in noſtalgia. Sometimes in the pelagra the diarrhœa comes on before the delirium, and the delirium and ſtupor mutually interchange with each other. The appetite often ſuddenly failed, ſo that the ſick will ſometimes go for near a week without taſting food. Not uncommonly it returns as ſuddenly, ſo that they eagerly devoured whatever was offered them, and this even at times when they are horridly convulſed. The convulſions with which they are attacked are moſt ſhocking to ſee, and are of almoſt every kind, catalepſy excepted, which has been deſcribed by writers. I ſaw one girl in bed, who was violently diſtorted by opiſthotonos every time ſhe attempted to riſe. Some are ſeized with emproſthotonos; and others with other ſpecies of tetanus. At length ſyncope and death cloſe the tragedy, often without any ſymptom of fever occurring through the whole courſe of the diſeaſe. The firſt ſtage of the pelagra, in which the local affection only takes place, Dr. Janſen obſerves, continues in ſome inſtances for a great length of time; perſons being occaſionally met with in whom it has laſted ſix or eight, or even fifteen years, diſappearing regularly every winter, or returning again in the ſpring. This occaſions ſome of the inhabitants to pay little attention to it; although, in other caſes, it reaches its greateſt height after the ſecond or third attack. It appears that this diſeaſe is not infectious, and that the cauſes producing it are yet unaſcertained. It has been ſuppoſed by ſome to ariſe from the heat of the ſun's rays; and hence it is now and then called *mal de ſole*; but this does produce any ſimilar diſeaſe in other parts of the world, where it is in an equal or even much greater degree than at Milan; no diſeaſe in any reſpect reſembling it having hitherto been noticed in ſuch regions, except the lepra aſturienſis deſcribed by Thiery, and after him by Sauvages. In this a tremour of the head and trunk of the body takes place, which does not happen in the pelagra. This, however, is the principal difference in the two diſeaſes.

PELATO-SALPINGEUS. See *Circumflexus*.

PELITORY, BASTARD. See *Ptarmica*.

PELLITORY OF SPAIN, See *Pyrethrum*.

PELLITORY, WALL. See *Parietaria*.

PELVIS, (*Pelvis, is*, from πελυς, a baſin, becauſe it is ſhaped like a baſin uſed in former times). The cavity below the belly. It is compoſed of four bones, viz. two oſſa innominata, the ſacrum, and os coccygis, which ſee. It contains the organs of generation, the bladder, and the rectum. See *Uterus*, *Ovaria*, *Vagina*, *Veſica urinaria*, *Proſtate gland*, *Rectum*, &c.

PELVIS, LIGAMENTS OF. The articulation of the os ſacrum with the laſt lumbar vertebra, and with the oſſa innominata, is ſtrengthened by means of a ſtrong tranſverſe ligament, which paſſes from the extremity and lower edge of the laſt lumbar vertebra, to the poſterior and internal ſurface of the ſpine of the ilium. Other ligaments are extended poſteriorly from the os ſacrum to the os ilia on each ſide, and, from the direction of their fibres, may be called the lateral ligaments. Beſides theſe, there are many ſhorter ligamentous fibres, which are ſeen ſtretching from the whole circumference of the articulating ſurfaces of theſe two bones. But the moſt remarkable ligaments of the pelvis are the two *ſacro-iſchiatic* ligaments, which are placed towards the poſterior and inferior part of the pelvis. One of theſe may be called the greater, and the other the leſſer ſacro-iſchiatic ligament. The firſt of theſe is attached to the poſterior edge of the os ſacrum, to the tuberoſity of the ilium, and to the firſt of the three diviſions of the os coccygis. Its other extremity is inſerted into the inner ſurface of the tuberoſity of the iſchium. At its upper part it is of conſiderable breadth, after which it becomes narrower, but expands again before its inſertion into the iſchium, and, extending along the tuberoſity of that bone to the lower branch of the os pubis, where it terminates in a point, forms a kind of falx, one end of which is looſe, while the other is fixed to the bone. The leſſer ſacro-iſchiatic ligament is ſomewhat thicker than the former, and is placed obliquely before it. It extends from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the os ſacrum, and the tuberoſity of the ſpine of the ilium on each ſide, to the ſpine of the iſchium. Theſe two ligaments not only ſerve to ſtrengthen the articulation of the oſſa innominata with the os ſacrum, but to ſupport the weight of the viſcera contained in the pelvis, the back and lower part of which is cloſed by theſe ligaments. The poſterior and external ſurface of the greater ligament likewiſe ſerves for the attachment of ſome portions of the gluteus maximus and gemini muſcles. The ſymphyſis pubis is ſtrengthened internally by a tranſverſe ligament, ſome of the fibres of which are extended to the obturator ligament.

PEMPHĬGUS, (*Pemphigus, i*, m. πεμφιγος, from πεμφιξ, a bubble). A fever attended by ſucceſſive eruptions of veſicles about the ſize of almonds, which are filled with a yellowiſh ſerum, and in three or four days ſubſide. The fever may be either ſynocha or typhus. It is a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexia* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen.

PEMPHIGUS MAJOR. See *Pemphigus*.

* PEMPHIGUS MINOR. In this ſpecies the veſicles are no larger than garden peas.

PENÆA MUCRONĀTA. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the ſarcocolla. See *Sarcocolla*.

PENGUIN. See *Brumelia karatus*.

PENIS, (*Penis, is*, m. *à pendendo*, from its hanging down). *Membrum virile.* The cylindrical part that hangs down, under the mons veneris before the ſcrotum of males. It is divided by anatomiſts into the root, body, and head called the *glans penis*, It is compoſed of common integuments, two corpora cavernoſa, and one corpus ſpongioſum, which ſurrounds a canal, the *urethra*, that proceeds from the bladder to the apex of the penis, where it opens by the *meatus urinarius*. See *Urethra*. The fold of the ſkin that covers the glans penis is termed the prepuce. The arteries of the penis are from the hypogaſtric and iſchiatic. The vein of the penis, *vena magna ipſius penis*, empties itſelf into the hypogaſtric vein. The abſorbents of this organ are very numerous, and run under the common integuments to the inguinal glands: abſorbents alſo are found in great plenty in the urethra. The glands of the penis are, Cowper's glands, the proſtate, muciparous, and odoriferous glands. The nerves of the penis are branches of the ſacral and iſchiatic.

PENIS ERECTOR. See *Erector penis.*

PENNYROYAL. See *Pulegium.*

PENNYROYAL, HARTS. See *Pulegium cervinum.*

PENTAPHYLLUM, (*Pentaphyllum, i*, n. πενταφυλλον, from πεντε, five, and φυλλον, a leaf; ſo named becauſe it has five leaves on each ſtalk). Common cinquefoil, or five-leaved graſs. The roots of this plant, *Potentilla reptans; foliis quinatis, caule repente, pedunculis unifloris* of Linnæus. Claſs *Icoſandria.* Order *Polygynia;* have a bitteriſh ſtyptic taſte. They were uſed by the ancients in the cure of intermittents; but the medicinal quality of cinquefoil is confined, in the preſent day, to ſtop diarrhœas and other fluxes.

PEONY, COMMON. See *Pæonia.*

PEPO, (*Pepo, onis*, m πεπων, from πεπτω, to ripen). See *Cucurbita.*

PEPPER, BLACK. See *Piper nigrum.*

PEPPER, GUINEA. See *Piper indicum.*

PEPPER, JAMAICA. See *Pimento.*

PEPPER, LONG. See *Piper longum.*

PEPPER, POORMAN'S. See *Hydropiper.*

PEPPER, WALL. See *Illecebra.*

PEPPER, WATER. See *Hydropiper.*

PEPPER, WHITE. See *Piper nigrum.*

PEPPERMINT. See *Mentha piperitis.*

PEPPERWORT. See *Lepidium.*

PERFOLIATA, (*Perfoliata, æ*, f. from *per* and *folium*, ſo called becauſe the leaves ſurround the ſtem, like thoſe of the cabbage). Round-leaved hare's ear, or therow wax. This plant, *Bupleurum rotundifolium* of Linnæus, was formerly celebrated for curing ruptures, mixed into a poultice with wine and oatmeal.

PERFŎRANS. See *Flexor profundus perforans.*

PERFORĀTUS. See *Flexor brevis digitorum pedis*, and *Flexor ſublimis perforatus.*

PERIBLEPSIS, (*Periblepſis, is*, f. περιβλεψις, from περιβλεπω, to ſtare about). That kind of wild look which is obſerved in delirious perſons.

PERIBRŌSIS, (*Peribroſis, is*, f. περιβρωσις). An ulceration or eroſion at the corners or uniting parts of the eyelids. This diſorder moſt frequently affects the internal commiſſura of the eyelids. The ſpecies are, 1. *Peribroſis*, from the acrimony of the tears, as may be obſerved in the epiphora. 2. *Peribroſis*, from an ægylops, which ſometimes extends to the commiſſura of the eyelids.

PERICARDĪTIS, (*Pericarditis, ĭdis*, f. περικαρδίτις, from περικάρδιον, the pericardium). Inflammation of the pericardium.

PERICARDĬUM, (*Pericardium, i*, n. περικάρδιον, from περί, about, and καρδία, the heart). The membranous bag that ſurrounds the heart. Its uſe is to ſecrete and contain the vapour of the pericardium, which lubricates the heart, and thus preſerves it from concreting with the pericardium.

PERICHONDRĬUM, (*Perichondrium, i*, n. περιχόνδριον, from περί, about, and χόνδρος, a cartilage). The membrane that covers a cartilage.

PERICRANĬUM, (*Pericranium, i*, n. περικράνιον, from περί, and κρανίον, the cranium). The membrane that is cloſely connected to the bones of the head.

PERINÆUS TRANSVERSUS. See *Tranſverſus perinei*.

PERINÆUM, (*Perinæum, i*, n. from περίνεω, to flow round, becauſe that part is generally moiſt). The ſpace between the anus and organs of generation.

PERIOSTĔUM, (*Periоſteum, i*, n. περιόστεον, from περί, about, and ὀστέον, a bone). The membrane which inveſts the external ſurface of all the bones except the crowns of the teeth. It is of a fibrous texture, and well ſupplied with arteries, veins, nerves, and abſorbents. It is called *pericranium* on the cranium; *periorbita* on the orbits; *perichondrium* when it covers cartilage; and *perideſmium* when it covers ligament. Its uſe appears to be, to diſtribute the veſſels on the external ſurfaces of bones.

PERIPNEUMŌNĬA, (*Peripneumonia, æ*, f. περιπνευμονία, from περί, and πνεύμων, the lung). Peripneumony, or inflammation of the lungs. See *Pneumonia*.

PERIPNEUMŌNĬA NOTHA. Baſtard or ſpurious peripneumony. Practitioners, it would appear, do not all affix this name to the ſame diſeaſe; ſome affirming it is a rheumatic affection of the reſpiratory muſcles, while others conſider it as a mild peripneumony. It is characteriſed by difficulty of breathing, great oppreſſion at the cheſt, with obſcure pains, cough, and occaſionally an expectoration.

PERISTALTIC MOTION, (*Periſtalticus*, περισταλτικός, from περιστέλλω, to contract). The vermicular motion of the inteſtines, by which they contract and propel their contents. A ſimilar motion takes place in the Fallopian tubes, after conception, by means of which the ovum is tranſlated from the ovarium into the uterus.

PERISTERĬUM, (*Periſterium, i*, n. περιστέριον, from περιστερά, a pigeon, ſo called becauſe pigeons cover it). The herb vervain. See *Verbena*.

PERISYSTŎLE, (*Periſyſtole, es*, f. περισυστολή, from περισυστέλλω, to compreſs). The intermiſſion or time between the contraction and dilatation of the heart.

PERITONÆUM, (*Peritonæum, i*, n. περιτόναιον, from περιτείνω, to extend round). A ſtrong ſimple membrane, by which all the viſcera of the abdomen are ſurrounded. It has an exceedingly ſmooth, exhaling, and moiſt internal ſurface. Outwardly, it is every where ſurrounded by cellular ſubſtance, which, towards the kidneys, is very looſe and very fat; but is very ſhort at the lower tendon of the tranſverſe muſcles. It begins from the diaphragm, which it completely lines; and, at the laſt fleſhy fibres of the ribs, and the external lumbar fibres, it completes the ſeptum, in conjunction with the pleura, with which it is continuous through the various intervals of the diaphragm. Poſteriorly it deſcends before the kidneys; anteriorly, behind the abdominal muſcles; it dips into the pelvis; from the bones of the pubis, paſſes over

the bladder, and descends behind; and being again carried backwards at the entrance of the ureters in two lunar folds, it rejoins upon the intestinum rectum, that part of itself which invests the loins, and in this situation lies before the rectum. The cellular texture, which covers the peritonæum on the outside, is continued into sheaths in very many places; of which one receives the testicle on each side, another the iliac vessels of the pelvis, viz. the obturatoria, those of the penis, bladder, and aorta, and, ascending to the breast, accompany the œsophagus and vertebræ; by means of which, there is a communication between the whole body and the peritonæum, well known in dropsical people. It has various prolongations, for covering the viscera. The shorter productions of this membrane are called ligaments; and are formed by a continuous reduplication of the peritonæum, receding from its inner surface, inclosing cellular substance, and extending to some viscus, where its plates separate, and, having diverged, embrace the viscus; but the intermediate cellular substance always accompanies this membranaceous coat, and joins it with the true substance of the viscus. Of this short kind of production, three belong to the liver, one or two to the spleen, and others to the kidneys, and to the sides of the uterus and vagina. By this means, the tender substance of the viscera is defended from injury by any motion or concussion, and their whole mass is prevented from being misplaced by their own weight, and from injuring themselves, being securely connected with the firm sides of the peritonæum.

Peritonītis, (*Peritonitis, ĭdis*, περιτονιτις, from περιτοναιον, the peritonæum). An inflammation of the peritonæum. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexiæ* and order *phlegmasiæ* of Cullen, known by the presence of pyrexia, with pain in the abdomen, that is increased when in an erect position. When the inflammation attacks the peritoneum of the viscera, it takes the name of the viscus: thus, *peritonitis hepatis, peritonitis intestinalis, peritonitis omentalis*, or *epiploitis*, or *omentalis, peritonitis mesenterii*.

Perla, (*Perla, æ*, f. Ital. and Span. *perl*, Welch, *perlen*, Germ.). See *Margarita*.

Perlæ. See *Margarita*.

Perls. See *Margarita*.

Pernĭo, (*Pernio, onis*, m.). A chilblain. A species of *erythema* of Cullen.

Peronēus antĭcus. See *Peroneus brevis*.

Peronēus brevis, (*Peroneus*, sc. *musculus*, περονιαιος, from *perone*, the fibula). This muscle, which is in a great measure covered by the last described muscle, is the *peroneus secundus* seu *anticus* of Douglas, and the *peroneus medius* seu *anticus*, of Winslow. It arises by an acute, thin, and fleshy origin from the anterior and outer part of the fibula, its fibres continuing to adhere to the lower half of that bone. Its round tendon passes through the groove in the malleolus externus, along with that of the peroneus longus, after which it runs in a separate groove to be inserted into the upper and posterior part of the tubercle at the basis of the metatarsal bone, that supports the little toe. Its use is to assist the peroneus longus.

Peronēus longus. This muscle, which is the *peroneus primus* seu *posticus* of Douglas, and the *peroneus maximus* seu *posterior* of Winslow, is situated somewhat anteriorly along the outer side of the leg. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the external lateral part of the head of the tibia, and likewise from the upper anterior surface and outer side of the

perone or fibula, its fibres continuing to adhere to the outer surface of the latter to within three or four inches of the malleolus externus. It terminates in a long round tendon, which runs obliquely behind the malleolus internus, where it passes through a cartilaginous groove in common with the peroneus brevis, being bound down by an annular ligament. When it has reached the os calcis, it quits the tendon of the peroneus brevis, and runs obliquely inwards along a groove in the os cuboides, under the muscles on the sole of the foot, to be inserted into the outside of the posterior extremity of the metatarsal bone that supports the great toe. Near the insertion of this muscle we find a small *bursa mucosa*. This muscle draws the foot outwards, and likewise assists in extending it.

PERONĔUS MAXĬMUS. See *Peroneus longus*.

PERONĔUS MEDĬUS. See *Peroneus brevis*.

PERONĔUS POSTĪCUS. See *Peroneus longus*.

PERONĔUS PRIMUS. See *Peroneus longus*.

PERONĔUS TERTĬUS. This is the name given by Albinus to a muscle which, by some writers, is called *nonus Vesalii*, or Vesalius's ninth muscle of the foot; but by most considered in the present day as a portion of the extensor longus digitorum pedis. It is situated at the anterior, inferior, and outer part of the leg, along the outer edge of the last described muscle, to which it is intimately united. It arises fleshy from the anterior surface of the lower half of the fibula, and from the adjacent part of the interosseous ligament. Its fibres run obliquely downwards, towards a tendon which passes under the annular ligament, and then running obliquely outwards, is inserted into the root of the metatarsal bone that supports the little toe. This muscle assists in bending the foot.

PERONĔUS SECUNDUS. See *Peroneus brevis*.

PERRENIAL WORM GRASS. See *Spigelia*.

PERSĬCA, (*Persica, æ*, f. περσικη, from *Persia*, its native soil). The peach. The fruit of the *Amygdalus persica* of Linnæus. It is known to be grateful and wholesome, seldom disagreeing with the stomach, unless this organ is not in a healthy state, or the fruit has been eaten to excess, when effects similar to those of the other dulco-acid summer fruits may be produced. The flowers, including the calyx, as well as the corolla, are the parts of the persica used for medicinal purposes. These have an agreeable but weak smell, and a bitterish taste. Boulduc observes "that when distilled, without addition, by the heat of a water bath, they yield one-sixth their weight, or more, of a whitish liquid, which communicates to a considerable quantity of other liquids a flavour like that of the kernels of fruits. These flowers have a cathartic effect, and, especially to children, have been successfully given, in the character of a vermifuge; for this purpose, an infusion of a dram of the flowers dried, or half an ounce in their recent state, is the requisite dose. The leaves of the Persica are also found to possess an anthelmintic power, and from a great number of experiments appear to have been given with invariable success both to children and adults. However, as the leaves and flowers of the persica manifest in some degree the quality of those of the lauroceraſus, they ought to be used with caution.

PERSĬCARĬA, (*Persicaria, æ*, f. from *persica*, the peach-tree, so called because its blossoms are like those of the peach). *Persicaria mitis. Plumbago.* Arsmart. This plant, *Polygonum persicaria* of Linnæus, is said to possess vulnerary and antisep-

tic properties; with which intentions it is given in wine, to reſtrain the progreſs of gangrene.

PERSĬCARĬA MITIS. See *Perſicaria.*

PERSĬCARĬA URENS. See *Hydropiper.*

PERSONATA, (*Perſonata, æ*, f. from *perſona*, a diſguiſed perſon, becauſe, according to Pliny, the ancient actors uſed to maſk themſelves with the leaves of this plant). The great burdock. See *Bardana.*

PERSPIRATION, (*Perſpiratio, onis*, f.). The vapour that is ſecreted by the extremities of the cutaneous arteries from the external ſurface of the body. It is diſtinguiſhed into *ſenſible* and *inſenſible.* The former is ſeparated in the form of an inviſible vapour, the latter ſo as to be viſible in the form of very little drops adhering to the epidermis. The *ſecretory organ* is compoſed of the extremities of the cutaneous arteries. The *ſmell* of the perſpirable fluid, in an healthy man, is fatuous and animal; its *taſte* manifeſtly ſalt and ammoniacal. In *conſiſtence* it is vaporous and aqueous; and its *ſpecific gravity* is greater than water. For the moſt part it is yellowiſh, from the paſſage of the ſubcutaneous oil, and ſebaceous matter of the ſubcutaneous glands. Sometimes it is reddiſh, from the globules of the cruor paſſing through, eſpecially under the axillæ. The *quantity* is ſometimes ſo profuſe, as not only conſpicuouſly to moiſten the linen, but alſo the thicker garments.

The *conſtituent principles* of the perſpirable fluid appear to be, 1. *Water*, attenuated into vapour, by the matter of heat. 2. *Animal gaz*, or carbonated hydrogen. As the production of carbonated air with the oxygen of the atmoſphere ſhews. 3. *Azotic gas.* For water, in which a man has bathed ſoon becomes putrid. Carbonated hydrogen, chemically combined with azot, would appear to conſtitute *putrid miaſma.* May not this be the origin of putrid fever, in thoſe narrow confined chambers in which there are many perſons? 4. The *glandular ſmegma* and *ſubcutaneous oil*; hence linen is ſtained with a yellowiſh colour, and leanneſs is brought on. 5. The *ſerum of the blood.* This affords an immenſe quantity of water, and the albuminous and ſaline part of the ſweat. It makes the linen of a viſcid rigidity, and of a ſalt taſte. Glaſs-blowers ſometimes excrete ſo acrid a ſweat, that ſalt has been ſeen collected in cryſtals on their faces.

Perſpiration varies in reſpect to, 1. The *temperature of the atmoſphere.* Thus men have a more copious, viſcid, and higher coloured ſweat on ſummer days, and in warm countries, than in colder regions. 2. *Sex.* The ſweat of a man is ſaid to ſmell more acrid than that of a woman. 3. *Age.* The young are more ſubject to ſweat than the aged, who during the exceſſive heat of the ſummer ſcarcely ſweat at all. 4. *Ingeſta.* An alliacious ſweat is perceived from eating garlic; a leguminous from peas; an acid from acids; a fetid from animal food only; and a rancid ſweat from fat foods, as is obſerved in Greenland. A long abſtinence from drink cauſes a more acrid and coloured ſweat; and the drinking a great quantity of cold water in ſummer, a limpid and thin ſweat. 5. *Medicines.* The ſweat of thoſe who have taken muſk, even moderately, and aſſafœtida, or ſulphur, ſmells of their reſpective natures. 6. *Region of the body.* The ſweat of the head is greaſy; on the forehead it is more aqueous; under the axillæ very unguinous; and in the interſtices of the toes, it is very fetid, forming in the moſt healthy man blackiſh ſordes. 7. *Diſeaſes.* In this repect it varies very much, in regard to quantity, ſmell, and colour; for the ſweat of gouty per-

is said to turn vegetable juices to a red colour, and is of a cretaceous nature. Some men also have a lucid sweat, others a sweat tinging their linen of a cærulean colour.

The use of the insensible perspiration are, 1. To *liberate* the blood from superfluous animal gas, azot, and water. 2. To eliminate the noxious and heterogeneous excrements; hence the acid, rancid, leguminous, or putrid perspiration of some men. 3. To *moisten* the external surface of the body, lest the epidermis, cutis, and its nervous papillæ be dried up by the atmospheric air. 4. To *counter-balance* the suppressed pulmonary transpiration of the lungs; for when it is suppressed, the cutaneous is encreased: hence the nature of both appears to be the same.

The use of the sensible perspiration or sweat, in an healthy man, is scarcely observable, unless from an error of the six non-naturals. Its first effect on the body is always prejudicial, by exhausting and drying it; although it is sometimes of advantage. 1. By supplying a watery excretion: thus when the urine is deficient, the sweat is often more abundant. In this manner an aqueous diarrhœa is frequently cured by sweating. 2. By eliminating at the same time, any morbid matter. Thus various miasmata are critically expelled, in acute and chronic diseases, with the sweat.

PERTUSSIS, (*Pertussis, is*, f. from *per*, much, and *tussis*, cough). The hooping cough. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi* of Cullen; known by a convulsive strangulating cough, with hooping, relieved by vomiting, and being contagious.

PERUVIAN BARK. See *Cinchona*.

PERUVĬĀNUS CORTEX. Peruvian bark. See *Cinchona*.

PERUVĬĀNUS CORTEX FLAVUS. See *Cinchona*.

PERUVĬĀNUS CORTEX RUBER. See *Cinchona*.

PERVIGILĬUM, (*Pervigilium, i*, n. from *per*, much, and *vigilo*, to watch). Watching, or a want of sleep. See *Vigilance*.

PES ALEXANDRĪNUS. See *Pyrethrum*.

PES CĂTI. See *Gnaphalium*.

PES COLUMBĪNUS. See *Geranium columbinum*.

PES LEŌNIS. The ladies mantle is sometimes so called. See *Alchemilla*.

PESSARY, (*Pessarium, i*, n. from πισσω, to soften). An instrument that is introduced into the vagina to support the uterus.

PESTILENT WORT. See *Petasites*.

PESTIS, (*Pestis, is*, f.). The plague. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen, characterized by typhus, which is contagious in the extreme, prostration of strength, buboes, and carbuncles, petechiæ, hæmorrhage, and colliquative diarrhœa.

PETASĪTES, (*Petasites, æ*, f. πετασιτης; from πετασος, a hat, so named because its leaves are shaped like a hat). Butterbur. Pestilentwort. *Tussilago petasites* of Linnæus. The roots of this plant are recommended as aperient and alexipharmic, and promise, though now forgotten, to be of considerable activity. They have a strong smell, and a bitterish acrid taste, of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable.

PETECHĬÆ, (*Petechia, æ*, f. from the Italian *petechio*, a fleabite, because they resemble the bites of fleas). Red or purple spots that mostly appear in contagious diseases.

PETRAPĬUM, (*Petrapium, i, n.* from *petra*, a rock, and *apium*, parsley, so called because it grows in stoney

places). See *Petroſelinum macedonicum.*

PETROLĔUM, (*Petroleum, i,* n. from *petra,* a rock, and *oleum,* oil). The name of petroleum is given to a liquid bituminous ſubſtance which flows between rocks, or in different places at the ſurface of the earth. The more fluid ſpecies are diſtinguiſhed by the name of *naptha,* and the thicker by thoſe of *piſſaphaltum* and *piſſellum.* See *Naphtha, Mineral pitch,* &c.

PETROLĔUM BARBĂDENSE. Barbadoes tar. This is chiefly obtained from the iſland of Barbadoes, and is ſometimes employed externally in paralytic diſeaſes.

PETROLĔUM RUBRUM. *Oleum gabianum.* Red petroleum. A ſpecies of rock oil of a blackiſh red colour, of a thicker conſiſtence, leſs penetrating and more diſagreeable ſmell than the other kinds of petroleum. It abounds about the village of Gabian in Languedoc.

PETROLĔUM SULPHURĀTUM. A ſtimulating balſamic remedy given in coughs, aſthmas, and other affections of the cheſt.

PETROSĔLĪNUM, (*Petroſelinum, i,* n. from πετρα, a rock, and σελινον, parſley). *Petroſelinum vulgare. Apium hortenſe.* Common parſley. *Apium petroſelinum* of Linnæus. *Apium foliis caulinis linearibus, involucellis minutis.* Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Digynia.* Both the root and ſeeds of this plant are directed by the London College for medicinal uſe: the former have a ſweetiſh taſte, accompanied with a ſlight warmth or flavour, ſomewhat reſembling that of carrot; the latter are in taſte warmer and more aromatic than any other part of the plant, and manifeſt conſiderable bitterneſs. The roots are ſaid to be aperient and diuretic, and have been employed in nephritic pains and obſtructions of urine. The ſeeds poſſeſs aromatic and carminative powers, but are ſeldom preſcribed.

PETROSELĪNUM MACEDONĬCUM. *Apium petræum. Petrapium.* Macedonian parſley. This plant, *Bubon macedonicum* of Linnæus, is ſimilar in quality to the common parſley, but weaker and leſs grateful. The ſeeds enter the celebrated compounds mithridate and therica.

PETROSELĪNUM VULGĀRE. See *Petroſelinum.*

PETROSILEX, (*Petroſilex, icis,* f.). A ſpecies of coarſe flint, of a deep blue or yellowiſh green colour. It is interſperſed in veins through rocks; and from this circumſtance derives its name.

PETRO-SALPINGO-STAPHILĪNUS. See *Levator palati.*

PEUCĒDĂNUM, (*Peucedanum, i,* n. πευκεδανον, from πευκη, the pine-tree; ſo called from its leaves reſembling thoſe of the pine-tree). *Marathrum ſylveſtre. Marathrophyllum. Pinaſtellum. Hœnialeum porcinum.* Hog's fennel. Hore's tongue. Sulphurwort. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Peucedanum officinale; foliis quinque partitis, filiformibus, linearibus* of Linnæus. The root is the officinal part; it has a ſtrong fetid ſmell, ſomewhat reſembling that of ſulphureous ſolutions, and an acrid, unctuous, bitteriſh taſte. Wounded when freſh in the ſpring or autumn, particularly in the former ſeaſon, in which the root is moſt vigorous, it yields a conſiderable quantity of yellow juice, which ſoon dries into a ſolid gummy reſin, which retains the taſte and ſtrong ſmell of the root. This, as well as the root, is recommended as a nervine and anti-hyſteric remedy.

PEUCĒDĂNUM OFFICĪNĀLE. The ſyſtematic name of the hog's fennel. See *Peucedanum.*

PEUCEDĂNUM SĬLĂUS. The ſyſtematic name of the meadow ſaxifrage. See *Saxifraga vulgaris.*

PEYER'S GLANDS. *Glandulæ peyerianæ.* The glands of the inteſtines. See *Brunner's glands.*

PEZIZA AURICŬLA. The ſyſtematic name of the elder fungus. See *Auricula judæ*.

PHAGEDÆNA, (*Phagedæna, æ*, f. φαγεδαινα; from φαγω, to eat). A ſpecies of ulcer that ſpreads very rapidly.

PHAGEDÆNICS. Applications that deſtroy fungous fleſh.

PHALANX, (*Phalanx, gis*, f. from φαλαγξ, a battalion). The ſmall bones of the fingers and toes, which are diſtinguiſhed into the firſt, ſecond, and third phalanx.

PHĂLĀRIS CANARĬENSIS, (*Phalaris, idis*, f. φαλαρις; from φαλος, white, ſhining, ſo named from its white ſhining ſeed, and *canarienſis*, from its being the principal food of the canary birds). Canary graſs. The ſeed of this plant is well known to be the common food of canary birds. In the Canary iſlands the inhabitants grind it into meal, and make a coarſe ſort of bread with it.

PHALLUS ESCULENTUS. The ſyſtematic name of the morel fungus. See *Morel*.

PHARMACY, (*Pharmacia, æ*, f. φαρμακια; from φαρμακον, a medicine, or drug). The art of preparing medicines. By pharmacy is to be underſtood that branch of the medical art which treats of the preparation and compoſition of medicines. It is then perfectly diſtinct from therapeutics. To enter into any full detail even of the general heads of enquiry on this ſubject, would here be improper. But, at the ſame time, it is well known that the virtues of medicines are greatly affected by preparation. Hence, the general rules reſpecting the pharmaceutical treatment of ſubſtances employed for the purpoſes of medicine muſt be intimately connected with the general doctrines of cure. From the definition given of pharmacy, it is evident that this ſubject may properly be divided into two diſtinct parts. The firſt of theſe treats of the preparation of medicines. Under this will fall to be mentioned all thoſe rules, by the proper obſervance of which medicines may be exhibited in the moſt commodious and efficacious form of which their nature will admit. The ſecond treats of the compoſition of medicines. Under this muſt be comprehended the directions neceſſary to be obſerved, when different articles are to be combined together with a view of acquiring properties which they did not poſſeſs when taken ſingly. Preparation and compoſition then muſt neceſſarily be marked out as the moſt general heads of enquiry.

Many ſubſtances employed in medicine can be collected only at particular ſeaſons. Some of theſe, if left in the ſtate in which they are found, would in a ſhort time either change their nature, or be entirely deſtroyed. Others are not only in this ſituation, but muſt be brought from diſtant countries, and undergo various changes of temperature. By this means they are ſtill farther expoſed either to have their qualities altered, or to be totally deſtroyed. Hence an eſſential part of preparation conſiſts in the means of preſervation.

With a view to determine the means by which the preſervation of ſubſtances may be effected, it is firſt neceſſary to inveſtigate the cauſes which induce either deſtruction or a change of qualities. The alterations produced in ſubſtances which we would wiſh to prevent, moſt frequently depend upon the nature and proportion of ſome of their component parts. Thus, for example, nothing is more common than to obſerve an inteſtine motion landing in putrefaction induced by a large proportion of aqueous particles entering the compoſition of any ſubſtance. One means, therefore, by which

ſubſtances may be preſerved is, by diminiſhing the quantity of theſe parts when in a high proportion.

This, indeed, cannot in every caſe be effected, without in ſome degree impairing the virtues of the ſubſtance. But, on the other hand, it will often be the moſt effectual means of heightening and concentrating virtues. Hence, in conſidering the means of preſerving ſubſtances, the firſt ſubject of enquiry will naturally be concerning the methods of removing thoſe parts which have a tendency to produce a change in their nature.

Fermentation and putrefaction, inducing an alteration or deſtruction of the qualities of medicines, are often occaſioned by the action of external bodies. Water, externally applied, will frequently inſinuate itſelf into ſubſtances employed as medicines, and produce the ſame effects as their native juices. The acceſs of air is well known to be a circumſtance, in a great meaſure, eſſentially neceſſary, before putrefaction can take place. Heat, if not altogether requiſite to putrefaction, has, at leaſt, a remarkable tendency to promote it. Cold, although in its own nature a ſtrong antiſeptic, yet when applied in an intenſe degree to many ſubſtances, deſtroys their texture, and entirely deprives them of their former qualities. Inſects of different kinds, by preying upon ſubſtances, frequently produce changes of a ſimilar nature. From all this it appears, that the action of a variety of external matters is highly adverſe to preſervation.

All theſe, however, cannot in every caſe be totally excluded. In many, their total excluſion would be improper. It becomes then neceſſary to conſider how far and by what means their action may be moſt advantageouſly reſtrained. Under the head of preſervation, therefore, a ſecond ſubject of enquiry will be, concerning the means of preventing the influence of external accidents.

In ſome caſes, the means of preſervation, which fall under the two heads of enquiry already ſuggeſted, cannot be employed. In others, all the effects which they are capable of producing will be inſufficient for obtaining the end propoſed. Hence it becomes neceſſary to have recourſe to means of preſervation of a different nature.

While ſome ſubſtances are naturally prone to putrefaction, others are known to poſſeſs remarkable powers in reſiſting it. In conſequence of this, they are employed for preſerving ſubſtances, as well for the purpoſes of medicine as of diet. With this intention, ſalts, ſugar, ſpirits, vinegar, and many other antiſeptics are in daily uſe. From a variety of circumſtances, the propriety of employing any one of theſe, the proper choice of the individual to be employed, and the method of employing it, muſt be determined. Hence, to the two ſubjects of inveſtigation which have already been pointed out under the general title of preſervation, an enquiry concerning the addition of antiſeptics may be added as a third. Under theſe three heads the general rules reſpecting preſervation, and the means by which it can beſt be obtained, may be fully inveſtigated.

Some ſubſtances can be employed for the purpoſes of medicine in the ſtate in which they are preſented to us by nature. But conſidering the great number of medicines which are in uſe, this may be ſaid to be the caſe with a few only. By much the greateſt part of them muſt undergo ſome preparation at leaſt, before they can be conveniently exhibited in the cure of diſeaſes. Hence, under the general head of preparation, a ſecond ſubject of inveſtigation naturally ſuggeſted, is an enquiry with regard

to the different forms in which medicines may be moſt advantageouſly employed.

The different forms in which medicines are exhibited are very numerous. This, therefore, muſt be a moſt extenſive ſubject of enquiry. Hence proper ſubdiviſions are here particularly neceſſary, abridging an inveſtigation which would otherwiſe be very tedious. With this view, the different forms of medicines, according as they are intended for internal or for external uſe, will afford a foundation for ſeparate ſubjects of enquiry.

Many of the forms of medicines which are taken internally are introduced into the ſtomach in a ſolid ſtate. Of the various preparations which may be referred to this diviſion, the forms of powders and pills may be eſteemed the two extremes. The former is the looſeſt texture in which any ſubſtance is taken into the ſtomach, and the latter the moſt firm. For the proper preparation of powders, the principal requiſite ſeems to be a minute diviſion of parts. For that of pills, ſuch a conſiſtence as, while it gives a proper cohesion, is not incapable of ſolution in the alimentary canal. But many particulars, which are neceſſary to be attended to in preparation, are in common to both theſe forms. Beſides this, from the rules and directions applicable to the extremes, many of thoſe circumſtances which deſerve attention in the employment of forms of an intermediate texture, may be readily underſtood. Hence, a proper knowledge of the rules which are applicable to thoſe ſolid forms in general, which are uſed internally, will ſuperſede the neceſſity of many repetitions under particular forms. An enquiry, therefore, concerning the forms of medicines which are taken internally in a ſolid ſtate, may be marked out as one ſubject of inveſtigation.

From the ſubject of enquiry which has now been pointed out, another is naturally ſuggeſted. After conſidering the general directions* reſpecting the forms of medicines which are to be employed internally in a ſolid ſtate, it next follows that thoſe ſhould be treated of which reſpect the forms uſed in a fluid ſtate.

The different modes of preparation which will fall under this head, are even more numerous than thoſe which can be referred to the laſt. They may be divided into two kinds; either they are naturally fluid, or they acquire their fluidity by the application of art. Thoſe medicines which are naturally fluid, when they are to be exhibited in the ſame form, in general require no preparation at all. When they do require it, they ſtand in need of nothing farther than being freed from extraneous matters. This muſt be effected on different principles, according to the nature of the ſubſtances which it is neceſſary to ſeparate. Hence, though this be not a field for extenſive enquiry, yet it will at leaſt merit ſome attention.

Where fluidity is to be artificially acquired, it is chiefly, if not always, obtained in one of two ways; either by expreſſion, or by the addition of fluid matters. Theſe, therefore, naturally ſuggeſt themſelves as ſeparate heads of enquiry.

That any medicine may be a fit ſubject for expreſſion, ſeveral circumſtances are requiſite. It is not only neceſſary that it contain a conſiderable proportion of fluid, but that this fluid be in ſuch a ſtate as to be capable of being detached from it without great difficulty. Beſides, that in this way an efficacious remedy be obtained, it is neceſſary that the active powers of the medicine ſhould reſide it its fluid parts. Theſe conditions, however, are rarely united. Hence, this is a method of preparation applicable to few ſubſtances only. Where it

can be applied, the chief thing requiſite is to prevent the admixture of foreign matters. The rules and obſervations, therefore, which are neceſſary with regard to it, need not to be numerous.

The variety of preparations which may be formed by the addition of fluid matters is very great. In different medicines there are many active matters capable of being diſſolved. Each of theſe active matters may be diſſolved by different menſtrua. Beſides this, the medicines formed by any menſtruum will be much diverſified by the method in which it has been applied. The active parts of medicines which are principally capable of being diſſolved are, ſaline, mucilaginous, oily, balſamic, and reſinous matters. The menſtrua which are chiefly employed are, water, ſpirit, wine, and vinegar. From theſe, by different methods of application, are formed infuſions, decoctions, tinctures, and many other forms of medicines. The number of preparations, then, is a ſufficient ground for concluding that the directions falling under this head muſt be numerous.

The efficacy of all medicines obtained by the application of fluid matters, will greatly depend upon the menſtrua being properly adapted to the ingredients from which active powers are to be extracted. Thus, water is beſt fitted for diſſolving ſaline and mucilaginous matters. Spirit, on the other hand, is the proper menſtruum for oily, balſamic, and reſinous ſubſtances. Wine and vinegar in ſome degree combine the ſolvent powers of the two other menſtrua. They are often preferable to water, as covering taſte, heightening colour, and giving a ſtronger impregnation; and to ſpirit, as not being ſo highly ſtimulant. Hence, directions will be neceſſary for determining the choice of the menſtruum, by means of which any of theſe fluid preparations are to be formed.

From what has been ſaid, then, it appears, that under the head now mentioned, many particulars muſt be comprehended. Hence, in treating of preparation, it muſt be looked upon as an eſſential ſubject of enquiry. With this head, the obſervations to be offered on the different forms of medicines which are intended for being uſed internally, may be concluded.

Having pointed out the enquiries neceſſary to be proſecuted in conſidering the different forms of medicines which are uſed internally, the only remaining branch of this ſubject reſpects the conſideration of thoſe intended for external uſe. The different forms of medicines which can be uſed in this way are indeed leſs numerous than thoſe which can be referred to the preceding head. They muſt, however, be conſidered as admitting of conſiderable variety; and the rules applicable to the different forms intended for internal uſe will not apply to them. The footing, therefore, on which they require a ſeparate conſideration from the former head, is manifeſt. It muſt, however, be allowed, that many obſervations made with regard to the one will likewiſe hold good concerning the other. Hence, from a full inveſtigation of the former head, the enquiries on this ſubject will be much abridged.

To the head of preparations intended for external uſe, are to be referred fomentations, ointments, waſhes, plaſters, and many others. It is evident, therefore, that the diviſion formerly pointed out is likewiſe naturally ſuggeſted on this ſubject. Hence, in treating of the medicines uſed externally, the forms in a ſolid or in a fluid ſtate will afford a foundation for ſeparate enquiries.

The preparation of medicines being thus conſidered, the only ſubject of enquiry now remaining reſpects their compoſition. This was formerly pointed out as one grand branch of the art of pharmacy. The advantages which are aimed at in compoſition are no leſs obvious than thoſe which may be derived from preparation. Medicines, by being united, often entirely change their nature, and acquire active powers which none of them before poſſeſſed. Many active ſubſtances, which are of ſuch a nature that they could not without imminent danger be exhibited by themſelves, will, from a very ſlight addition, become ſafe and efficacious medicines. Where ſubſtances employed as medicines poſſeſs a very high degree of activity, they muſt often be uſed in doſes ſo very ſmall, that if they were to be taken entirely by themſelves, they could neither be conveniently exhibited, nor accurately divided. But, from a variety of additions which will have no tendency, either to alter or impair their virtues, theſe inconveniences may with the greateſt facility be obviated. It is then ſufficiently evident, that from combining together ſubſtances employed for medical purpoſes, advantages may both be expected and obtained.

But it is by no means to be imagined, that compoſition will in every caſe be attended with good conſequences. From the ſame principles on which it is ſometimes of ſervice, it will in other caſes have a manifeſtly bad effect. That good effects may be obtained from medicines, it is on ſome occaſions neceſſary that they ſhould be employed in a very concentrated ſtate. In ſuch a ſituation, every addition will have a manifeſt tendency to weaken their power. Beſides this, even the moſt active medicines will often, by a very ſlight and trifling addition, be rendered totally inert. And farther, it is by no means uncommon to find two medicines which will readily unite together, and, when united, will form a very uſeful compoſition; but, upon the addition of a third, which would even have readily joined with either taken ſeparately, the former union will not only be deſtroyed, but the purpoſes of compoſition entirely fruſtrated. It is not therefore to be imagined, that in order to obtain a ſafe and efficacious medicine, nothing farther is requiſite than to jumble together a number of active ingredients. In order to obtain the advantages which may be derived from compoſition, without being expoſed to the inconveniences which it may occaſion, many circumſtances muſt be attended to. An inveſtigation of theſe, therefore, will readily be eſteemed a ſubject of great importance.

The opinions which mankind, at different times, and in different countries, have entertained with regard to compoſition, ſeem to have been very oppoſite. This will readily appear from conſulting either practical writers, or diſpenſatories publiſhed by authority. From an acquaintance then with the rules of compoſition, we will be enabled to judge of the propriety of the various compoſitions adopted by different writers. But, beſides this, it is not to be doubted that many compoſitions hitherto unemployed may be introduced into practice with advantage. Hence, a knowledge of this ſubject becomes farther neceſſary, that theſe may be judiciouſly and elegantly contrived. The rules to be obſerved in compoſition will entirely reſpect two particulars, the poſſibility of combination and the advantages to be derived from it. Combination may often appear proper when, from the chemical qualities of the ſubſtances, it cannot be effected. It may often, on the

other hand, be effected with the utmoſt facility, when it would be entirely uſeleſs. Hence, either in examining or contriving any compoſition, both particulars claim attention.

The firſt of theſe is an enquiry entirely chemical. The poſſibility of combination, and the effects of mixture, can be determined only from an acquaintance with the properties and affinities of bodies. By means of mechanical aſſiſtances, a momentary union may, perhaps, in every caſe be effected. But, in many caſes, particularly if the bodies thus united be in a fluid ſtate, it will be momentary only. The advantages of compoſition, however, cannot be expected without a union in ſome degree permanent. This is only to be obtained when the matters which are mixed together are capable of being united in a ſtate of proper ſolution. Hence the principles of chemiſtry are the ſources from whence the rules of compoſition, in this particular, are to be entirely derived.

Being ſatisfied that ſubſtances are capable of union, it next becomes neceſſary to enquire what advantages are to be expected from it. The opinion which authors have entertained of this ſubject may readily be diſcovered from conſidering the different parts of which they have ſuppoſed every formula to conſiſt. Five different parts have in general been enumerated. Theſe have been termed, *baſis*, *adjuvans*, *corrigens*, *dirigens*, and *excipiens*. By the *baſis* of a compoſition is meant, that part by means of which the intention propoſed from the preſcription is principally to be anſwered. By the *adjuvans*, ſomething added to the baſis from which its operation may be rendered more ſtrong than would otherwiſe be the caſe. By the *corrigens*, ſomething added, with a view either to cover diſagreeable ſenſible qualities, or to correct noxious powers. By the *dirigens*, ſomething determining the operation of the others articles in a particular way. And, by the *excipiens*, ſomething intended to receive all the others, and to promote a proper union.

If theſe are to be conſidered as the proper conſtituent parts of a compoſition, the heads of enquiry on this ſubject are evident. But this matter may be viewed more ſimply. All compoſition ſeems to be intended with one of three views, either to co-operate, to correct, or to give a proper form. By conſidering, therefore, how far any addition will ſerve one or other of theſe purpoſes, the advantages to be derived from combination may be determined. Upon the whole, by proſecuting in a proper manner the different enquiries which have been pointed out, we can alone expect to attain to that elegance in preſcription, which will unite agreeable ſimplicity with ſafety, convenience, and efficacy.

PHARMĂCOPŒIA, (*Pharmacopœia*, *æ*, f. φαρμακοποια, from φαρμακον, a medicine, and ποιεω, to make). The book that contains directions for preparing medicines.

PHARYNX, (*Pharynx*, *ingis*, φαρυγξ απο τυ φερειν, becauſe it conveys the food into the ſtomach). The muſcular bag at the back part of the mouth. It is ſhaped like a funnel, adheres to the fauces behind the larynx, and terminates in the œſophagus. Its uſe is to receive the maſticated food, and to convey it into the œſophagus.

PHASEŎLUS VULGĀRIS, (*Phaſeolus*, *i*, m. φασηλος, from φασηλις, a little ſhip or galliot, which its pods were ſuppoſed to reſemble). The ſyſtematic name of the kidney-bean. See *Bean*, *kidney*.

PHELLANDRĬUM AQUATĬCUM, (*Phellandrium*, *i*, n. φελλανδριον, from φελλος, the cork-tree, and ανδρος, male, ſo called becauſe it floats upon

the water like cork). The ſyſtematic name of the water fennel. See *Fæniculum aquaticum.*

PHIMŌSIS, (*Phimoſis, is*, f. φιμωσις, from φιμοω, to bind up). The prepuce is formed by a continuation of the ſkin of the penis, which ſerves to cover the glands when the penis is not erected, and to allow for the time extenſion of the penis when erected; at which time, this portion of the ſkin that formed the prepuce does not cover the glands, but falls back upon the penis, and ſerves to cover part of that. The phimoſis is a conſtriction or ſtraitneſs of the extremity of the prepuce, which, preventing the glans from being uncovered, is often the occaſion of many troubleſome complaints. It may ariſe from different cauſes, both in children and grown perſons. Children have naturally the prepuce very long; and as it exceeds the extremity of the glans, and is not liable to be diſtended, it is apt to contract its orifice. This often occaſions a lodgement of a ſmall quantity of urine between that and the glans, which, if it grows corroſive, may irritate the parts ſo as to produce an inflammation. In this caſe, the extremity of the prepuce becomes more contracted, and conſequently the urine more confined. Hence the whole inſide of the prepuce excoriates and ſuppurates; the end of it grows thick and ſwells, and in ſome months become callous. At other times it does not grow thick, but becomes ſo ſtrait and contracted as hardly to allow the introduction of a probe. The only way to remove this diſorder is by an operation. A phimoſis may affect grown perſons from the ſame cauſe as little children; though there are ſome grown perſons who cannot uncover their glans, or at leaſt not without pain, and yet have not the extremity of the prepuce ſo contracted as to confine the urine from paſſing, we notwithſtanding find them ſometimes troubled with a phimoſis, which might be ſuſpected to ariſe from a venereal taint, but has, in reality, a much more innocent cauſe. There are, we know, ſebacious glands ſituated in the prepuce, round the corona, which ſecrete an unctuous humour, which ſometimes becomes acrimonious, irritates the ſkin that covers the glans, and the irritation extending to the internal membrane of the prepuce, they both become inflamed, and yield a purulent ſerum, which cannot be diſcharged, becauſe the glans is ſwelled, and the orifice of the prepuce contracted. We find alſo ſome grown up perſons, who, though they never uncovered the glans, have been ſubject to phimoſis from a venereal cauſe. In ſome, it is owing to gonorrhœa, where the matter lodged between the prepuce and the glans occaſioned the ſame excoriation as the diſcharge before mentioned from the ſebacious glands. In others, it proceeds from venereal chancres on the prepuce, the glans, or the frænum; which producing an inflammation either on the prepuce or glans, or both, the extremity of the foreſkin contracts, and prevents the diſcharge of the matter. The parts in a very little time are greatly tumified, and ſometimes a gangrene comes on in leſs than two days.

PHLEBOTOMY, (*Phlebotomia, æ*, f. φλεβοτομια, from φλεψ, a vein, and τεμνω, to cut). The opening of a vein.

PHLEGM, (*Phlegma, atis*, n. φλεγμα, from φλεγω, to burn or to excite). In chemiſtry it means water, but, in the common acceptation of the word, it is a thick and tenacious mucus ſecreted in the lungs.

PHLEGMASĬA, (*Phlegmaſia, æ*, f. φλεγμασια, from φλεγω, to burn). An inflammation.

PHLEGMASIA DOLENS. This diſeaſe principally affects women in the puerperal ſtate; in a few inſtances

it has been obſerved to attack pregnant women; and, in one or two caſes, nurſes, on loſing their children, have been affected by it. Women of all deſcriptions are liable to be attacked by it during and ſoon after childbed: But thoſe whoſe limbs have been pained or anaſarcous during pregnancy, and who do not ſuckle their offſpring, are more eſpecially ſubject to it. It has rarely occurred oftener than once to the ſame female. It ſupervenes to eaſy and natural, as well as to difficult and preternatural births. It ſometimes makes its appearance in 24 or 48 hours after delivery, and at other times not till a month or ſix weeks after; but, in general, the attack takes place from the 10th to the 16th day of the lying in. It has, in many inſtances, attacked women who were recovering from puerperal fever; and, in ſome caſes, has ſupervened, or ſucceeded, to thoracic inflammation. It not uncommonly begins with coldneſs and rigors; theſe are ſucceeded by heat, thirſt, and other ſymptoms of pyrexia; and then pain, ſtiffneſs, and other ſymptoms of topical inflammation ſupervene. Sometimes the local affection is from the firſt accompanied with, but is not preceded by febrile ſymptoms. Upon other occaſions, the topical affection is neither preceded by puerperal fever, nor rigors, &c.; but ſoon after it has taken place, the pulſe becomes more frequent, the heat of the body is increaſed, and the patient is affected with thirſt, headach, &c. The pyrexia is very various in degree in different patients, and ſometimes aſſumes an irregular remittent, or intermittent type. The complaint generally takes place on one ſide only at firſt, and the part where it commences is various; but it moſt commonly begins in the lumbar, hypogaſtric, or inguinal region, on one ſide, or in the hip, or top of the thigh, and correſponding labium pudendi. In this caſe the patient firſt perceives a ſenſe of pain, weight and ſtiffneſs in ſome of the above-mentioned parts, which are increaſed by every attempt to move the pelvis or lower limb. If the part be carefully examined it generally is found rather fuller or hotter than natural, and tender to the touch, but not diſcoloured. The pain increaſes, always becomes very ſevere, and in ſome caſes is of the moſt excruciating kind. It extends along the thigh, and when it has ſubſiſted for ſome time longer or ſhorter in different patients, the top of the thigh and the labium pudendi become greatly ſwelled, and the pain is then ſometimes alleviated, but accompanied with a greater ſenſe of diſtention. The pain next extends down to the knee, and is generally the moſt ſevere on the inſide and back of the thigh, in the direction of the internal cutaneous and the crural nerves; when it has continued for ſome time, the whole of the thigh becomes ſwelled, and the pain is ſomewhat relieved. The pain then extends down the leg to the foot, and is commonly the moſt ſevere in the direction of the poſterior tibial nerve; after ſome time the parts laſt attacked begins to ſwell, and the pain abates in violence, but is ſtill very conſiderable, eſpecially on any attempt to move the limb. The extremity, being now ſwelled throughout its whole extent, appears perfectly, or nearly uniform, and it is not perceptibly leſſened by an horizontal poſition, like an œdematoſe limb. It is of the natural colour, or even whiter is hotter than natural; exceſſively tenſe, and exquiſitely tender when touched. When preſſed by the finger in different parts it is found to be elaſtic, little, if any, impreſſion remaining, and that only for a very ſhort time. If a puncture or inciſion

be made into the limb, in ſome inſtances no fluid is diſcharged; in others a ſmall quantity only iſſues out, which coagulates ſoon after; and in others a larger quantity of fluid eſcapes, which does not coagulate; but the whole of the effuſed matter cannot be drawn off in this way. The ſwelling of the limb varies both in degree, and in the ſpace of time requiſite for its full formation. In moſt inſtances it arrives at double the natural ſize, and in ſome caſes at a much greater. In lax habits, and in patients whoſe legs have been very much affected with anaſarca during pregnancy, the ſwelling takes place more rapidly than in thoſe who are differently circumſtanced, it ſometimes arrives in the former claſs of patients, at its greateſt extent in 24 hours, or leſs, from the firſt attack.

Inſtead of beginning invariably at the upper part of the limb, and deſcending to the lower, this complaint has been known to begin in the foot, the middle of the leg, the ham, and the knee. In whichſoever of theſe parts it happens to begin, it is generally ſoon diffuſed over the whole of the limb, and, when this has taken place, the limb preſents the ſame phenomena, exactly, that have been ſtated above, as obſervable when the inguen, &c. are firſt affected.

After ſome days, generally from two to eight, the febrile ſymptoms diminiſh, and the ſwelling, heat, tenſion, weight, and tenderneſs of the lower extremity begin to abate, firſt about the upper part of the thigh, or about the knee, and afterwards in the leg and foot. Some inequalities are found in the limb, which, at firſt, feel like indurated glands, but, upon being more nicely examined, their edges are not ſo well defined as thoſe of conglobate glands; and they appear to be occaſioned by the effuſed matter being of different degrees of conſiſtence in different points. The conglobate glands of the thigh and leg are ſometimes felt diſtinctly, and are tender to the touch, but are ſeldom materially enlarged; and as the ſwelling ſubſides, it has happened, that an enlargement of the lymphatic veſſels in ſome part of the limb has been felt, or been ſuppoſed to be felt.

The febrile ſymptoms having gradually diſappeared, the pain and tenderneſs of the limb being much relieved, and the ſwelling and tenſion being conſiderably diminiſhed, the patient is debilitated and much reduced, and the limb feels ſtiff, heavy, benumbed, and weak. When the finger is preſſed ſtrongly againſt it for ſome time in different points, it is found to be leſs elaſtic than at firſt, in ſome places retaining the impreſſion of the finger for a longer, in other places for a ſhorter time, or ſcarcely at all. And, if the limb be ſuffered to hang down, or if the patient walk much, it is found to be more ſwelled in the evening, and aſſumes more of an œdematoſe appearance. In this ſtate the limb continues for a longer or ſhorter time, and is commonly at length reduced wholly, or nearly to the natural ſize.

Hitherto the diſeaſe has been deſcribed as affecting only one of the inferior extremities, and as terminating by reſolution, or the effuſion of a fluid that is removed by the abſorbents; but, unfortunately, it ſometimes happens, that after it abates in one limb, the other is attacked in a ſimilar way. It alſo happens, in ſome caſes, that the ſwelling is not terminated by reſolution; for ſometimes a *ſuppuration* takes place in one or both legs, and ulcers are formed which are difficult to heal. In a few caſes a gangrene has ſupervened. In ſome inſtances the patient has been deſtroyed by the violence of the diſeaſe, before either ſuppuration or gangrene have happened.

The *predisposing causes* of this disease, when it occurs during the pregnant or puerperal state, or in a short time afterwards, appeared to be: 1st, *The increased irritability and disposition to inflammation which prevail during pregnancy, and in a still higher degree for some time after parturition.* 2dly, *The over-distended, or relaxed state of the blood-vessels of the inferior part of the trunk and of the lower extremities, produced during the latter months of utero-gestation.*

Amongst the *exciting causes* of this disease may be enumerated: 1st, *Contusions*, or violent exertions of the lower portions of the abdominal and other muscles inserted in the pelvis or thighs, or of the muscles of the inferior extremities, and contusions of the cellular texture connected with these muscles during a tedious labour. 2dly. *The application of cold and moisture*, which are known to act very powerfully upon every system in changing the natural distribution of the circulating fluids, and, consequently, in a system predisposed by parturition, may assist in producing the disease, by occasioning the fluids to be impelled in unusual quantity into the weakened vessels of the lumbar, hypogastric, and inguinal regions, and of the inferior extremities. 3dly, *Suppression*, or diminution of the lochia, and of the secretion of milk, which, by inducing a plethoric state of the sanguiferous system, may occasion an inflammatory diathesis, may favour congestion, and the determination of an unusual quantity of blood to the vessels of the parts just mentioned, and thus contribute to the production of an inflammation of these parts. 4thly, *Food taken in too large quantity, and of a too stimulating quality*, especially when the patient does not give suck. This cause both favours the production of plethora, and stimulates the heart and arteries to more frequent and violent action; the effects of which may be expected to be particularly felt in the lumbar, hypogastric, or inguinal regions, and in the lower extremities, from the state of their blood-vessels. 5thly, *Standing, or walking too much*, before the arteries and veins of the lower half of the body have recovered sufficiently from the effects of the distention, which existed during the latter months of pregnancy. This must necessarily occasion too great a determination of blood to these parts, and consequently too great a congestion in them; whence they will be more stimulating than the upper parts of the body, and inflammation will sometimes be excited in them.

From an attentive consideration of the whole of the phenomena observable in this disease, and of its remote causes and cure, no doubt remains, Dr. Hull thinks, that *the proximate cause consists in an inflammatory affection, producing suddenly a considerable effusion of serum and coagulating lymph from the exhalants into the cellular membrane of the limb.*

PHLEGMASIÆ. Inflammations. The second order in the class *pyrexiæ* of Cullen's nosological arrangement, characterized by pyrexia, with topical pain and inflammation; the blood after venesection exhibiting a buffy coat.

PHLEGMON, (*Phlegmone, es*, f. φλεγμονη, from φλεγω, to burn). An inflammation of a bright red colour, with a throbbing and pointed tumour tending to suppuration. A species of *phlogosis* of Cullen.

PHLOGISTIC SYSTEM. Becher was the first chemist who adopted a separate principle of inflammability, by which he explained, not only the action of fire, and the combustion of bodies, but many of the most remarkable phenomena in chemistry at that time known. He considered it as an element, and, like his two

others, of the nature of earth; for which reaſon he termed it his ſecond or inflammable earth. Stahl determined this notion of the inflammable principle more accurately, and gave it the name of *phlogiſton*. But he differed from the opinion of his tutor, with reſpect to the nature of this ſubſtance, which he aſſerted to be a ſulphureous principle. According to him, it exiſts in all the bodies of the three kingdoms, in a greater or leſs proportion, water, ſimple earths, and ſalts excepted.

It is phlogiſton alone that conſtitutes the combuſtible part in inflammable bodies, or, in the words of Stahl, "*eſt ſolum ad ignis motum accommodatum, creatum et aptum; eſt ignis corporens, vel ipſa præciſe propria materies ignis.*" Phlogiſton nevertheleſs does not itſelf, without being combined with other bodies, form fire, "*ſed avolat et diſſipatur in tenuitate inſenſibili, ſive facit dumtaxat ignem valde expanſum et inconſpicuum, ſcilicet calorem;*" but, alſo, this volatilization and diſſipation cannot take place without the acceſs of other matter, eſpecially water and air.

After phlogiſton has combined in a greater or leſs proportion with the other natural bodies, it changes their external, and, chiefly, their chemical properties. Its action is moſt conſpicuous upon metals, ſulphur, colours, and odoriferous ſubſtances.

But, when chemiſtry became enriched with a multitude of new facts, it was found that Stahl's eſtabliſhed theory of phlogiſton could not explain every phenomenon. Chemiſts, therefore, endeavoured to render it more definite, and, at the ſame time, more general in its application. But in theſe definitions we obſerve the utmoſt diſagreement; and almoſt every author differs on this ſubject. By way of example, we will ſtate the following opinions, which are moſt remarkable.

Baumé believed that phlogiſton conſiſted of the matter of fire, combined with an elementary earth. Macquer conſidered it to be the matter of light in a fixed ſtate. Scheele maintained it was a conſtituent part of the matter of heat, which, he ſaid, conſiſted of phlogiſton and vital air. Scopoli and Volta, to form their phlogiſton, combined carbonic acid and matter of heat. Kirwan and Lametherie believed it to be an element different from the matter of heat, and to conſtitute the baſis of inflammable air. Wertrumb held it to be a conſtituent part of water, which, in his opinion, is formed by the combination of phlogiſton and vital air. Laſtly, phlogiſton, according to Gren, is compoſed of the matter of light and of the matter of heat. This philoſopher maintains, moreover, the ſingular notion adopted by the ancient chemiſts, that phlogiſton is not only deſtitute of gravity, but that it even poſſeſſes a negative weight, that is, it diminiſhes the abſolute weight of bodies by its combination.

Since, therefore, the opinions reſpecting the properties and compoſition of phlogiſton differed from each other, it neceſſarily follows, that the theories, and the mode of explaining the nature of chemical phenomena, being founded upon thoſe opinions, were equally different; and, accordingly, we find that each ſect of phlogiſtic philoſophers had its own theory of chemiſtry. Hence, to give a perfect idea of the doctrine of phlogiſton, it would be neceſſary to enter into the merits of at leaſt ſix or eight hundred different theories; but, as this is by far too extenſive for our plan, we will briefly ſtate the points upon which almoſt all the phlogiſtians agree.

All the pure metallic calces are ſimple bodies, which, by combination with phlogiſton, enter into the

metallic ſtate. The calcination of metals in the fire, happens ſolely in conſequence of the volatilization and combination of phlogiſton with the air, or a part of it, whence the calx of metal remains in a pure ſtate. But if the calx of a metal be treated in the fire with combuſtible bodies, the calx, in that caſe, combines with the phlogiſton of the combuſtible body, and returns to the ſtate of metal.

When metals are diſſolved in acids, the acid deprives the metal of its phlogiſton. If a metal be then precipitated from its ſolution by means of a body which contains no phlogiſton, alkaline ſalts for inſtance, in this caſe the metal falls down in the ſtate of calx. But if the precipitating body can afford its phlogiſton to the metals, a metallic precipitate will be obtained, for inſtance, when one metal is precipitated by another.

The augmentation of abſolute weight, during the calcination of metals, and the loſs of ſuch weight during their reduction, is either not explained at all, or accounted for from the ſpecific levity of the phlogiſton. Some phlogiſtians admit that metals, during their calciuation, abſorb vital air, and others believe that the augmentation of weight is owing to the water which ariſes from the combination of vital air and phlogiſton, and adheres to the calx.

Some of the older phlogiſtians aſſerted that the noble metals were not ſuſceptible of a true calcination, and that the earthy form which they aſſumed was a mere external change. Moſt of the modern phlogiſtians grant, however, that thoſe metals may be calcined, and account for their reduction by fire alone, and, without the addition of any combuſtible body, by ſaying, that phlogiſton can penetrate through red hot veſſels, or otherwiſe, from the peculiar idea which they entertain of phlogiſton.

Acids, according to the phlogiſtic philoſophers, are ſimple bodies. In their pureſt ſtate, and freed from all phlogiſton, they term them dephlogiſticated acids; when combined with a greater or leſs quantity of phlogiſton, phlogiſticated acids, when combined with a greater or leſs quantity of phlogiſton, phlogiſticated acids; and, completely ſaturated with phlogiſton, they form various ſubſtances, which no longer poſſeſs acid properties.

According to them, the perfect acid of ſulphur, or the ſulphuric acid, is the pureſt; combined with more phlogiſton it forms phlogiſticated acid of ſulphur, or the volatile ſpirit of ſulphur, and when perfectly ſaturated with phlogiſton, it conſtitutes ſulphur. If ſulphur be burnt in open veſſels, its phlogiſton combines partly with the air, and is carried off, and phlogiſticated acid of ſulphur remains. If metals be diſſolved in concentrated acid of ſulphur, the phlogiſton of the metal combines with the acid of ſulphur, and comes over as volatile acid of ſulphur, or remains in the ſtate of ſulphur. The formation of inflammable gaz, during the ſolution of metals in diluted acid of ſulphur, can only be explained by a forced and hypothetical mode of reaſoning, from the ſingular opinions reſpecting the nature of phlogiſton and of inflammable gaz; nor does the theory of phlogiſton give a ſatisfactory reaſon for the augmentation of weight during the combuſtion of ſulphur.

The perfect acid of nitre, or the nitric acid, is the dephlogiſticated acid of nitre of the phlogiſtians, which, combined more or leſs with phlogiſton, forms the phlogiſticated acid of nitre, or the fuming ſpirit of nitre, and, ſaturated with phlogiſton, the nitrous gaz. If nitrous gaz come, therefore, into contact with vital air, it parts with ſome of its phlogiſton, and returns to the ſtate of phlogiſticated acid of nitre. During the ſolution of metals in this acid, the phlogiſton of the former combines

with part of the latter, and paſſes off as nitrous gaz. Upon the ſame principle, all combuſtible bodies communicate to the nitric acid ſome of their phlogiſton, and render it phlogiſticated.

The common or imperfect muriatic acid, is the phlogiſticated acid of ſalt of the phlogiſtic philoſophers, which, when deprived of its phlogiſton, becomes dephlogiſticated, that is, oxygenated muriatic acid. Some of thoſe philoſophers, to ſave their theory, ſay, that the oxygenated muriatic acid is a peculiar compound liquid.

The phoſphoric acid is a ſimple body, which, when combined with phlogiſton, forms volatile acid of phoſphorus, and, ſaturated with it, phoſphorus itſelf. According to ſome phlogiſtians, the phoſphoric air, or phoſphorated hydrogen gaz, conſiſts of phoſphorus, phlogiſton, caloric, and water.

Sugar conſiſts of acid of ſugar and phlogiſton. The arſenic acid is arſenic deprived of its phlogiſton. Thus, by analogy they conclude about all the other acids; though, with reſpect to the vegetable and animal acids, the opinions of the different ſects of phlogiſtians be very different.

Vital air is, according to ſome, a ſimple body, that is, air in the pureſt ſtate; according to others, it conſiſts of caloric and water. In both caſes, they ſay, that, in combination with phlogiſton, it forms phlogiſticated air, that is, azotic gaz. They aſſert that inflammable air is highly compound, and differs according to its origin. Kirwan believed that it was compoſed of phlogiſton and caloric.

Carbon conſiſts of aerial acid, phlogiſton, and the fixed incombuſtible parts. Hence, if carbon be burnt, the phlogiſton and aerial acid eſcape, and the earths, metals, and fixed ſalts remain.

Phlogiſton forms a principal part of all organized bodies, which are, therefore, combuſtible. Some of them contain it in abundance, as oils and fat. Phlogiſton is the cauſe of the odour and colour of plants, and acts a principal part in the animal economy, ſince, by its ſolution in the blood, or its deficiency, it produces various diſeaſes.

According to the phlogiſtians, the whole utility of reſpiration conſiſts in its carrying off from the body the ſuperabundant phlogiſton. The blood, during its circulation, becomes impregnated with the ſuperabundant phlogiſton, liberated in conſequence of the different functions of life, and, being charged with it, returns to the lungs. The vital air, or oxygen gaz, which is inſpired, now ſeparates this phlogiſton from the blood, and, according to ſome, alſo, the carbonic acid, likewiſe produced in the blood. The blood, thus purified, is then diffuſed by the arteries into the body, to attract a new portion of phlogiſton.

In a ſimilar manner, they endeavoured, in their phlogiſtic ſyſtem, to account for moſt of the other phenomena in chemiſtry, to which the looſe and indefinite theory of phlogiſton afforded great facility. But the futility of moſt of theſe explanations is manifeſt, as ſoon as we inſiſt upon a ſtrict conformity with the eſtabliſhed principles of the mutual action of bodies upon each other, and demand an exact account of the weight and meaſure of the bodies made uſe of in experiments. There are many things in nature which we cannot explain, and which will always remain obſcure. It is therefore unreaſonable to reject a ſyſtem becauſe it is unable to remove the veil which hides the cauſe of many appearances. The anti-phlogiſtians do not indeed arrogate to themſelves this merit; but their ſyſtem deſerves

the preference which is granted to it by almoſt all the naturaliſts of the preſent age, ſince it explains moſt of the phenomena explicitly, uniformly, and with the minuteſt circumſtances, appears more conformable to the ſimple path of nature, and draws all inferences from matters of fact, without requiring the aid of ſubtle arguments.

PHLOGISTON, (*Phlogiſton, i*, n. φλογιστος, from φλογιζω, to burn). The inflammable principle. Staal gave this term to a principle, which he imagined was pure fire, or the matter of fire fixed in combuſtible bodies, in order to diſtinguiſh it from fire in action, or in a ſtate of liberty.

PHLOGŌSIS, (*Phlogoſis, is*, f. φλογωσις, from φλογοω, to inflame). See *Inflammation.*

PHLYCTÆNÆ, (*Phlyctæna, æ*, f. φλυκταινα, ſmall bladders). Small pellucid veſicles, that contain a ſerous fluid.

PHLYZACIUM, (*Phlyzacium, i*, n. φλυζακιον, from φλυζω, to be hot). A puſtule on the ſkin excited by fire or heat. See *Puſtule.*

PHŒNIX DACTYLIFĔRA, (*Phœnix, īcis*, f. φοινιξ, from *Phœnecia*, its native ſoil). The ſyſtematic name of the date-tree. See *Dactylus.*

PHOSPHATS, (*Phoſphas, tis*, m. from *phoſphorus*). Salts formed by the union of the phoſphoric acid with different baſes; thus, *phoſphat of ammoniac, phoſphat of lime*, &c.

PHOSPHITES, (*Phoſphis, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the combination of the phoſphorous acid with different baſes; thus, *aluminous phoſphite, ammoniacal phoſphite*, &c.

PHOSPHORIC ACID. *Ăcĭdum phoſphoricum.* This acid may be obtained from bones, in the following manner. Three parts of diluted ſulphuric acid are to be effuſed upon four parts of pulverized aſhes of bones, while continually ſtirred. By this means the ſulphuric acid combines with the calcareous earth, and diſengages the phoſphoric acid. The maſs is then to be repeatedly waſhed in water, and the lie ſlowly evaporated: the ſulphate of lime, which ſtill adheres, will be thus gradually expelled; and at laſt phoſphoric acid, in a dry and vitreous form, will be obtained.

PHOSPHŎRUS, (*Phoſphorus, i*, m. φωςφορος, from φως, light, and φερω, to carry). One of the moſt combuſtible ſubſtances we are acquainted with. It was originally obtained from urine; but the ſubſtance which affords it in the greateſt quantity is the ammoniacal phoſphat. When pure it is tranſparent, and of a conſiſtence reſembling that of wax: it cryſtallizes by cooling, in laminæ, which are brilliant, and, as it were, micacious; it melts in hot water long before the fluid becomes boiling hot; it is very volatile, and, by a gentle heat, riſes and comes over in the form of a thick fluid. When in contact with air, it emits a fume from every part of its ſurface; and this vapour, which ſmells ſtrongly like garlick, appears white in the daytime, but is very luminous in the dark.

The earlieſt account we have concerning the medicinal uſe of phoſphorus, is in the ſeventh volume of Haller's Collection of Theſes, relating to the hiſtory and cure of diſeaſes. The original diſſertation is entitled, *De Phoſphori Loco Medicamenti adſumpti virtute medica, aliquot caſibus ſingularibus confirmata, Auctore J. Gabi Mentz.* There are three caſes of ſingular cures performed by means of phoſphorus narrated in this theſis; but as the work is in the library of many medical men in this country, it is not deemed neceſſary to tranſlate thoſe caſes fully. It may be proper to premiſe, however, that the hiſtory of theſe caſes and cures was ſent to Dr. Gabi Mentz by his father.

The firſt hiſtory is of a man who

laboured under a putrid fever; for whom the beſt alexipharmic medicines, as they are called, together with a proper regimen, were preſcribed. A diarrhœa, however, enſued, accompanied with great anxiety about the præcordia, delirium, and general proſtration of the powers of life. Proper remedies were tried to ſtop the diarrhœa, and check the diſeaſe, but in vain. For three days the patient had been inſenſible and exhauſted. In this extremity, the phyſician had recourſe to phoſphorus; two grains of which were exhibited, together with a ſufficient quantity of theraica to make them into a bolus. This occaſioned a gentle ſweat, and general quiet. The doſe was twice repeated in the evening, and again towards morning, with the addition of another grain. The ſweat became copious, and the memory and the uſe of the external ſenſes were reſtored. The patient, thus revived, was afterwards completely re-eſtabliſhed by other remedies.

The ſecond caſe, is that of a man who laboured under a bilious fever. Although various remedies appear to have been judiciouſly employed, yet the diſeaſe gained ground, until at laſt the patient was almoſt quite exhauſted. Three grains of phoſphorus were exhibited at eleven o'clock in the forenoon, which produced a little quiet; but the patient became ſo thirſty that he could not refrain from drinking. After this he was quiet for two hours, and a profuſe ſweat broke out all over his body. The phyſician ſeeing this, ordered him another doſe in the evening. He ſlept and perſpired the whole evening, and, by means of proper remedies, was afterwards completely cured.

The third caſe is entitled, A malignant catarrhal Fever, with Petechia. It ſeems to have been the common *typhus putridus* of Cullen, accompanied with cough and catarrhal ſymptoms in the beginning. We are informed, that on the third day of the diſeaſe the patient was deprived of the uſe of his external ſenſes; that he became delirious, and exceedingly exhauſted. Two grains of phoſphorus were given to him at two o'clock, and two more in the evening, which reſtored him to his ſenſes, and occaſioned a copious ſweat. Proper remedies were afterwards employed, which accompliſhed his recovery.

Dr. Mentz appears to have been one of the firſt practitioners who tried this heroic remedy internally. Dr. Morgenſtern and Dr. Hatman ſeem both to have afterwards employed it.

The following twelve caſes, relating to this intereſting ſubject, are tranſlated from a theſis which is very little known in this country. It is the inaugural diſſertation of one Dr. Wolff, who graduated at Gottingen in the year 1791; and who ſtates, that the caſes are extracted from the private diary of his father, a phyſician of eminence in Poland, who practiſed phyſic with great ſucceſs and reputation for upwards of thirty years.

Case I. In the month of Auguſt 1763, I was called to a woman twenty-five years old, whom I found in a ſtate of low delirium. Her pulſe was ſmall, weak, and tremulous, almoſt vaniſhing, as it were, under the finger. Her whole cheſt and arms were disfigured with livid ſpots. Her neighbours and attendants informed me, that ſhe had been ſeized with a fever about eleven days before I ſaw her; and that ſhe had been attended by ſome ignorant practitioner, who, finding that his remedies did not ſucceed, had deſerted her the day before, declaring that God alone could cure her.

The caſe appeared to me one of thoſe deſperate ſtates of diſeaſe, in which a practitioner either ought to refrain from doing any thing, or to make trial of ſome new, bold, and

powerful remedy, which might act as an uncommon ſtimulus to the nerves, and rouſe their ſuppreſſed energy. Such a remedy I expected to find in phoſphorus; and accordingly I ordered my patient five drops of its ſolution, in æther, which contained three grains of the phoſphorus. They were exhibited in a ſpoonful of Rheniſh wine, and the patient ſwallowed a few cupfulls of an infuſion of the flores tiliæ after them. I viſited the patient three hours afterwards, and, not finding any change, I repeated the doſe. Two hours were ſcarce elapſed when the pulſe began to riſe, and the whole body to be diffuſed with an equal heat; immediately afterwards the pulſe became undulatory, a breathing ſweat (ſudor halituoſus) broke out, and at the ſame time the delirium ſubſided.

I exhibited a third doſe at the end of ſixteen hours; a number of red ſpots then appeared on the ſkin, and the patient complained very much of a ſenſe of oppreſſion and pain at the præcordia and in the abdomen. Theſe ſymptoms I endeavoured to allay by diluents and frequent emollient glyſters, which brought away a great quantity of foul fæces. The Peruvian bark completed the cure.

Case II. A young woman, twenty-two years of age, was, for the firſt time delivered of a healthy child. She recovered perfectly well for the firſt nine days; but being then greatly frightened by ſome ſudden noiſe in the houſe, ſhe was ſeized with a chilly fit, afterwards with flushes of heat, and ſoon became delirious. I was called to her on the third day, after various remedies had been tried in vain by another phyſician. Finding that ſhe had a hard pulſe, with great oppreſſion in her cheſt, and a foul tongue, I ordered her to be blooded, to take a ſolution of Glauber's ſalts, and to receive ſome antiphlogiſtic and emollient glyſters. The other phyſician ſtrongly oppoſed this advice, contending ſtrenuouſly for his heating diaphoretic plan; and I therefore returned home. He continued to adminiſter his alexipharmics and cardiac remedies to the unhappy patient. Three days elapſed before I heard any thing of her; but ſome of her friends then waited on me, entreating me with great earneſtneſs to viſit her, as her phyſician had deſerted her, declaring that it was impoſſible for any one to ſave her.

I found her with a tremulous intermittent pulſe, cold extremities, and wandering in her intellects. Of the ſolution of phoſphorus I immediately gave her five drops, in a little Rheniſh wine; and, in about two hours after, an equal degree of heat diffuſed itſelf over her body, and her ſenſes returned. Upon repeating the doſe, a ſweat broke out, which relieved her ſo much, that I afterwards could proceed with the proper remedies for the further cure of the complaint.

Case III. A young man, twenty-two years old, was ſeized with a putrido-gaſtric fever, which was accompanied with a white miliary eruption. On the ſeventh day of the diſeaſe, while under the influence of a profuſe ſweat, he was taken from his bed, at his own deſire, and had his linen changed. An hour had ſcarcely elapſed, when he was ſeized with great anxiety, the miliary eruption almoſt totally diſappeared, and he began to grow delirious. Being called to him, I gave him the ſolution of phoſphorus, with an infuſion of elder flowers and Rheniſh wine. In about an hour afterwards the ſweat and eruption returned, and he was ſnatched from the jaws of death.

Case IV. A youth, ſixteen years old, was ſeized with a putrid fever, on the ſeventh day of which he was affected with diarrhœa of ſo ſevere a kind, that he had forty-eight

ſtools in the courſe of a day. Being ſent for the day after, I found him with an hippocratic countenance and ſubſultus tendinum. Having exhibited the phoſphorus twice to him, a general breathing ſweat broke out, and the diarrhœa ſubſided. Afterwards proper remedies were exhibited, and he was reſtored to health in fifteen days.

Seven caſes. During the years 1770 and 1771, while the war was carried on upon the borders of our remoteſt provinces between the Turks and Ruſſians, a putrid fever took its riſe in the camps, and ſpread itſelf to us. It was then that I ordered this divine remedy, with the happieſt effect, to ſeven ſick who laboured under the putrid fever, ſome of whom had eruptions, with great proſtration of ſtrength.

Case XII. A young lady of quality, twenty-five years old, endowed with ſuch an exquiſite degree of nervous ſenſibility, that ſhe uſed frequently to be affected with ſpaſms and convulſive motions without any apparent cauſe, became pregnant in the year 1774, which was the ſeventh of her marriage. On the third day preceding delivery, ſhe was ſeized with a diſeaſe which might be juſtly ſaid to be ſomewhat between catalepſy and coma vigil. She lay ſtretched out upon her back, her eyes open and fixed, her legs and arms were quite flexible, and remained in any poſture in which they were put; her pulſe and reſpiration were entirely natural, and ſhe ſwallowed whatever fluid was put into her mouth.

After ſhe had remained three days in this ſtate, ſhe was delivered of a dead child, which, from the marks of putreſcency on its body, muſt have died ſome days before.

Evacuations carefully employed, antiſpaſmodic and nervous remedies exhibited, both by the mouth and anus, embrocations and liniments, produced ſuch a ſalutary change, that in fifteen days the patient was able to leave her bed, and the greateſt hope was therefore entertained of her complete recovery. But, on the twenty-eighth day after delivery, when I went again to viſit my patient, (who lived at a conſiderable diſtance from me), I found her complaining of rigour and chilline's of the inferior extremities, her pulſe was frequent and ſmall, and her face was more flu'hed than uſual. Frictions, glyſters, the pediluvium, and antiſpaſmodics were all tried, but without producing any favourable event, and, towards the middle of the night, ſhe became totally rigid; yet ſhe had complete poſſeſſion of her mind, although all the external ſenſes, the ſight excepted, were aboliſhed. I gave to her three drops of the ſolution of phoſphorus in a ſpoonful of wine. Scarcely had an hour elapſed when a warm ſweat broke out, and, together with it, a white miliary eruption. Afterwards other remedies were exhibited which effected her recovery.

Such are the caſes related by Dr. Wolff, which it is preſumed will be found ſufficiently intereſting to awaken, and arreſt the attention of the practitioners of this country. A medecine of greater powers cannot be named, if the facts which have been related are correctly true. Little doubt can be entertained that many trials will ſoon be made with it in this country; but it is to be hoped they will be made with caution, and under as favourable circumſtances for the reception of ſuch a powerful ſtimulus as the nature of the diſeaſes in which it is to be given will admit of. The following particulars concerning this ſubtle remedy, will ſerve as a ſalutary caution againſt the too free exhibition of it in the time of making experiments.

The dangerous conſequences which

are likely to follow the injudicious adminiſtration of phoſphorus, cannot be impreſſed on the mind more ſtrongly, than by the relation of a few caſes and experiments which are mentioned by Wackard, in the fourth part of his miſcellaneous writings, (Vermiſchte Medicinche Schrifften, von M. A. Wackard). Theſe caſes and experiments I literally tranſlated from the original German; a work from which the medical practitioner may reap much information, being replete with practical remarks made by a very attentive and accurate obſerver.

A Jew, of a phlegmatic habit, was ſtruck with apoplexy. He was ſpeechleſs and lame, and could not void his fæces except he was aſſiſted by art; his appetite, however was good. Mineral baths and many remedies were tried to reſtore him, but in vain. I was at laſt tempted to make a trial of phoſphorus. At firſt, from two to three grains were given to him, and it was my intention to have increaſed the doſe to five or ſix. The firſt doſe was given in a conſerve, but the following day in honey. His excrements were luminous. Suddenly, about the middle of the third night, he was ſeized with violent vomiting, during which he was very ill; but after the vomiting had ceaſed he found himſelf better. The pulſe was ſmall and quick. I did not venture to give any more phoſphorus, particularly as his relations were afraid of it. A bliſter was applied, and cooling and demulcent drinks were exhibited. He looked very ill, ſeemed quite exhauſted, and appeared to ſuffer pain in the abdomen, which was a little tumefied. He took ſome nouriſhment every day; but what he ate was very ſmall in quantity. The vomiting ceaſed entirely. He lived four days longer, and died. I did not ſee him the day when that event happened; but he had all the ſymptoms of having died of gangrene. There were even externally, according to the report of the ſurgeon, many large gangrenous ſpots. This caſe cauſed me a great deal of uneaſineſs. The patient could not ſpeak for ſome time before his death, and could not therefore deſcribe his ſufferings.

Almoſt about the ſame time that Profeſſor Zeſsler exhibited the phoſphorus to his two patients, the intelligence was communicated to a man who had a tendency to apoplexy and to palſy. He had read in Mellin's Materia Medica all that was ſaid in praiſe of phoſphorus, and he was in conſequence deſirous of making trial of it; but, before he began to take it, he was ſeized with a kind of apoplectic fit, in which he lay as if deprived of all power. He cauſed three grains of phoſphorus to be rubbed with a little oil, and to be given to him; he took his doſe morning and evening. It ſeemed to revive him, for he got up and walked about the houſe. He continued to take this medicine ſeveral days, upon which he became feveriſh, and was effected with nauſea and loſs of appetite. A gentle emetic was given him. Two days after this I ſaw him for the firſt time; he told me that he had been violently affected with pain in the abdomen, particularly towards the evening. He was very dry, and his eyes were yellow. When I preſſed my hand on the abdomen it did not give him pain. I ordered him whey, nitre, acid drinks, cream of tartar, and glyſters. The third day after this he grew worſe. I happened to be out of town, and another phyſician was ſent for, who gave him muſk, and various other remedies. I viſited him in the evening, and found him gangrenous. His hands were applied to his head, as if he ſuffered acute

pain there; his ſcreams were loud and unremitting; he was delirious, and ſpoke unintelligibly, and there was not any pulſe at the wriſt. He died about midnight. Upon inſpecting the body, the liver appeared obſtructed, and the ſtomach was gangrenous near the cardia. Is it not to be feared that the phoſphorus had occaſioned this? or was this the effect of a gouty or rheumatic acrimony thrown upon that part? It was afterwards remarked that a number of people were ſeized at this time with vomiting and violent pains in the bowels, and alſo with the iliac paſſion. Two months were ſcarcely elapſed when I met with a caſe in which all the circumſtances of the complaint were ſimilar to thoſe narrated in the above-mentioned caſe, but where the patient had not ſwallowed a ſingle grain of phoſphorus.

The following are ſome experiments which Dr. Weickard made with phoſphorus on dogs.

"It is now," he obſerves, "upwards of a year ſince ſix grains of phoſphorus were offered to a hungry dog. The phoſphorus was incloſed in a piece of meat; the dog ſmelt it, and refuſed to take it; it was therefore forced down his throat. He immediately began to run about the room, exhibiting much anxiety, and ſeemed deſirous to go out. He grew ſick, and vomited the bolus, which ſeemed to be on fire; upon this the dog again appeared impatient to get out. The ſmell of the phoſphorus, however, ceaſed to be emitted by the vomited matter. The dog ſmelt it again, and ate it. He immediately became extremely lively, ſpringing quickly from one table to another. The experiments ought to have ſtopped here; but ſome one brought another piece of meat, in which there were eight grains of phoſphorus encloſed. This was alſo forced down the dog's throat, and he again vomited it on fire; he did not, however, exhibit the ſame anxiety to leave the room which he had done the firſt time, but waited patiently until the diſagreeable fœtor which aroſe and filled the apartment had eſcaped from his morſel, after which he ate it greedily. His inclination to leap and run about was now uncommonly great; nothing was too high or too diſtant for him; but as we were afraid he might do ſome injury by this kind of exerciſe, he was diſmiſſed the apartment. He again vomited once or twice; but ſince that time has remained perfectly well."

Such are the principal facts related by Weickard. We now come to the lateſt publication on the ſubject of phoſphorus. It is a letter on its medicinal virtues by M. Alphonſo Leroi, and is printed in the only volume of Memoirs which the Society of Emulation at Paris has yet publiſhed. One of the firſt experiments which M. Leroi made was upon himſelf; he ſwallowed three grains of phoſphorus with ſome theraica. It is a wonder, he ſays, that he was not killed by it; for phoſphorus does not require more air than is commonly contained in the ſtomach, in order to take fire, and burn in ſuch a manner as to have eaten through that organ. "For two hours," the Profeſſor obſerves, "I found myſelf extraordinarily incommoded. I drank frequently little draughts of cold water. After ſome hours had elapſed the uneaſineſs ceaſed. My urine was high coloured; but the following day my muſcular force was doubled, and I felt an inſupportable venereal irritation. I afterwards gave this remedy to the young man whoſe caſe is related in the Gazette de Santé, for the 29th of Auguſt 1779. It was truly owing to phoſphorus that his life was ſaved in a moſt malignant fever, in which the proſtation of ſtrength

was ſo great as not to leave many other reſources but this remedy."

M. Leroi then proceeds to inform us, that he has frequently employed phoſphorus ſince that time. He at firſt preſcribed it in the form of a lohoch. It is always difficult to pulverize it; but this difficulty he overcame in the following manner: He puts the phoſphorus into warm water, and agitates it violently; it divides itſelf like oil into a great number of little globules, and, if cold water be now added, it is precipitated to the bottom in the form of a powder. Of this powder one or two grains are to be taken, and rubbed with a little ſugar, a drop or two of oil, and ſome yolk of an egg. A quarter of a grain every day is quite ſufficient to produce great effects."

At other times, he ſays, he has given it in a mixture of oil, ſyrup, and ſome aromatic diſtilled water. He aſſerts, that Kunkel gave phoſphorus internally in England in the form of pills, which were luminous; and he informs us, that he himſelf has found out the manner of compoſing them; but they require ſo nice a manipulation, that he has entruſted the ſecret only to Meſſrs. Pelletier, the brothers, being warned by his own experience of the miſchief which ariſes from giving it improperly prepared. Each pill contains the eighth of a grain of phoſphorus. They are endowed with a ſoporific and calming property. Profeſſor Leroi has frequently employed them in caſes of rheumatiſmus, in a great number of nervous diſeaſes, pituitous diſeaſes, and in many acute and chronic complaints. He believes that this remedy is capable of prolonging life beyond the natural period; and after having ſpoken of its great reſtorative power, he related the following caſe in confirmation of this opinion.

"I was one day called to an old man, aged eighty-ſeven, the uncle of Madame de Fourqueux, in whom life ſeemed to be almoſt totally extinguiſhed. I compoſed for him a mixture of ſix ounces of different diſtilled aromatic waters, one ounce of oil containing three grains of phoſphorus, and two ounces of ſyrup. Of this he took three table ſpoonfuls every day; and beſides this he took eight drops of volatile alkali in a glaſs of ſweet aromatic water twice a day, before his meals. By theſe means I illuminated the dying embers of life, and he ſurvived ſeven years after an attack of weakneſs in which it muſt have appeared like madneſs to attempt to interfere.

I may ſafely affirm, that I have been as much occupied in ſeeking out the caſes in which this medicine proves hurtful, as in detecting thoſe in which it is ſerviceable; and I can aſſert, not only from my own experience, but alſo from that of the late M. Lecointre, my pupil, who was phyſician to the hoſpital of Nambouillet, that we have not found it hurtful in any one caſe: that it has only been uſeleſs in ſome, and that only in ſuch caſes in which life was already extinct in ſome parts of ſuch patients as had not a ſufficient portion of living principle in them to reanimate the whole frame."

Mr. Leroi affirms, that the diviſibility of phoſphorus is almoſt infinite; and in proof of this aſſertion he ſtates, that "the body of a woman who died of a putrid fever, and who had taken one grain of phoſphorus, was entirely luminous within. The hands of the late Rielle, the anatomiſt, who opened the body, were luminous ſome hours after they had been waſhed!!"

Upon maturely conſidering all the facts which have been brought forward concerning it, little room for doubt will be left in the mind

as to its uncommon powers; but, although this be granted, experience is ſtill wanting to point out the diſeaſes, and various ſtages of diſeaſe, in which it may be employed with equal ſafety and utility, as alſo to determine the circumſtances under which it would be dangerous even to try it. Thus much may doubtleſs be aſſerted concerning it, that it is one of the higheſt ſtimuli which we have in the catalogue of the materia medica; and that, although it is affirmed by M. Leroi, and others, to be "calming and ſedative," it is only ſo in ſuch caſes as wine, æther, Hoffman's anodyne liquor, and opium, are alſo found to be calming and ſedative, that is, in caſes where the arterial action of the whole frame is nearly exhauſted, although ſtill quick. Every practitioner ſhould be cautioned againſt exhibiting it in any inflammatory diſeaſe, where much ſtrength exiſts; and, in all caſes, very ſmall doſes ſhould be firſt exhibited, and thoſe with the utmoſt circumſpection.

Phosphurets, (*Phoſphuretum, i*, n. from *phoſphorus*). Combinations of phoſphorus not oxygenated, with different baſes; as, *phoſphuret of copper*, *phoſphuret of iron*, &c.

Photophobĭa, (*Photophobia, æ*, f. φωτοφοβια, from φως, light, and φιβεω, to dread). Such an intolerance of light, that the eye, or rather the retina, can ſcarcely bear its irritating rays. Such patients generally wink, or cloſe their eyes in light, which they cannot bear without exquiſite pain, or confuſed viſion. The proximate cauſe is too great a ſenſibility in the retina. The ſpecies are, 1. *Photophobia inflammatoria*, or dread of light from an inflammatory cauſe, which is a particular ſymptom of the internal opthalmia. 2. *Photophobia*, from the diſuſe of light, which happens to perſons long confined in dark places or priſons; on the coming out of which into light the pupil contracts, and the perſons cannot bear light. The depreſſion of the cataract occaſions this ſymptom, which appears as though fire and lightning entered the eye, not being able to bear theſe ſtrong rays of light. 3. *Photophobia nervea*, or a nervous photophobia, which ariſes from an increaſed ſenſibility of the nervous expanſion and optic nerve. It is a ſymptom of the hydrophobia, and many diſorders, both acute and nervous. 4. *Photophobia* from too great light, as looking at the ſun, or at the ſtrong light of modern lamps.

Photopsĭa, (*Photopſia, æ*, f. φωτοψια, from φως, light, and οψις, viſion). Lucid viſion. An affection of the eye in which the patient perceives luminous rays, ignited lines, or coruſcations.

Phrenes, (*Phren, is*, f. from φρεν, the mind, becauſe the ancients imagined it was the ſeat of the mind). The diaphragm. See *Diaphragm*.

Phrenic nerve, (*Nervus phrenicus*, from φρενες, the diaphragm). Diaphragmatic nerve. It ariſes from a union of the branches of the third, fourth, and fifth cervical pairs, on each ſide, paſſes between the clavicle and ſubclavian artery, and deſcends from thence by the pericardium to the diaphragm.

Phrenītis, (*Phrenitis, ĭdis*, f. φρενιτις; from φρην, the mind). Phrenzy or inflammation of the brain. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ*, and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen; characterized by ſtrong fever, violent headach, redneſs of the face and eyes, impatience of light and noiſe, watchfulneſs, and furious delirium. It is ſymptomatic of ſeveral diſeaſes, as worms, hydrophobia, &c. Phrenitis often makes its attacks with a ſenſe of fullneſs in the head, flushing of the countenance, and redneſs of the eyes, the pulſe

being full, but in other reſpects natural. As theſe ſymptoms increaſe, the patient becomes reſtleſs, his ſleep is diſturbed, or wholly forſakes him. It ſometimes comes on, as in the epidemic, of which Saalman gives an account, with pain, or a peculiar ſenſe of uneaſineſs of the head, back, loins, and joints; in ſome caſes, with tremor of their limbs, and intolerable pains of the hands, feet, and legs. It now and then attacks with ſtupor, and rigidity of the whole body, ſometimes with anxiety and a ſenſe of tenſion referred to the breaſt, often accompanied with palpitation of the heart. Sometimes nauſea and a painful ſenſe of weight in the ſtomach, are among the earlieſt ſymptoms. In other caſes, the patient is attacked with vomiting, or complaints of the heart-burn, and griping pains in the bowels. When the intimate connection which ſubſiſts between the brain and every part of the ſyſtem is conſidered, the variety of the ſymptoms attending the commencement of phrenitis is not ſo ſurpriſing, nor that the ſtomach in particular ſhould ſuffer, which ſo remarkably ſympathizes with the brain. Theſe ſymptoms aſſiſt in forming the diagnoſis between phrenitis, and ſynocha. The pain of the head ſoon becomes more conſiderable, and ſometimes very acute. 'If the meninges,' ſays Dr. Fordyce, 'are affected, the pain is acute; if the ſubſtance only, obtuſe, and ſometimes but juſt ſenſible.' And Dr. Cullen remarks, 'I am here, as in other analagous caſes, of opinion, that the ſymptoms above mentioned of an acute inflnmmation, always mark inflammations of membranous parts, and that an inflammation of paranchyma, or ſubſtance of viſcera, exhibits, at leaſt commonly, a more chronic inflammation.

The ſeat of the pain is various: ſometimes it ſeems to occupy the whole head; ſometimes, although more circumſcribed, it is deep-ſeated, and ill-defined. In other caſes it is felt principally in the forehead or occiput. The redneſs of the face and eyes generally increaſes with the pain, and there is often a ſenſe of heat and throbbing in the head, the countenance acquiring a peculiar fierceneſs. Theſe ſymptoms for the moſt part, do not laſt long before the patient begins to talk incoherently, and to ſhew other marks of delirium. Sometimes, however, Saalman obſerves, delirium do not come on till the fifth, ſixth, or ſeventh day. The delirium gradually increaſes, till it often arrives at a ſtate of phrenzy. The face becomes turgid, the eyes ſtare, and ſeem as if burſting from their ſockets, tears, and ſometimes even blood, flowing from them; the patient in many cases reſembling a furious maniac, from whom it is often impoſſible to diſtinguiſh him, except by the ſhorter duration of his complaint. The delirium aſſiſts in diſtinguiſhing phrenitis and ſynocha, as it is not a common ſymptom in the latter. When delirium does attend ſynocha, however, it is of the ſame kind as in phrenitis.

We ſhould, *a priori*, expect in phrenitis conſiderable derangement in the different organs of ſenſe, which ſo immediately depend on the ſtate of the brain. The eyes are incapable of bearing the light, and falſe viſion particularly that termed *muſcæ volitantes*, and flaſhes of light ſeeming to dart before the eyes, are frequent ſymptoms. The hearing is often ſo acute, that the leaſt noiſe is intolerable; ſometimes, on the other hand, the patient becomes deaf; and the deafneſs, Saalman obſerves, and morbid acuteneſs of hearing, ſometimes alternate. Affections of the ſmell, taſte, and touch, are leſs obſervable.

As the organs of ſenſe are not frequently deranged in ſynocha, the foregoing ſymptoms farther aſſiſt the diagnoſis between this complaint and phrenitis.

The pulſe is not always ſo much diſturbed at an early period, as we ſhould expect from the violence of the other ſymptoms, compared with what we obſerve in idiopathic fevers. When this circumſtance is diſtinctly marked, it ſeems, perhaps, the beſt diagnoſis beween phrenitis and ſynocha, and gives to phrenitis more of the appearance of mania. In many caſes, however, the fever runs as high as the delirium; then the caſe often almoſt exactly reſembles a caſe of violent ſyncha, from which it is the more difficult to diſtinguiſh it if the pulſe be full and ſtrong. In general, however, the hadneſs is more remarkable than in ſynocha, and in many caſes the pulſe is ſmall and hard, which may be regarded as one of the beſt diagnoſtis between the two complaints, the pulſe in ſynocha being always ſtrog and full. In phrenitis it is ſometimes, though rarely, intermittin. The reſpiration is generally dep and ſlow, ſometimes difficult, no and then interrupted with hicku ſeldom hurried and frequent; a ve unfavourable ſymptom. In mny of the caſes mentioned by Saalman, pneumonia ſupervened.

The deglutition is often difficult, ſmetimes convulſive. The ſtomach ; frequently oppreſſed with bile, hich is an unfavourable ſymptom; nd complete jaundice, the ſkin and he urine being tinged yellow, ſometimes ſupervenes. Worms in the tomach and bowels are alſo frequent ttendants on phrenitis, and there is eaſon to believe, may have a ſhare in producing it. The hydrocephalus internus, which is more allied to phrenitis than dropſy of the brain, properly ſo called, ſeems often, in part at leaſt, to ariſe from derangement of the primæ viæ, particularly from worms. We cannot otherwiſe account for the frequent occurrence of theſe complaints.

Inſtead of a ſuperabundance of bile in the primæ viæ, there is ſometimes a deficiency, which ſeems to afford even a worſe prognoſis. The *fæces alvinæ* being of a white colour, and a black cloud in the urine, are regarded by Lobb as fatal ſymptoms. The black cloud in the urine is owing to an admixture of blood: when unmixed with blood, the urine is generally pale.

There is often a remarkable tendency to the worſt ſpecies of hæmorrhagies, towards the fatal termination of phrenitis. Hæmorrhagy from the eyes has already been mentioned. Hæmorrhagy from the inteſtines alſo, tinging the ſtools with a black colour, is not uncommon. Theſe hæmorrhagies are never favourable; but the hæmorrhagies characteriſtic of ſynocha, particularly that from the noſe, ſometimes occur at an earlier period, and, if copious, generally bring relief. More frequently, however, blood drops ſlowly from the noſe, demonſtrating the violence of the diſeaſe, without relieving it. In other caſes there is a diſcharge of thin mucus from the noſe.

Tremors of the joints, convulſions of the muſcles of the face, grinding of the teeth, the face from being florid ſuddenly become pale, involuntary tears, a mucus from the noſe, the urine being of a dark red or yellow colour, or black, or covered with a pellicle, the fæces being either bilious or white, and very fœtid, profuſe ſweat of the head, neck, and ſhoulders, paralyſis of the tongue, general convulſions, much derangement of the internal functions, and the ſymptoms of other viſceral inflammations, particularly of pneumonia, ſupervening, are enumerated by Saalman as affording the moſt unfa-

vourable prognosis. The delirium changing to coma, the pulse at the same time becoming weak, and the deglutiton difficult, was generally the forerunner of death. When, on the contrary, there is a copious hæmorrhagy from the hæmorrhoidal vessels, from the lungs, mouth, or even from the urinary passages, when the delirium is relieved by sleep, and the patient remembers his dreams, when the sweats are free and general, the deafness is diminished or removed, and the febrile symptoms become milder, there are hopes of a recovery.

In almost all diseases, if we except those which kill suddenly, as the fatal termination approaches, nearly the same train of symptoms supervenes, viz. those denoting extreme debility of all the functions. Saalman remarks that the blood did not always shew the buffy coat.

Phrenitis, like most other complaints, has sometimes assumed an intermitting form, the fits coming on daily, sometimes every second day. When phrenitis terminates favourably, the typhus, which succeeds the increased excitement, is generally less in proportion to that excitement, than in idiopathic fevers; a circumstance which assists in distinguishing phrenitis from synocha.

The imperfect diagnosis between these complaints is further assisted by the effects of the remedies employed. For if in phrenitis in removing the delirium and other local symptoms, the febrile symptoms in general soon abate. Whereas in synocha, although the delirium and head-ach be removed, yet the pulse continues frequent, and other marks of indisposition remain for a much longer time.

It will be of use to present at one view the circumstances which form the diagnosis between phrenitis and synocha.

Synocha generally makes its attack in the same manner; its symptoms are few and little varied. The symptoms at the commencement of phrenitis are often more complicated, and differ considerably in different cases. Derangement of the internal functions are comparatively rare in synocha. In phrenitis it almost constantly attends, and often appears very early. The same observation applies to the derangement of the organs of sense. In synocha, the pulse from the commencement, is frequent, slow, and rapid. In phrenitis, symptoms denoting the local affection often became considerable before the pulse is much disturbed. In phrenitis we have seen that the pulse sometimes very suddenly loses its strength, the worst species of hæmorrhagies and other symptoms denoting extreme debility shewing themselves; such symptoms are generally the forerunner of death. But that when the termination is favourable, the degree of typhus which succeeds it is less in proportion to the preceding excitement in synocha. Lastly, if we succeed in removing the delirium and other symptoms affecting the head, the state of the fever is found to partake of this favourable change more immediately and completely than in synocha, where although we succeed in relieving the head-ach or delirium, the fever often suffers little abatement.

With regard to the duration of phrenitis, Eller observes, that when it proves fatal, the patient generally dies within six or seven days. In many fatal cases, however, it is protracted for a longer time, especially where the remissions have been considerable. Upon the whole, however, the longer it is protracted, providing the symptoms do not become worse, the better is the prognosis.

PHTHIRIĀSIS, (*Phthiriasis, is*, f. φθειρίασις; from φθεὶρ, a louse). A disease in which several parts of the body generate lice, which often punc-

ture the skin, and produce little sordid ulcers.

Phthisis, (*Phthisis, is*, f. φθίσις; from φθίω, to consume). Pulmonary consumption. A genus of disease in in the class *pyrexiæ*, and order *hæmorrhagiæ* of Cullen; known by emaciation, debility, cough, hectic fever, purulent expectoration, hæmoptysis, diarrhœa. Species: 1. *Phthisis incipiens*, incipient, without any expectoration of pus. 2. *Phthisis humida*, with an expectoration of pus. 3. *Phthisis scrophulosa*, from scrophulous tubercles in the lungs, &c. 4s *Phthisis hæmoptoica*, from hæmoptysis. 5. *Phthisis exanthematica*, from exanthemata. 6. *Phthisis chlorotica*, from chlorosis. 7. *Phthisis syphilitica*, from a venereal ulcer in the lungs. The causes which predispose to this disease are very numerous. The following are, however, the most general: hereditary disposition; particular formation of body, and obvious by a long neck, prominent shoulders, and narrow chest; scrophulous diathesis, indicated by a fine clear skin, fair hair, delicate rosy complexion, large veins, thick upper lip, a weak voice, and great sensibility; certain diseases, such as syphilis, scrophula, the small pox, and measles; particular employments exposing artificers to dust, such as needle-pointers, stone-cutters, millers, &c. or to the fumes of metals or minerals under a confined and unwholesome air; violent passions, exertions or affections of the mind, as grief, disappointment, anxiety, or close application to study, without using proper exercise; frequent and excessive debaucheries, late watching, and drinking freely of strong liquors: great evacuations, as diarrhæa, diabetes, excessive venery, fluor albus, immoderate discharge of the menstrual flux, and the continuing to suckle too long under a debilitated state; and lastly, the application of cold, either by too sudden a change of apparel, keeping on wet clothes, lying in damp beds, or exposing the body too suddenly to cool air, when heated by exercise; in short, by any thing that gives a considerable check to the perspiration. The more immediate or occasional causes of phthisis are, hæmoptysis, pneumonic inflammation proceeding to suppuration, catarrh, asthma, and tubercles, the last of which is by far the most general. The incipient symptoms usually vary with the cause of the disease; but when it arises from tubercles, it is usually thus marked: It begins with a short dry cough, that at length becomes habitual, but from which nothing is spit up for some time, except a frothy mucus that seems to proceed from the fauces. The breathing is at the same time somewhat impeded, and upon the least bodily motion is much hurried: a sense of straitness, with oppression at the chest, is experienced; the body becomes gradually leaner, and great languor, with indolence, dejection of spirits, and loss of appetite, prevail. In this state the patient frequently continues a considerable length of time, during which he is, however, more readily affected than usual by slight colds, and upon one or other of the occasions the cough becomes more troublesome and severe, particularly by night, and it is at length attended with an expectoration, which towards morning is more free and copious. By degrees the matter which is expectorated becomes more viscid and opaque, and now assumes a greenish colour and purulent appearance, being on many occasions streaked with blood. In some cases, a more severe degree of hæmoptysis attends, and the patient spits up a considerable quantity of florid, frothy blood. The breathing at length becomes more difficult, and the emaciation and weakness goes on

increaſing. With theſe, the perſon begins to be ſenſible of pain in ſome part of the thorax, which, however, is uſually felt at firſt under the ſternum, particularly on coughing. At a more advanced period of the diſeaſe a pain is ſometimes felt on one ſide, and at times prevails in ſo high a degree, as to prevent the perſon from lying eaſily on that ſide; but it more frequently happens, that it is felt only on making a full inſpiration, or coughing. Even where no pain is felt it often happens, that thoſe who labour under phthiſis cannot lie eaſily on one or other of their ſides, without a fit of coughing being excited, or the difficulty of breathing being much increaſed. At the firſt commencement of the diſeaſe, the pulſe is often natural, or perhaps is ſoft, ſmall, and a little quicker than uſual; but when the ſymptoms which have been enumerated have ſubſiſted for any length of time, it then becomes full, hard, and frequent. At the ſame time the face flushes, particularly after eating, the palms of the hands and ſoles of the feet are affected with burning heat; the reſpiration is difficult and laborious; evening exacerbations become obvious, and by degrees, the fever aſſumes the hectic form. This ſpecies of fever is evidently of the remittent kind, and has exacerbations twice every day. The firſt occurs uſually about noon, and a ſlight remiſſion enſues about five in the afternoon. This laſt is, however, ſoon ſucceeded by another exacerbation, which increaſes gradually until after midnight; but about two o'clock in the morning a remiſſion takes place, and this becomes more apparent as the morning advances. During the exacerbations the patient is very ſenſible to any coolneſs of the air, and often complains of a ſenſe of cold when his ſkin is, at the ſame time, preternaturally warm. Of theſe exacerbations, that of the evening is by far the moſt conſiderable. From the firſt appearance of the hectic ſymptoms, the urine is high coloured, and depoſits a copious branny red ſediment. The appetite, however, is not greatly impaired, the tongue appears clean, the mouth is uſually moiſt, and the thirſt is inconſiderable. As the diſeaſe advances, the fauces put on rather an inflamed appearance, and are beſet with aphthæ, and the red veſſels of the tunica adnata become of a pearly white. During the exacerbations, a florid circumſcribed redneſs appears on each cheek; but at other times, the face is pale, and the countenance ſomewhat dejected. At the commencement of hectic fever, the belly is uſually coſtive; but in the more advanced ſtages of it, a diarrhæa often comes on, and this continues to recur frequently during the remainder of the diſeaſe; colliquative ſweats likewiſe break out, and theſe alternate with each other, and induce vaſt debility. In the laſt ſtage of the diſeaſe the emaciation is ſo great, that the patient has the appearance of a walking ſkeleton; his countenance is altered, his cheeks are prominent, his eyes look hollow and languid, his hair falls off, his nails are of a livid colour, and much incurvated, and his feet are affected with ædematous ſwellings. To the end of the diſeaſe the ſenſes remain entire, and the mind is confident and full of hope. It is, indeed, a happy circumſtance attendant on phthiſis, that thoſe who labour under it are ſeldom apprehenſive or aware of any danger; and it is no uncommon occurrence to meet with perſons labouring under its moſt advanced ſtage, flattering themſelves with a ſpeedy recovery, and forming diſtant projects under that vain hope. Some days before death the extremities become cold. In ſome caſes a delirium precedes that event, and continues until life is extinguiſhed.

As an expectoration of mucus from the lungs may poſſibly be miſtaken for purulent matter, and may thereby give us reaſon to ſuſpect that the patient labours under a confirmed phthiſis, it may not be amiſs to point out a ſure criterion, by which we ſhall always be able to diſtinguiſh the one from the other. The medical world are indebted to the late Mr. Charles Darwin for the diſcovery, who has directed the experiment to be made in the following manner:

Let the expectorated matter be diſſolved in vitriolic acid, and in cauſtic lixivium, and add pure water to both ſolutions. If there is a fair precipitation in each, it is a certain ſign of the preſence of pus; but if there is not a precipitation in either, it is certainly mucus.

Mr. Everard Home, in his diſſertation on the properties of pus, informs us of a curious, and apparently a deciſive mode of diſtinguiſhing accurately between pus and animal mucus. The property, he obſerves, which characterizes pus, and diſtinguiſhes it from moſt other ſubſtances, is, its being compoſed of globules, which are viſible when viewed through a microſcope; whereas animal mucus, and all chemical combinations of animal ſubſtances appear in the microſcope to be made up of flakes. This property was firſt noticed by the late Mr. John Hunter.

Pulmonary conſumption is in every caſe to be conſidered as attended with much danger; but it is more ſo when it proceeds from tubercles, than when it ariſes in conſequence either of hæmoptyſis, or pneumonic ſuppuration. In the laſt inſtance theriſk will be greater where the abſceſs breaks inwardly, and gives riſe to empyema, than when its contents are diſcharged by the mouth. Even caſes of this nature have, however, been known to terminate in immediate death. The impending danger is generally to be judged of, however, by the violence of the hectic ſymptoms; but more particularly by the fetor of the expectoration, the degree of emaciation and debility, the colliquative ſweats, and the diarrhæa. The diſeaſe has, in many caſes, been found to be conſiderably retarded in its proceſs by pregnancy; and in a few has been alleviated by an attack of mania.

The morbid appearance moſt frequently to be met with on the diſſections of thoſe who die of phthiſis, is the exiſtence of tubercles in the cellular ſubſtance of the lungs. Theſe are ſmall tumours which have the appearance of indurated glands, are of different ſizes, and are often found in cluſters. Their firmneſs is uſually in proportion to their ſize, and when laid open in this ſtate they are of a white colour, and of a conſiſtence nearly approaching to cartilage. Although indolent at firſt, they at length become inflamed, and are at laſt changed into little abſceſſes or vomicæ, which breaking, and pouring their contents into the bronchiæ, give riſe to a purulent expectoration, and thus lay the foundation of phthiſis. Such tubercles or vomicæ are moſt uſually ſituated at the upper and back part of the lungs; but in ſome inſtances they occupy the outer part, and then adheſions to the pleura are often formed.

When the diſeaſe is partial, only about a fourth of the upper and poſterior part of the lungs is uſually found diſeaſed; but in ſome caſes life has been protracted till not one twentieth part of them appeared, on diſſection, fit for performing their function. A ſingular obſervation, confirmed by the morbid collections of anatomiſts, is, that the left lobe is much oftener affected than the right.

Phu, (φυ, or φευ, from *phua*, Arab.). See *Valeriana major*.

Phygĕthlon, (*Phygethlon, i*, n.

φυγεθλον; from φυω, to grow). A red and painful tubercle which often ariſes about the anus, and if badly treated becomes fiſtulous.

PHYLLANTHUS EMBLICA. The ſyſtematic name of the Indian tree from which the emblic myrobalan is obtained.

PHYLLITIS, (*Phyllitis, ĭdis*, f. φυλλιτις; from φυλλον, a leaf ſo called becauſe the leaves only appear). See *Scolopendrium*.

PHYMA, (*Phyma, ătis*, n. φυμα; from φυω, to produce). Tubercles in any external part of the body.

PHYSALIS ALKEKENGI, (*Phyſalis, idis*, f. φυσαλις; from φυσαω, to inflate; ſo called becauſe its ſeed is contained in a kind of bladder, and *alkekengi*, alkakangi, Arab, the halicacabus or winter cherry). The ſyſtematic name of the winter cherry. See *Alkekengi*.

PHYSCŌNĬA, (*Phyſconia, æ*, f. φυσκωνια; from φυσκων, a big-bellied fellow). Enlargement of the abdomen. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ*, and order *intumeſcentiæ* of Cullen; known by a tumour occupying chiefly one part of the abdomen, increaſing ſlowly, and neither ſonorous nor fluctuating. Species: 1. *hepatica*. 2. *Splenica*. 3. *Renalis*. 4. *Uterina*. 5. *Ab ovario*. 6. *Meſenterica*. 7. *Omentalis*. 8. *Viſceralis*.

PHYSĒTER MACROCEPHĂLUS, (*Phyeter, eris*, m. φυσητηρ; from φυσαω, to inflate; ſo named from its action of blowing and diſcharging water from its noſtrils, and *macrocephalus*, μακροκεφαλος, from μακρος, long, and κεφαλη, the head; from the length of its head). See *Ambergris*.

PHYSIOGNOMY, (*Phyſiognomia, æ*, f. φυσιογνωμια; from φυσις, nature, and γινωσκω, to know). The art of knowing the diſpoſition of a perſon from the countenance.

PHYSIOLOGY, (*Phyſiologia, æ*, f. φυσιολογια; from φυσις, nature, and λογος, a diſcourſe). The ſcience which treats of the actions and powers of an animated body.

PHYSOCĒLE, (*Phyſocele, es*, f. φυσοκηλη; from φυσα, wind, and κηλη, a tumour). Any ſpecies of hernia, whoſe contents are diſtended with wind.

PHYSOCEPHALUS, (*Phyſocephalus, i*, m. φυσοκεφαλος; from φυσα, wind, and κεφαλη, the head). Emphyſema of the head. See *Pneumatoſis*.

PHYSOMETRA, (*Phyſometra, æ*, f. φυσομετρα; from φυσαω, to inflate, and μετρα, the womb). A windy ſwelling of the uterus. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ*, and order *intumeſcentiæ* of Cullen; characterized by a permanent elaſtic ſwelling of the hypogaſtrium, from flatulent diſtention of the womb.

PHYTOLACCA DECANDRIA, (*Phytolacca, æ*, f. φυτολακκα; from φυτον, a plant, and λακκα, gum lac; ſo called becauſe it is of the colour of lacca, and *decandria*, from its Linnæan arrangement). The ſyſtematic name of the American night-ſhade. In Virginia and other parts of America, the inhabitants boil the leaves, and eat them in the manner of ſpinach. They are ſaid to have an anodyne quality, and the juice of the root is violently cathartic. The Portugueze had formerly a trick of mixing the juice of the berries with their red wines, in order to give them a deeper colour; but it was found to debaſe the flavour. This was repreſented to his Portugueſe majeſty, who ordered all the ſtems to be cut down yearly before they produced flowers, thereby to prevent any farther adulteration.

PHYTOLOGY, (*Phytologia, æ*, f. φυτολογια; from φυτη, an herb, and λογος, a diſcourſe). That part of natural hiſtory which treats on plants.

PĬA MATER, (*Pia mater*, the natural mother; ſo called becauſe it

embraces the brain as a good mother folds her child). A thin membrane, almoſt wholly vaſcular, that is firmly accreted to the convolutions of the cerebrum, cerebellum, medulla oblongata, and medulla ſpinalis. Its uſe appears to be, to diſtribute the veſſels to, and contain the ſubſtance of, the cerebrum.

PICA, (*Pica, æ*, f. ſo named becauſe it is ſaid the magpie is ſubject to this affection). Depraved appetite, with ſtrong deſire for unnatural food. It is very common to pregnant women.

PICEA, (*Picea, æ*, f. πιτυς, pitch). The common or red fir or pitch tree is ſo termed. The cones, branches, and every part of the tree, affords the common reſin called frankinſenſe. See *Terebinthina vulgaris*.

PICRIS ECHIOIDES, (*Picris, idis*, f. πικρις; from πικρος, bitter, and *echioides*, εχιοειδης, from εχιον, from εχις, a viper, and ειδος, reſemblance). The ſyſtematic name of the common ox-tongue; the leaves are frequently uſed as a pot-herb by the country people, who eſteem it good to relax the bowels.

PICHURIM. See *Pechurim*.

PIG NUT. Earth nut. Ground nut. The bulbous root of the *Bunium bulbocaſtanum* of Linnæus. Pignuts, ſo called becauſe that animal is very fond of them, and will dig with its ſnout to ſome depth for them, are of a dirty brown colour, a little bigger than a hazel-nut, and flavoured like the cheſnut. They are ſaid to poſſeſs a ſtyptic quality, and are deemed ſerviceable in laxity of the kidneys.

PIGMENT, (*Pigmentum, i*, n. from *pingo*, to paint). This name is given by anatomiſts to a mucous ſubſtance found in the eye, which is of two kinds. *The pigment of the iris*, is that which covers the anterior and poſterior ſurface of the iris, and gives the beautiful variety of colour in the eyes. *The pigment of the choroid membrane*, is a black or browniſh mucus which covers the anterior ſurface of the choroid membrane, contiguous to the retina and the interior ſurface of the ciliary proceſſes.

PILES. See *Hæmorrhois*.

PILE WORT. See *Cheledonium minus*.

PILI CONGENĬTI. The hair of the head, eyebrows, and eyelids, are ſo termed, becauſe they grow *in utero*.

PILĬ POSTGENĬTI. The hair which grows from the ſurface of the body after birth is ſo termed, in contradiction to that which appears before birth; as the hair of the head, eyebrows, and eyelids.

PILOSELLA, (*Pilocella, æ*, f. from *pilus*, hair, becauſe its leaves are hairy). *Auricula muris. Myoſotis.* Mouſe ear. This common plant, *Hieracium pilocella* of Linnæus, contains a bitter lacteſcent juice, which has a ſlight degree of adſtringency. The roots are more powerful than the leaves. They are very ſeldom uſed in this country.

PILŬLÆ ALŎĒS COMPOSĬTÆ. From fifteen to twenty-five grains prove moderately purgative and ſtomachic.

PILŬLÆ ALŎĒS CUM MYRRHA. From ten grains to a ſcruple of this pill, ſubſtituted for the *pilula Ruſi*, prove ſtomachic and laxative, and are calculated for delicate females, eſpecially where there is uterine obſtruction.

PILŬLÆ CUPRI. An excellent tonic and diaphoretic pill, which may be given with advantage in dropſical diſeaſes, where tonics and diuretics are indicated.

PILŬLÆ GALBANI COMPOSĬTÆ. A ſtimulating antiſpaſmodic and emmenagogue. From a ſcruple to half a drachm may be given three times a day in nervous diſorders of the ſtomach and inteſtines, in hyſterical affections and hypochondriaſis.

PILŬLÆ HYDRARGŸRI. An al-

terative and antivenereal pill, which moſtly acts on the bowels if given in ſufficient quantity to attempt the removal of the venereal diſeaſe, and therefore requires the addition of opium. Joined with the ſquill pill, it forms an excellent expectorant and alterative, calculated to aſſiſt the removal of dropſical diſeaſes of the cheſt, and aſthmas attended with viſceral obſtruction.

PILŬLÆ HYDRARGŸRI MURIATI MITIS, SIVE, CALOMELANOS COMPOSITÆ. This is intended as a ſubſtitute for the famed Plummer's pill. It is exhibited as an alterative in a variety of diſeaſes, eſpecially cutaneous eruptions, pains of the venereal or rheumatic kind, cancerous and ſcirrhous affections, and chronic ophthalmia.

PILŬLÆ OPĬI. Five grains of this maſs contain one of opium.

PILŬLÆ RHÆI COMPOSĬTÆ. Laxative and ſtomachic, in the doſe of from fifteen grains to half a drachm.

PILŬLÆ SCILLÆ. An attenuant, expectorant, and diuretic pill, moſtly adminiſtered in the cure of aſthma and dropſy.

PILUS, (*Pilus*, *i*, m. πῖλος, wool carded). The ſhort hair which is found all over the body. See *Capillus*.

PIMENTA. See *Pimento*.

PIMENTO, (*Pimento*, n. ind. from *Pimienta*, Sp. pepper). Jamaica pepper, or allſpice. *Amomum pimenta*. *Myrtus pimenta* of Linnæus. *Myrtus floribus trichotomo-paniculatis, foliis oblongo-lanceolatis*. Hort. Kew. Claſs *Icoſandria*. Order *Monogynia*. This ſpice, which was firſt brought over for dietetic uſes, has been long employed in the ſhops as a ſuccedaneum to the more coſtly oriental aromatics: it is moderately warm, of an agreeable flavour, ſomewhat reſembling that of a mixture of cloves, cinnamon, and nutmegs. Both pharmacopœias direct an aqueous and ſpirituous diſtillation to be made from theſe berries; and the Edinburgh College orders alſo the *oleum eſſentiale piperis Jamaicenſis*.

PIMPERNEL. The anagallis arvenſis is ſometimes ſo called. See *Anagallis*.

PIMPERNEL, WATER. See *Becabunga*.

PIMPĬNELLA, (*Pimpinella*, *æ*, f. *quaſi bipinella* or *bipenula*, from the double penate order of its leaves). *Pimpinella alba*. *Pimpinella noſtras*. Several ſpecies of pimpinella were formerly uſed officinally; but the roots which obtain a place in the materia medica of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia, are thoſe of the *Burnet ſaxifrage*, the *Pimpinella ſaxifraga* of Linnæus. *Pimpinella foliis pinnatis, foliolis radicalibus ſubrotundis, ſummis linearibus*. Claſs *Pentaudria*. Order *Digynia*. They have an unpleaſant ſmell; and a hot, pungent, bitteriſh taſte: they are recommended by ſeveral writers as a ſtomachic: in the way of gargle, they have been employed for diſſolving viſcid mucus, and to ſtimulate the tongue when that organ becomes paralytic.

PIMPĬNELLA ALBA. A variety of the *pimpinella magna*, whoſe root is indifferently uſed with that of the greater pimpinell, called *radix pimpinellæ nigræ*. See alſo *Pimpinella*.

PIMPĬNELLA ANĪSUM. The ſyſtematic name of the aniſe plant. See *Aniſum*.

PIMPĬNELLA ITALĬCA. The root which bears this name in ſome pharmacopœias is that of the *Sanguiſorba officinalis* of Linnæus. It is now fallen into diſuſe.

PIMPĬNELLA MAGNA. The ſyſtematic name of the greater pimpinella. See *Pimpinella nigra*.

PIMPĬNELLA NIGRA. The root of this plant, *Pimpinella magna* of Linnæus, has been lately extolled in the cure of eryſipelatous ulcerations, tinea capitis, rheumatiſm, and other diſeaſes.

PIMPĬNELLA NOSTRAS. See *Pimpinella.*

PIMPĬNELLA SAXIFRAGA. The ſyſtematic name of the *Burnet ſaxifrage* of Linnæus. See *Pimpinella.*

PINASTELLUM, (*Pinaſtellum, i,* n. from *pinus,* the pine tree; ſo called becauſe its leaves reſemble thoſe of the pine tree). Hog's fennel. See *Peucedanum.*

PINEA, (*Pinea, æ,* f.). The ſtone pine. The young and freſh fruit of this plant, *Pinus pinea* of Linnæus, are eaten in ſome countries in the ſame manner as almonds here, either alone, or mixed with ſugar. They are nutritive, demulcent, and laxative.

PINEAL GLAND, (called *pineal* from *pinea,* a pine apple, from its ſuppoſed reſemblance to that fruit). *Glandula pinealis. Conarium.* A ſmall heart-like ſubſtance, about the ſize of a pea, ſituated immediately over the corpora quadrigemina, and hanging from the *thalami nervorum opticorum* by two crura or peduncles. Its uſe is not known. It was formerly ſuppoſed to be the ſeat of the ſoul.

PINE APPLE. See *Ananas.*

PINE, THISTLE. See *Carlina gummifera.*

PINĔUS PURGANS. See *Ricinus major.*

PINGUĔDO, (*Pinguedo, inis,* f. from *pinguis,* fat). Fat. See *Fat.*

PINGUICULA, (*Pinguicula, æ,* f. from *pinguis,* fat, ſo called becauſe its leaves are fat to the touch). *Viola paluſtris. Liparis. Cucullata. Dodecatheon Plinii.* Butter-wort. Yorkſhire fanicle. The remarkable unctuoſity of this plant, *Pinguicula vulgaris* of Linnæus, has cauſed it to be applied to chaps, and as a pomatum to the hair. Decoctions of the leaves in broths are uſed by the common people in Wales as a cathartic.

PINHONES INDICI. See *Ricinus major.*

PINK, INDIAN. See *Spigelia.*

PINUS ABIES. The Norway ſpruce fir, which affords the pix burgundica. See *Burgundy pitch.*

PINUS BALSAMĒA. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the Canada balſam. See *Balſamum Canadenſe.*

PINUS LARYX. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which gives us the agaric and Venice turpentine. See *Agaricus albus,* and *Terebinthina veneta.*

PINUS PICĔA. The ſyſtematic name of the ſilver fir. See *Terebinthina communis.*

PINUS PINĔA. The ſyſtematic name of the ſtone pine tree. See *Pinea.*

PINUS SYLVESTRIS. The ſyſtematic name of the Scotch fir. See *Pix liquida.*

PIPER, (*Piper, eris,* n. πιπερι, or πιπερις, from πεπτω, to concoct, becauſe by its heat it aſſiſts digeſtion), Pepper.

PIPER ALBUM. See *Piper nigrum.*

PIPER CAUDĀTUM. See *Cubebæ.*

PIPER CUBEBA. The plant whoſe berries are called cubebs. See *Cubebæ.*

PIPER HISPANĬCUM. See *Piper indicum.*

PIPER INDĬCUM. *Capſicum. Piper Brazilianum. Piper Guincenſe. Piper Calecuticum. Piper Hiſpanicum. Piper Lucitanicum.* Cayenne pepper. Guinea pepper. This ſpecies of pepper is obtained from the *Capſicum annuum; caule herbaceo, pedunculis ſolitariis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Monogynia.* As an aromatic of the ſtimulant kind, it is efficacious in ſome paralytic and gouty caſes, or to promote excitement where the bodily organs are languid and torpid.

PIPER JAMAICENSE. See *Pimento.*

PIPER LONGUM. *Macropiper.* Long pepper. *Piper longum* of Linnæus. *Piper foliis cordatis petiolatis ſeſſilibuſque.* Claſs *Diandria.* Order

Trigynia. The berries or grains of this plant are gathered while green, and dried in the heat of the ſun, when they change to a blackiſh or dark gray colour. They poſſeſs preciſely the ſame qualities as the former, only in a weaker degree.

PIPER LUSITANĬCUM. See *Piper indicum.*

PIPER MURĀLE. See *Illecebra.*

PIPER NIGRUM. *Melanopiper.* Black pepper. This ſpecies of pepper is obtained in the Eaſt Indies, from the *Piper nigrum* of Linnæus. *Piper foliis ovatis ſeptemnerviis glabris, petiolis ſimpliciſſimis.* Claſs *Diandria.* Order *Trigynia.* Its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of the other peppers. The black and white pepper are both obtained from the ſame tree, the difference depending on their preparation and degrees of maturity.

PIPĔRĪTIS, (*Piperitis, ĭdis,* f. from *piper,* pepper, ſo called becauſe its leaves and roots are biting like pepper to the taſte).

PISIFORM BONE. The fourth bone of the firſt row of the carpus.

PISMIRE. See *Formica.*

PISSABED. See *Taraxacum.*

PISSASPHALTUS, (*Piſſaſphaltus, i,* m. πισσαφαλτος, from πισσα, pitch, and ἀσφαλτος, bitumen). The thicker kind of rock oil.

PISTACHIO NUT. *Nux piſtacia.* An oblong pointed nut, about the ſize and ſhape of a filbert, including a kernel of a pale greeniſh colour, covered with a yellow or greeniſh ſkin. It is the produce of a large tree, the *Piſtacia vera*; *foliis impari-pennatis*; *foliolis ſubovatis recurvis* of Linnæus. Piſtachio nuts have a ſweetiſh unctuous taſte, reſembling that of ſweet almonds, and, like the latter, afford an oil, and may be formed into an emulſion.

PISTACĬA LENTISCUS. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the maſtick. See *Maſtiche.*

PISTACĬA NUX, (*Piſtachia, æ,* f. πιστακια, ſuppoſed to be a Syrian word). See *Piſtachio nut.*

PISTACĬA TEREBINTHUS. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which gives out the Cyprus turpentine. See *Chio turpentine.*

PISTACĬA VERA. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the *nuxes piſtaciæ.* See *Piſtachio nut.*

PITCH, (*Pix, icis,* f.). *Pix ſicca.* The juice of a ſpecies of fir, extracted by inciſions made in the bark of the tree. It is ſometimes uſed as a detergent by ſurgeons.

PITCH, BURGUNDY. See *Burgundy pitch.*

PITCH, JEWS. See *Bitumen judaicum.*

PITCH TREE. See *Picea.*

PITUITA, (*Pituita, æ,* f.). Phlegm, or viſcid and glutinous mucus.

PITUITARY GLAND. *Glandŭla petuitarĭa.* A gland ſituated within the cranium, between a duplicature of the dura mater, in the ſella turcica of the ſphænoid bone.

PITUITARY MEMBRANE. *Membrāna pituitaria.* Schneiderian membrane. The mucus membrane that lines the noſtrils and ſinuſes, communicating with the noſe, is ſo called, becauſe it ſecretes the mucus of thoſe parts, to which the ancients have aſſigned the name of *pituita.*

PIX BURGUNDICA, (*Pix, icis,* f.). See *Burgundy pitch.*

PIX LIQUĬDA. Tar. Tar is produced from the *Pinus ſylveſtris* of Linnæus, (*Pinus foliis geminis rigidis, conis ovato-conicis longitudine foliorum ſubgeminis baſi rotundatis.* Claſs *Monoecia.* Order *Monodelphia*), by cutting it into pieces, which are encloſed in a large oven conſtructed for the purpoſe. It is well known for its economical uſes. Tar water, or water impregnated with the more ſoluble parts of tar, was ſome time ago a very faſhionable remedy in a variety of complaints, but is in the preſent practice fallen into diſuſe.

PIX SICCA. See *Pitch*.

PITYRIASIS, (*Pityriaſis, is*, f. πιτυριασις, from πιτυρον, bran, ſo named from its branny like appearance). A genus in the ſecond order, or ſcaly diſeaſes, of Dr. Willan's cutaneous diſeaſes. The pityriaſis conſiſts of irregular patches of ſmall thin ſcales, which repeatedly form and ſeparate, but never collect into cruſts, nor are attended with redneſs or inflammation, as in the lepra and ſcaly tetter. Dr. Willan diſtinguiſhes pityriaſis from the porrigo of the Latins, which has a more extenſive ſignification, and comprehends a diſeaſe of the ſcalp, terminating in ulceration; whereas the former is, by the beſt Greek authors, repreſented as always dry and ſcaly. Thus, according to Alexander and Paulus, pityriaſis is characteriſed by "the ſeparation of ſlight furfuraceous ſubſtances from the ſurface of the head, or other parts of the body, without ulceration." Their account of this appearance is conformable to experience; and the two varieties of it which they have pointed out may be denominated, *Pityriaſis capitis*, and *Pityriaſis verſicolor*. *Pityriaſis capitis*, when it affects very young infants, is termed by nurſes the dandriff. It appears at the upper edge of the forehead and temples, as a ſlight whitiſh ſcurf ſet in the form of a horſe ſhoe; on other parts of the head there are large ſcales, at a diſtance from each other, flat, and ſemipellucid. Sometimes, however, they nearly cover the whole of the hairy ſcalp, being cloſe together, and imbricated. A ſimilar appearance may take place in adults; but it is uſually the effects of lepra, ſcaly tetter, or ſome general diſeaſe of the ſkin.

Elderly perſons have the pityriaſis capitis in nearly the ſame form as infants; the only difference is, that this complaint in old people occaſions larger exfoliations of the cuticle.

The *pityriaſis verſicolor* chiefly affects the arms, breaſt, and abdomen. It is diffuſed very irregularly; and being of a different colour from the uſual ſkin colour, it exhibits a ſingular chequered appearance. Theſe irregular patches, which are at firſt ſmall, and of a brown or yellow hue, appear at the ſcrobiculus cordis, about the mammæ, clavicles, &c. Enlarging gradually, they aſſume a teſſelated form; in other caſes they are branched, ſo as to reſemble the foliaceous lichens growing on the bark of trees; and ſometimes, when the diſcolouration is not continuous, they ſuggeſt the idea of a map being diſtributed on the ſkin like iſlands, continents, peninſulas, &c. All the diſcoloured parts are ſlightly rough, with minute ſcales, which ſoon fall off, but are conſtantly replaced by others. This ſcurf, or ſcalineſs, is moſt conſpicuous on the ſides and epigaſtric region. The cuticular lines are ſomewhat deeper in the patches than on the contiguous parts; but there is no elevated border, or diſtinguiſhing boundary between the diſcoloured part of the ſkin, and that which retains its natural colour. The diſcolouration rarely extends over the whole body. It is ſtrongeſt and fulleſt round the umbilicus, on the breaſts, and ſides; it ſeldom appears in the ſkin over the ſternum, or along the ſpine of the back. Interſtices of proper ſkin colour are more numerous, and largeſt at the lower part of the abdomen and back, where the ſcales are often ſmall, diſtinct, and a little depreſſed. The face, nates, and lower extremities are leaſt affected; the patches are found upon the arms, but moſtly on the inſide, where they are diſtinct and of different ſizes.

The *pityriaſis verſicolor* is not a cuticular diſeaſe; for when the cuticle is abraded from any of the patches, the ſallow colour remains as before in the ſkin or retemucoſum. This ſingular appearance is not attended with any internal diſorder,

nor with any troubleſome ſymptom, except a little itching or irritation felt on getting into bed, and after ſtrong exerciſe, or drinking warm liquors. There is in ſome caſes a ſlight exanthema, partially diſtributed among the diſcoloured patches; and ſometimes an appearance like the lichen pileus; but eruptions of this kind are not permanent, neither do they produce any change in the original form of the complaint. The duration of the pityriaſis verſicolor is always conſiderable. Dr. Willan has obſerved its continuance in ſome perſons for four, five, or ſix years. It is not limited to any age or ſex. Its cauſes are not pointed out with certainty. Several patients have referred it to fruit taken in too great quantities; ſome have thought it was produced by eating muſhrooms; others by expoſure to ſudden alterations of cold and heat. In ſome individuals, who had an irritable ſkin, and occaſionally uſed violent exerciſe, the complaint has been produced, or at leaſt much aggravated, by wearing flannel next to the ſkin. It is likewiſe often obſerved in perſons who had reſided for a length of time in a tropical climate.

PLACENTA, (*Placenta, æ*, f. from πλακους, a cake, ſo called from its reſemblance to a cake). The placenta is a circular, flat, vaſcular, and apparently fleſhy ſubſtance, different in its diameter in different ſubjects, but uſually extending about ſix inches, or upwards, over about one-fourth part of the outſide of the ovum in pregnant women. It is more than one inch in thickneſs in the middle, and becomes gradually thinner towards the circumference from which the membranes are continued. The placenta is the principal medium by which the communication between the parent and child is preſerved; but though all have allowed the importance of the office which it performs, there has been a variety of opinions an the nature of that office, and of the manner in which it is executed.

That ſurface of the placenta which is attached to the uterus by the intervention of the connecting membrane, is lobulated and convex; but the other, which is covered with the amnion and chorion, is concave and ſmooth, except the little eminences made by the blood-veſſels. It is ſeldom found attached to the ſame part of the uterus in two ſucceſſive births; and, though it moſt frequently adheres to the anterior part, it is occaſionally fixed to any other, even to the os uteri, in which ſtate it becomes a cauſe of a dangerous hæmorrhage at the time of parturition. The placenta is compoſed of arteries and veins, with a mixture of pulpy or cellular ſubſtance. Of theſe there are two orders, very curiouſly interwoven with each other. The firſt is a continuation of thoſe from the funis, which ramify on the internal ſurface of the placenta, the arteries running over the veins, which is a circumſtance peculiar to the placenta; and then, ſinking into its ſubſtance, anaſtomoſe and divide into innumerable ſmall branches. The ſecond order proceeds from the uterus; and theſe ramify in a ſimilar manner with thoſe from funis, as appears when a placenta is injected from thoſe of the parent. The veins, in their ramifications, accompany the arteries as in other parts. There have been many different opinions with reſpect to the manner in which the blood circulates between the parent and child, during its continuance in the uterus. For a long time it was believed that the intercourſe between them was uninterrupted, and that the blood propelled by the powers of the parent pervaded, by a continuance of the ſame force, the vaſcular ſyſtem of the fœtus; but repeated attempts having been made without ſucceſs to inject the whole placenta

funis and fœtus, from the veſſels of the parent, or any part of the uterus, from the veſſels of the funis, it is now generally allowed, that the two ſyſtems of veſſels in the placenta, one of which may be called maternal, the other fœtal, are diſtinct. It is alſo admitted, that the blood of the fœtus is, with regard to its formation, increaſe, and circulation, unconnected with, and totally independent of the parent; except that the matter by which the blood of the fœtus is formed muſt be derived from the parent. It is thought that which has probably undergone ſome preparatory changes in its paſſage through the uterus, is conducted by the uterine or maternal arteries of the placenta to ſome cells or ſmall cavities, in which it is depoſited; and that ſome part of it, or ſomething ſecreted from it, is abſorbed by the fœtal veins of the placenta, and by them conveyed to the fœtus for its nutriment. When the blood which circulates in the fœtus requires any alteration in its qualities, or when it has gone through the courſe of the circulation, it is carried by the arteries of the funis to the placenta, in the cells of which it is depoſited, and then abſorbed by the maternal veins of the placenta, and conducted to the uterus, whence it may enter the common circulation of the parent. Thus it appears, according to the opinion of Harvey, that the placenta performs the office of a gland, conveying air, or ſecreting the nutritious juices from the blood brought from the parent by the arteries of the uterus, and carried to the fœtus by the veins of the funis, in a manner probably not unlike to that in which milk is ſecreted and abſorbed from the breaſts. The veins in the placenta are mentioned as the abſorbents, becauſe no lymphatic veſſels have yet been found in the placenta or funis; nor are there any nerves in theſe parts; ſo that the only communications hitherto diſcovered between the parent and child, is by the ſanguineous ſyſtem. The proofs of the manner in which the blood circulates between the parent and child are chiefly drawn from obſervations made upon the funis. When it was ſuppoſed that the child was ſupplied with blood in a direct ſtream from the parent, it was aſſerted that, on the diviſion of the funis, if that part next to the placenta was not ſecured by a ligature, the parent would be brought into extreme danger by the hæmorrhage which muſt neceſſarily follow. But this opinion, which laid the foundation of ſeveral peculiarities in the management of the funis and placenta, is proved not to be true: for, if the funis be compreſſed immediately after the birth of the child, and whilſt the circulation in it is going on, the arteries between the part compreſſed and the child throb violently, but thoſe between the compreſſion and the placenta have no pulſation; but the vein between the part compreſſed and the placenta ſwells, and that part next to the fœtus becomes flaccid. But if, under the ſame circumſtances, the funis be divided, and that part next the child be not ſecured, the child would be in danger of loſing its life by the hæmorrhage; yet the mother would ſuffer no inconvenience if the other part was neglected. It is moreover proved, that a woman may die of an hæmorrhage occaſioned by a ſeparation of the placenta, and the child be nevertheleſs born, after her death, in perfect health. But if the placenta be injured, without ſeparation, either by the rupture of the veſſels which paſs upon its inner ſurface, or in any other way, the child being deprived of its proper blood, would periſh, yet the parent might eſcape without injury. See alſo *Secundines*.

PLANTAGO, (*Plantago, ĭnis*, f. from *planta*, the ſole of the feet; ſo called from the ſhape of its leaves, or

because its leaves lie upon the ground and are trodden upon). *Plantago latifolia.* Plantain. This plant, *Plantago major* of Linnæus. *Plantago foliis ovatis glabris, scapo tereti, spica floseulis imbricatis.* Class *Tetrandria.* Order *Monogynia,* is still retained in the materia medica of the Edinburgh College, in which the leaves are mentioned as the pharmaceutical part of the plant; they have a weak herbaceous smell, an austere, bitterish, subsaline taste; and their qualities are said to be refrigerant, attenuating, substyptic, and diuretic.

PLANTĀGO LATIFOLĬA. See *Plantago.*

PLANTĀGO MAJOR. The systematic name of the broad-leaved plantain. See *Plantago.*

PLANTĀGO PSYLLĬUM. The systematic name of the branching plantain. See *Psyllium.*

PLANTAIN. See *Plantago.*

PLANTAIN-TREE. See *Musa paradisiaca.*

PLANTĀRIS, (*Plantaris, sc. musculus.* from *planta,* the sole of the foot, to which it belongs). *Tibialis gracilis* vulgo *plantaris* of Winslow. *Extensor tarsi minor* vulgo *plantaris* of Douglas. A muscle of the foot, situated on the leg, that assists the soleus, and pulls the capsular ligament of the knee from between the bones. It is sometimes, though seldom, found wanting on both sides. This long and slender muscle, which is situated under the gastrocnemius externus, arises, by a thin fleshy origin, from the upper and back part of the outer condyle of the os femoris. It adheres to the capsular ligament of the joint, and, after running obliquely downwards and outwards, for the space of three or four inches, along the second origin of the gastrocnemius internus, and under the gastrocnemius externus, terminates in a long, thin, and slender tendon, which adheres to the inside of the tendo Achillis, and is inserted into the inside of the posterior part of the os calcis. This tendon sometimes sends off an aponeurosis that loses itself in the capsular ligament, but it does not at all contribute to form the aponeurosis that is spread over the sole of the foot, as was formerly supposed, and as its name would seem to imply. Its use is to assist the gastrocnemii in extending the foot. It likewise serves to prevent the capsular ligament of the knee from being pinched.

PLANUM OS, (*Planus,* soft, smooth; applied to a bone whose surface is smooth or flat). The papyraceous or orbital portion of the ethmoid bone was formerly so called.

PLATĪNA, (*Platina, æ,* f.). The name platina was given to this metal by the Spaniards from the word *plata,* which signifies silver in their language, by way of comparison with that metal, whose colour it imitates; or from the river *Plata,* near which it is found. It has hitherto only been found in the gold-mines of America.

PLATYSMA MYOIDES, (*Platysma, atis,* n. from πλατυς, broad, μυς, a muscle, and εἶδος, resemblance). *Musculus cutaneus* of Winslow. *Quadratus genæ vel Latissimus colli* of Douglas. *Latissimus colli* of Albinus. *Detrahens quadratus.* A thin muscle on the side of the neck, immediately under the skin, that assists in drawing the skin of the cheek downwards; and when the mouth is shut, it draws all that part of the skin to which it is connected below the lower jaw upwards.

PLETHŌRA, (*Plethora, æ,* f. πληθωρα; from πληθω, to fill). Fulness of vessels. A redundance of blood.

PLEURA, (*Pleura, æ,* f. πλευρα). A membrane which lines the internal

ſurface of the thorax, and covers its viſcera. It forms a great proceſs, the mediaſtinum, which divides the thorax into two cavities. Its uſe is to render the ſurface of the thorax moiſt by the vapour it exhales. The cavity of the thorax is every where lined by this ſmooth and gliſtning membrane, which is in reality two diſtinct portions or bags, which by being applied to each other laterally, form the ſeptum called mediaſtinum: this divides the cavity into two parts, and is attached poſteriorly to the vertebræ of the back; and anteriorly to the ſternum. But the two laminæ of which this ſeptum is formed, do not every where adhere to each other; for at the lower part of the thorax they are ſeparated, to afford a lodgment to the heart; and at the upper part of the cavity they receive between them the thymus. The pleura is plentifully ſupplied with arteries and veins from the internal mammary, and the intercoſtals. Its nerves, which are very inconſiderable, are derived chiefly from the dorſal and intercoſtal nerves. The ſurface of the pleura, like that of the peritonæum and other membranes lining cavities, is conſtantly bedewed with a ſerous mixture, which prevents adheſions of the viſcera. The mediaſtinum, by dividing the breaſt into two cavities, obviates many inconveniences to which we ſhould otherwiſe be liable. It prevents the two lobes of the lungs from compreſſing each other when we lie on one ſide, and conſequently contributes to the freedom of reſpiration, which is diſturbed by the leaſt preſſure on the lungs. If the point of a ſword penetrates between the ribs into the cavity of the thorax, the lungs on that ſide ceaſe to perform their office, becauſe the air being admitted through the wound, prevents the dilatation of that lobe, while the other lobe, which is ſeparated from it by the mediaſtinum, remains unhurt, and continues to perform its functions as uſual.

Pleurītis, (*Pleuritis*, *ĭdis*, f. πλευρίτις; from πλευρα, the membrane lining the lungs). Pleuriſy, or inflammation of the pleura. A ſpecies of pneumonia of Cullen. See *Pneumonia*. In ſome inſtances the inflammation is partial, or affects one place in particular which is commonly on the right ſide; but in general, a morbid affection is communicated throughout its whole extent. The diſeaſe is occaſioned by expoſure to cold, and by all the cauſes which uſually give riſe to all inflammatory complaints; and it attacks chiefly thoſe of a vigorous conſtitution and plethoric habit. In conſequence of the previous inflammation, it is apt at its departure to leave behind a thickening of the pleura, or adheſions to the ribs and intercoſtal muſcles, which either lay the foundation of future pneumonic complaints, or render the patient more ſuſceptible of the changes in the ſtate of the atmoſphere, than before.

It comes on with an acute pain in the ſide, which is much increaſed by making a full inſpiration, and is accompanied by flushing in the face, increaſed heat over the whole body, rigours, difficulty of laying on the ſide affected, together with a cough and naufea, and the pulſe is hard, ſtrong, and frequent, and vibrates under the finger when preſſed upon, not unlike the tenſe ſtring of a muſical inſtrument. If blood is drawn and allowed to ſtand for a ſhort time, it will exhibit a thick ſizy or buffy coat on its ſurface. If the diſeaſe be neglected at its onſet, and the inflammation proceeds with great violence and rapidity, the lungs themſelves become affected, the paſſage of the blood through them is ſtopped, and the patient is ſuffocated; or from the combination of the two affections,

the inflammation proceeds on to ſuppuration, and an abſceſs is formed. The prognoſtic in pleuriſy muſt be drawn from the ſeverity of the ſymptoms. If the fever and inflammation have run high, and the pain ſhould ceaſe ſuddenly, with a change of countenance and a ſinking of the pulſe, greatdanger may be apprehended; but if the heat and other febrile ſymptoms abate gradually; if reſpiration is performed with greater eaſe and leſs pain, and a free and copious expectoration enſues, a ſpeedy recovery may be expected.

The appearances on diſſection are much the ſame as thoſe mentioned under the head of pneumonia, viz. an inflamed ſtate of the pleura, connected with the lungs, having its ſurface covered with red veſſels, and a layer of coagulated lymph lying upon it, adheſions too, of the ſubſtance of the lungs to the pleura. Beſides theſe, the lungs themſelves are often found in an inflamed ſtate, with an extravaſation either of blood or coagulated lymph in their ſubſtance. Tubercles and abſceſſes are likewiſe frequently met with.

Pleurodynĭa, (*Pleurodynia*, *æ*, f. πλευροδυνια; from πλευρα, and οδυνη, pain). A pain in the ſide, from a rheumatic affection of the pleura.

Pleuro-pneumonĭa, (*Pleuropneumonia*, *æ*, f. πλευρο-περιπνευμονια; from πλευρα, and πνευμονια, an inflammation of the lungs). An inflammation of the lungs and pleura.

Plexus, (*Plexus*, *us*, m. from *plecto*, to plait or knit). A network of veſſels. The union of two or more nerves is alſo called a plexus.

Plexus, cardiac. See *Cardiac plexus*.

Plexus, choroides. See *Choroid plexus*.

Plexus oesophageal. See *Oeſophageal*.

Plexus, pulmōnic. See *Pulmonic plexus*.

Plica polonĭca, (*Plica*, *æ*, f. from *plico*, to entangle. This diſeaſe is commonly diſtinguiſhed by the adjective *Polonica*, it being peculiar to the inhabitants of Poland and Lithuana). Trichoma. A diſeaſe of the hairs, in which they become long and coarſe, and matted and glued into inextricable tangles. It is peculiar to Poland and Tartary, and generally appears during the autumnal ſeaſon.

Plumbago, (*Plumbago*, *ĭnis*, f. from *plumbum*, lead; ſo called becauſe it is covered with lead coloured ſpots). Lead-wort. An ore of a ſhining blue black colour, a greaſy feel, and tuberculated when fractured. It is by many erroneouſly taken for molybdena, from which it is eaſily diſtinguiſhed by its fracture, that of the latter being always lamellated. See *Perſicaria*.

Plumbāgo europæa. The ſyſtematic name of the tooth-wort. See *Dentaria*.

Plumbum. See *Lead*.

Plumbum candĭdum. See *Stannum*.

Plum malabar. See *Malabar plum*.

Plums. Three ſorts of plums are ranked amongſt the articles of the materia medica; they are all met with in the gardens of the country, but the ſhops are ſupplied with them moderately dried, from abroad. 1. The *pruna brignolenſia*; the brignole plum, or prune, brought from Brignole in Provence; it is of a reddiſh yellow colour, and has a very grateful, ſweet, ſubacid taſte. 2. The *pruna gallica*; the common or French prune. 3. The *pruna damaſcena*, or damſon. See *Damſon*. All theſe fruits poſſeſs the ſame general qualities with the other ſummer fruits. The prunelloes, in which the ſweet-

neſs has a greater mixture of acidity than in the other ſorts, are uſed as mild refrigerants in fevers and other hot indiſpoſitions. The French prunes and damſons are the moſt emollient and laxative; they are often taken by themſelves to gently move the belly, where there is a tendency to inflammations. Decoctions of them afford a uſeful baſis for laxative or purgative mixtures, and the pulp in ſubſtance for electuaries.

Pneumatic apparatus. The diſcovery of aeriform fluids has, in modern chemiſtry, occaſioned the neceſſity of ſome peculiar inſtruments, by means of which thoſe ſubſtances may, in diſtillations, ſolutions, or other operations, be caught, collected, and properly managed. The proper inſtruments for this are ſtyled the pneumatic apparatus. Any kind of air is ſpecifically lighter than any liquid; and therefore, if not decompoſed by it, riſes through it in bubbles. On this principle reſts the eſſential part of the apparatus, adapted to ſuch operations. Its principal part is the pneumatic trough, which is a kind of reſervoir for the liquid, through which the gas is conveyed and cauſed to riſe, and is filled either with water or with quickſilver. Some inches below its brim an horizontal ſhelf is faſtened, in dimenſion about half or the third part of the trough, and provided on its foremoſt edge with a row of holes, into which, from underneath, ſhort-necked funnels are fixed. The trough is filled with water ſufficient to cover the ſhelf, to ſupport the receivers, which being previouſly filled with water or mercury, are placed invertedly, their open end turned down upon the above mentioned holes, through which afterwards the gaſes, conveyed there and directed by means of the funnels, riſe in the form of air-bubbles.

In ſome caſes the trough muſt be filled with quickſilver, becauſe water decompoſes ſome kinds of air by abſorbing their baſis. The price and ſpecific gravity of that metal make it neceſſary to give to the quickſilver trough ſmaller dimenſions. It is either cut in marble, or made of wood well joined. The late Karſten has contrived an apparatus, which, to the advantage of ſaving room, adds that of great convenience.

To diſengage gaſes, retorts of glaſs, either common or tubulated, are employed, and placed in a ſand-bath, or heated by the fire of a lamp. Earthen, or coated glaſs retorts, are put in the naked fire. If neceſſary, they are joined with a metallic or glaſs conveying pipe. When, beſides the aeriform, other fluids are to be collected, the middle or intermediate bottle finds its uſe; and to prevent, after cooling, the riſing of the water from the trough into the diſengaging veſſels, the tube of ſafety is employed. For the extrication of gaſes taking place in ſolutions, for which no external heat is required, the bottle called diſengaging bottle, or proof, may be uſed. For receivers, to collect the diſengaged airs, various cylinders of glaſs are uſed, whether graduated or not, either cloſed at one end, or open at both; and, in this laſt caſe, they are made air-tight by a ſtopper fitted by grinding. Beſides theſe, glaſs-bells and common bottles are employed.

To combine with water, in a commodious way, ſome gaſes that are only gradually and ſlowly abſorbed by it, the glaſs-apparatus of Parker is ſerviceable.

Pneumatocēle, (*Pneumatocele, es*, f. πνευματοκηλη; from πνευμα, wind, and κηλη, a tumour). Any ſpecies of hernia that is diſtended with flatus.

Pneumatōmphălus, (*Pneumatomphalus, i*, m. πνευματομφαλος; from

πνευμα, wind, and ομφαλος, the navel). A flatulent, umbilical hernia.

Pneumatōsis, (*Pneumatoſis, is*, f. πνευματωσις; from πνευματοω, to inflate). *Emphyſema*, or windy ſwelling. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ*, and order *intumeſcentiæ* of Cullen, known by a collection of air in the cellular texture under the ſkin, rendering it tenſe, elaſtic, and crepitating. The ſpecies of pneumatoſis are: 1. *Pneumatoſis ſpontanea*, without any manifeſt cauſe. 2. *Pneumatoſis traumatica*, from a wound. 3. *Pneumatoſis venenata*, from poiſons. 4. *Pneumatoſis hyſterica*, with hyſteria.

Pneumōnĭa, (*Pneumonia, æ*, f. πνευμονια, from πνευμων, a lung). Inflammation of the lungs. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen; characterized by pyrexia, difficult reſpiration, cough, and a ſenſe of weight and pain in the thorax. The ſpecies of pneumonia, according to the above noſologiſt, are, 1. *Peripneumonia*. The pulſe not always hard, but ſometimes ſoft: an obtuſe pain in the breaſt; the reſpiration always difficult; ſometimes the patient cannot breathe, unleſs in an upright poſture; the face ſwelled, and of a livid colour; the cough for the moſt part moiſt, frequently bloody. 2. *Pleuritis*. The pulſe hard; a pungent pain in one ſide, aggravated during the time of inſpiration; an uneaſineſs when lying on one ſide; a very painful cough, dry in the beginning of the diſeaſe, afterwards moiſt, and frequently bloody. See *Pleuritis*.

With reſpect to pneumonia, the moſt general cauſe of this inflammation, is the application of cold to the body, which gives a check to the perſpiration, and determines a great flow of blood to the lungs. It attacks principally thoſe of a robuſt conſtitution and plethoric habit, and occurs moſt frequently in the winter ſeaſon and ſpring of the year; but it may ariſe in either of the other ſeaſons, when there are ſudden viciſſitudes from heat to cold.

Other cauſes, ſuch as violent exertions in ſinging, ſpeaking, or playing on wind inſtruments, by producing an increaſed action of the lungs, have been known to occaſion peripneumony. Thoſe who have laboured under a former attack of this complaint, are much prediſpoſed to returns of it.

The true peripneumony comes on with an obtuſe pain in the cheſt or ſide, great difficulty of breathing, (particularly in a recumbent poſition, or when lying on the ſide affected) together with a cough, dryneſs of the ſkin, heat, anxiety, and thirſt. At the firſt commencement of the diſeaſe the pulſe is uſually full, ſtrong, hard, and frequent; but in a more advanced ſtage it is commonly weak, ſoft, and often irregular. In the beginning, the cough is frequently dry and without expectoration; but in ſome caſes it is moiſt even from the firſt, and the matter ſpit up is various both in colour and conſiſtence, and is often ſtreaked with blood.

If relief is not afforded in time, and the inflammation proceeds with ſuch violence as to endanger ſuffocation, the veſſels of the neck will become turgid and ſwelled; the face will alter to a purple colour; an effuſion of blood will take place into the cellular ſubſtance of the lungs, ſo as to impede the circulation through that organ, and the patient will ſoon be deprived of life.

If theſe violent ſymptoms do not ariſe, and the proper means for carrying off the inflammation have either been neglected, or have proved ineffectual, although adopted at an early period of the diſeaſe, a ſuppuration may enſue, which event is to be known by frequent ſlight ſhiverings,

and an abatement of the pain and ſenſe of fullneſs in the part, and by the patient not being able to lay on the ſide which was affected, without experiencing great uneaſineſs.

When peripneumony proves fatal, it is generally by an effuſion of blood taking place into the cellular texture of the lungs, ſo as to occaſion ſuffocation, which uſually happens between the third and ſeventh day; but it may likewiſe prove fatal, by terminating either in ſuppuration or gangrene.

When it goes off by reſolution, ſome very evident evacuation always attends it; ſuch as a great flow of urine, with a copious ſediment, diarrhæa, a ſweat diffuſed over the whole body, or a hæmorrhage from the noſe; but the evacuation which moſt frequently terminates the complaint, and which does it with the greateſt effect, is a free and copious expectoration of thick white or yellow matter, ſlightly ſtreaked with blood, and by this the diſeaſe is carried off generally in the courſe of ten or twelve days.

Our opinion as to the event, is to be drawn from the ſymptoms which are preſent. A high degree of fever, attended with delirium, great difficulty of breathing, acute pain, and dry cough, denote great danger: on the contrary, an abatement of the febrile ſymptoms, and of the difficulty of breathing, and pain, taking place on the coming on of a free expectoration, or the happening of any other critical evacuation, promiſes fair for the recovery of the patient. A termination of the inflammation in ſuppuration, is always to be conſidered as dangerous.

On diſſection, the lungs uſually appear inflamed, and there is often found an extravaſation, either of blood, or of coagulable lymph in their cellular ſubſtance. The ſame appearances likewiſe preſent themſelves in the cavity of the thorax and within the pericardium. The pleura, connected with the lungs, is alſo in an inflamed ſtate, having its ſurface every where crowded with red veſſels. Beſides theſe, abſceſſes are frequently found in the ſubſtance of the lungs, as likewiſe tubercles and adheſions to the ribs are formed. A quantity of purulent matter is often diſcovered alſo in the bronchiæ.

Podāgra, (*Podagra, æ*, f. ποδαγρα; from πους, the foot, and αγρα, a taking or ſeizure). The gout. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen; known by pyrexia, pain in the joints, chiefly of the great toe, and eſpecially the hands and feet, returning at intervals: previous to the attack, the functions of the ſtomach are commonly diſturbed. Species. 1. *Podagra regularis*, the regular gout. 2. *Podagra atonica*, the atonic gout. 3. *Podagra retrograda*, the retrocedent gout. 4. *Podagra aberrans*, miſplaced or wandering gout.

Poison. *Venenum*. That ſubſtance which when applied externally, or taken into the human body, uniformly effects ſuch a derangement in the animal œconomy as to produce diſeaſe, may be defined a poiſon. It is extremely difficult, however, to give a definition of a poiſon; and the above is ſubject to great inaccuracy. Poiſons are divided, with reſpect to the kingdom to which they belong, into animal, vegetable, mineral, and halituous poiſons, or vapours.

Poiſons are only deleterious in certain doſes; for the moſt active, in ſmall doſes, form the moſt valuable medicines. There are, nevertheleſs, certain poiſons, which are really ſuch in the ſmalleſt quantity, and which are never adminiſtered medicinally; as the poiſon of hydrophobia, the plague. There are likewiſe ſubſtances which

are innocent when taken into the ſtomach, but which prove deleterious when taken into the lungs, or when applied to an abraded ſurface; thus carbonic acid is continually ſwallowed with fermented liquors, and thus the poiſon of the viper may be taken with impunity; whilſt inſpiring carbonic acid kills, and the poiſon of the viper inſerted into the fleſh, often proves fatal.

Several ſubſtances alſo act as poiſons when applied either externally or internally, as arſenic.

When a ſubſtance produces diſeaſe not only in mankind but in all animals, it is diſtinguiſhed by the term *common poiſon*, as arſenic, ſublimate, &c. whilſt that which is poiſonous to man only, or to animals, and often to one genus, is ſaid to be a *relative poiſon*; thus aloes are poiſonous to dogs and wolves; the phellandrium aquaticum kills horſes, whilſt oxen devour it greedily, and with impunity. It appears, then, that ſubſtances act as poiſons only in regard to their *doſe, the part of the body they are applied to*, and the *ſubject*.

Poiſons may enter the body in the following ways:

1. Through the œſophagus with the food.
2. Through the anus with glyſters.
3. Through the noſtrils with odorous ſubſtances.
4. Through the lungs with the air.
5. Through the abſorbents of the ſkin, either whole, ulcerated, cut, or torn.

In regard to the nature of their *conſtituent principles*, they are divided into

1. *Acrid poiſons*, as draſtic and corroſive vegetables; acid, alkaline, metallic, and acido-metallic minerals; deleterious and necrotic animals.
2. *Narcotic*, as certain vegetables.
3. *Narcotico-acrid*, which kill with both principles.
4. *Halituous*, which ſuffocate by a noxious vapour.
5. *Mechanical poiſons*, which act by their mechanical power.

In regard of the ſymptoms which are produced by poiſons, they are divided into

1. *Inflammatory*, which induce inflammation and gangrene.
2. *Draſtic*, which operate by purging and vomiting.
3. *Convulſive*, which excite ſpaſms and convulſions.
4. *Paralytic*, which induce palſy of the extremities and heart; as lead preparations, the lauro-ceraſus, &c.
5. *Narcotic*, which cauſe coma, amauroſis, and delirium.
6. *Suffocative*, which ſuffocate by a mephitic vapour.
7. *Exſiccant*, which bring on tabes; as lead preparations.
8. *Septic*, which induce a tendency to putridity in the blood, and gangrene.

A table of the ANIMALS *which are conſidered as poiſonous.*

AMERICAN SNAKES.

1. *Crotalus horridus.*

Its antidote is the radix ſeneka, volatile alkali, and common ſalt.

2. *Crotalus miliaris.*
3. *Crotalus dryinus.*
4. *Crotalus duriſſus.*
5. *Crotalus mutus.*
6. *Crotalus atropos.*
7. *Coluber heberis.*
8. *Coluber dipſas.*
9. *Coluber myſtericans.*
10. *Coluber lacteus.*

The antidote to all theſe are the ſeneka root, volatile alkali, and common ſalt.

ASIATIC SERPENTS.

11. *Coluber naga.*

12. *Coluber ſeverus.*
13. *Coluber ſtolatus.*
14. *Coluber atrox.*
15. *Coluber corallinus.*
16. *Coluber ammodytes.*
17. *Coluber lebetinus.*

The antidote to all theſe is the radix mungos internally, with the general cauſtic applications, extirpation, &c.

African serpents.

18. *Coluber vipera.*
19. *Coluber niveus.*
20. *Coluber haje.*

Cauſtic application, extirpation, &c. are generally adopted.

European serpents.

21. *Coluber berus.*

The leaves of the fraxinus, eau de luce, &c. are applied to the bite of this ſerpent.

22. *Coluber preſtor.*

Its antidote is olive oil.

23. *Coluber cherſea.*

Scarification, cupping glaſſes, and Spaniſh flies powdered, are applied to the bite.

24. *Coluber aſpis.*

Volatile alkali is here moſt efficacious, both internally and externally.

25. *Coluber illyricus.*

The radix gentiana, with mercury, are given internally.

Poisonous insects.

1. *Furia infernalis.*

Extirpation.

2. *Meloe veſicatorius.*

When Spaniſh flies are ſwallowed in too large a doſe, emetics, purgatives, and mucilaginous and oily drinks, are given.

3. *Meloe majalis.*
4. *Meloe proſcarabæus.*

The ſame antidote as the Spaniſh fly.

5. *Scorpio Africanus.*

Its antidote is the application of oil.

6. *Phalangium araneodes.*

Treacle is applied with ſucceſs.

7. *Culex lanio.*
8. *Sirexigas.*

The antidote to theſe are oily applications.

9. *Bupreſtris.*

Theſe inſects, when ſwallowed, kill, unleſs oil and vomits are given.

10. *Aranea domeſtica.*
11. *Aranea tarantula.*

Applications of volatile alkali are moſt efficacious.

12. *Pulex Americanus.*

This very ſmall inſect penetrates the cuticle, and requires extirpation.

13. *Culex pipeas.*
14. *Culex pulicaris.*

Volatile alkali allays the ſwelling produced by theſe inſects.

15. *Apis mellifica.*
16. *Veſpa vulgaris.*
17. *Veſpa crabo.*

Cold water with vinegar or ſugar of lead, allay the miſchief they create.

Poisonous worms.

1. *Gordius medenenſis.*

This ſingular worm muſt be gradually twiſted round any ſubſtance, and thus drawn out from underneath the ſkin.

2. *Gordius marinus.*

The internal uſe of antiſcorbutics: this worm producing a ſpecies of leproſy.

3. *Hirudo venenatus.*

When this leach is ſwallowed, ſalt and water, and oil, muſt be taken to kill it.

4. *Tethys marina.*
5. *Urtica marina.*

Cold water and volatile alkali ſhould be applied.

Amphibious poisonous animals.

1. *Rana bufo.*

2. *Lacerta agilis.*
3. *Lacerta ſalamandra.*

Volatile alkaline applications, with cold water, are applied with advantage.

Poisonous fishes.

1. *Tetradon ſcellatus.*
2. *Tetradon lineatus.*
3. *Trachinus draco.*
4. *Perca venenoſa.*

Vomits and acid of lemon are to be exhibited againſt theſe.

5. *Raja paſtinaca.*

This produces a wound very difficult of cure.

6. *Raja torpedo.*

The touch of this fiſh produces a paralytic affection of the arm for ſome little time.

7. *Gumnotus electricus.*

This ſtrikes the part which touches it like a ſhock of electricity.

8. *Sparus pagurus.*

Emetics and acids are to be given when this is ſwallowed,

Other animal poisons.

1. *Mytillus edulis.*
2. *Oſtrea venenata.*
3. *Ovum putridum.*
4. *Pinguedo rancida.*
5. *Animal putridum.*

Vomits are firſt to be given, then aromatics.

6. *Miaſma luis bovillæ.*

The puſtules and ulcers from the cow pox are cured by purgatives and deterſive applications.

7. *Virus rabiorum.*

When hydrophobia is induced, no remedy has hitherto been found efficacious. Extirpation, immediately after the wound is inflicted, is the only certain prophylaxis.

8. *Virus varioloſum.*
9. *Virus morbilloſum.*
10. *Virus ſcarlatinum.*
11. *Virus ſcabioſum.*
12. *Virus venereum.*
13. *Virus plicoſum.*
14. *Virus cancroſum.*
15. *Virus leproſum.*
16. *Virus peſtilentiale.*

All theſe are conſidered under the medicinal treatment of ſmall pox, meaſles, ſcarlatina, &c.

A table of the Vegetables *which are conſidered as poiſons.*

Narcotic poisonous vegetables.

1. *Papaver ſomniferum.*

Vomits, acids, and the other antinarcotics mentioned at the end of this table, are the antidotes.

2. *Opium.*

This requires the ſame antidotes.

3. *Phyſalis ſomnifera.*
4. *Solanum lycoperſicum.*
5. *Solanum mammoſum.*
6. *Solanum inſanum.*
7. *Solanum dulcamara.*
8. *Solanum nigrum.*
9. *Atropa mandragora.*
10. *Datura ſtramonium.*
11. *Datura metel.*
12. *Datura ferox.*
13. *Datura tatula.*
14. *Hyoſciamus niger.*

The antidotes are firſt vomits, which alſo purge, then vinegar and oil.

15. *Hyoſciamus albus.*
16. *Hyoſciamus phyſalodes.*
17. *Hyoſciamus ſcopolia.*
18. *Azalea pontica.*
19. *Antirrhinum orontium.*
20. *Actæa ſpicata.*
21. *Lolium temulentum.*
22. *Ervum ervilja.*
23. *Lathyrus cicera.*
24. *Peganum harmela.*
25. *Chenopodium hybridum.*
26. *Cheledonium glaucium.*

27. *Taxus baccata.*
28. *Lactuca virosa.*
29. *Lactuca scariola.*
30. *Paris quadrifolia.*
31. *Prunus lauro-cerasus.*

Against all these narcotics are recommended, after vomiting,

1. *Acids*; as vinegar, lemon juice, spirits of vitriol diluted.
2. A very strong infusion of *Turkey coffee.*
3. Small doses of *ipecacuan*, to promote a powerful sweating.
4. *Glysters* of vinegar, or soap dissolved.
5. *Blisters* to the neck.
6. *Wine.*
7. Alkaline salts and borax.

Narcotic and acrid vegetable poisons.

1. *Hippomane mancinella.*

An emetic and purge, then milk and rice broth.

2. *Hippomane biglandulosa.*
3. *Cocculus indicus.*
4. *Coriaria myrtifolia.*
5. *Strychnos nux vomica.*
6. *Strychnos colubrina.*
7. *Ignatia amara.*
8. *Nerium oleander.*
9. *Atropa belladonna.*
10. *Nicotiana tabacum.*
11. *Nicotiana rustica.*
12. *Nicotiana paniculata.*
14. *Nicotiana glutinosa.*
15. *Bryonia alba.*
16. *Chærophyllum sylvestre.*
17. *Chærophyllum bulbosum.*
18. *Chærophyllum temulentum.*
19. *Œthusa cynapium.*
20. *Sium latifolium.*
21. *Cicuta virosa.*
22. *Conium maculatum.*
23. *Mercurialis perennis.*

Poisonous funguses.

1. *Agaricus muscarius.*
2. *Agaricus integer venenatus, Krapfii.*
3. *Agaricus integer viscidus, Krapfii.*
4. *Agaricus lactifluus venenatus, Krapfii.*
5. *Agaricus piperatus.*
6. *Agaricus fimetarius.*
7. *Agaricus pustulatus.*
8. *Agaricus necator.*
9. *Agaricus sanguineus.*
10. *Agaricus viscidus.*
11. *Agaricus clypeatus.*
12. *Boletus versicolor.*
13. *Boletus elegans.*
14. *Boleti parasitica.*
15. *Phallus impudicus.*
16. *Phallus mukusin.*
17. *Lycoperdon carcinomalis.*
18. And several others not yet scientifically named.

Acrid vegetable Poisons.

1. *Delphinia staphisagria.*
2. *Veratrum sabadillæ.*
3. *Rhododendron crysanthium.*
4. *Fritillaria imperialis.*
5. *Colchicum autumnale.*
6. *Pedicularis palustris.*
7. *Digitalis purpurea.*
8. *Cyclamen europæum.*
9. *Plumbago europæa.*
10. *Convolvulus scammonium.*
11. *Cucumis colocynthis.*
12. *Momordica elaterium.*
13. *Gambogia gutta.*
14. *Cerbera ahovai.*
15. *Cerbera manghas.*
16. *Cynanchum erectum.*
17. *Lobelia syphilitica.*
18. *Lobelia longifolia.*
19. *Cynanchum vimiale.*
20. *Apocynum androsemifolium.*
21. *Apocinum cannubinum.*
22. *Apocynum venetum.*
23. *Asclepias gigantea.*
24. *Hydrocotale vulgaris.*
25. *Œnanthe fistulosa.*
26. *Œnanthe crocata.*
27. *Scandix infesta.*
28. *Thapsia fœtida.*
29. *Alisma plantago aquatica.*

30. *Clematis vitalba.*
31. *Clematis flammula.*
32. *Clematis recta.*
33. *Clematis integrifolia.*
34. *Anemone palmata.*
35. *Anemone pulsatilla.*
36. *Anemone pratensis.*
37. *Anemone narcissiflora.*
38. *Anemone nemerosa.*
39. *Anemone ranunculoides.*
40. *Veratrum album.*
41. *Helleborus niger.*
42. *Helleborus fœtidus.*
43. *Veratrum nigrum.*
44. *Caltha palustris.*
45. *Aconitum napellus.*
46. *Aconitum cammarum.*
47. *Aconitum lycoctonum.*
48. *Aconitum athora.*
49. *Pastinaca sativa annosa.*
50. *Poligonum hydropiper.*
51. *Sælanthus quadragonus.*
52. *Sælanthus forskalli.*
53. *Sælanthus glandulosus.*
54. *Jatropha curcas.*
55. *Jatropha multifida.*
56. *Jatropha manihot.*
57. *Ricinus communis.*
58. *Phytolacca decandra.*
59. *Croton tiglium.*
60. *Daphne mezereum.*
61. *Daphne thymelæa.*
62. *Daphne laureola.*
63. *Daphne cneorum.*
64. *Daphne gnidium.*
65. *Cneorum tricoccum.*
66. *Amyris toxifera.*
67. *Rhus vernix.*
68. *Rhus radicans.*
69. *Rhus toxicodendron.*
70. *Scilla maritima.*
71. *Excoecaria agallocha.*
72. *Anacardium orientale.*
73. *Anacardium occidentale.*
74. *Caryota urens.*
75. *Arum maculatum.*
76. *Arum dracunculus.*
77. *Arum dracontuum.*
78. *Arum colocasia.*
79. *Arum esculentum.*
80. *Arum virginicum.*
81. *Arum arborescens.*
82. *Arum seguinum.*
83. *Calla palustris.*
84. *Euphorbia officinarum.*
85. *Euphorbia antiquorum.*
86. *Euphorbia canariensis.*
87. *Euphorbia tirucalli.*
88. *Euphorbia peplus.*
89. *Euphorbia lathryris.*
90. *Euphorbia helioscopia.*
91. *Euphorbia verrucosa.*
92. *Euphorbia platyphyllos.*
93. *Euphorbia esula.*
94. *Euphorbia cyparissias.*
95. *Euphorbia hiberna.*
96. *Euphorbia characias.*
97. *Euphorbia amygdaloides.*
98. *Euphorbia sylvatica.*
99. *Euphorbia exigua acuta.*
100. *Euphorbia mauritanica.*
101. *Euphorbia nerifolia.*
102. *Ranunculus acris.*
103. *Ranunculus sceleratus.*
104. *Ranunculus flamula.*
105. *Ranunculus bulbosus.*
106. *Ranunculus ficaria.*
107. *Ranunculus thora.*
108. *Ranunculus arvensis.*
109. *Ranunculus lingua.*
110. *Ranunculus alpestres.*
111. *Ranunculus polyanthemos.*
112. *Ranunculus illyricus.*
113. *Ranunculus gramineus.*
114. *Ranunculus asiaticus.*
115. *Ranunculus aquatilis.*
116. *Ranunculus platanifolius.*
117. *Ranunculus breynius.*
118. *Ranunculus sardous.*
119. *Rhaphanus rhaphanistrum.*
120. *Secale cornutum.* Its antidote is milk.

The usual and most approved antidotes to all these are, after vomiting and purging, emollient substances; as panada, with butter, and wine and cordials to support the strength.

GLUTINOUS VEGETABLE POISONS.

1. *Ilex aquifolium.*
2. *Viscum album.*
3. *Rosa canina.*

A Table of the MINERAL *Subſtances which are conſidered as poiſonous.*

MECHANICAL MINERAL POISONS.

1. *Vitrum contuſum.*
2. *Smalta.*
3. *Gemma adamas.*
4. *Amianthus plumoſus.*
5. *Cuprum lapis lazuli.*
6. *Fuligo caminorum.*

Mucilaginous ſubſtances, with oil or butter, are found to be moſt ſerviceable againſt theſe.

POISONOUS EARTHS COMMONLY SO TERMED.

1. *Gypſum.*
2. *Selenites.*
3. *Nitrum cryſtallus montana.*

Mucilaginous and oily ſubſtances, with abſorbent earth, are given to obviate the ſymptoms ariſing from theſe.

POISONOUS ACIDS.

1. *Acidum ſulphuricum.*
2. *Acidum muriaticum.*
3. *Acidum nitricum.*
4. *Acidum nitroſum.*
5. *Aqua regia.*
6. *Zincum vitriolatum.*
7. *Cuprum vitriolatum.*
8. *Ferrum vitriolatum.*

Alkalis and oily medicines only are ſerviceable, and antiphlogiſtics.

ALKALINE POISONS.

1. *Kali purum.*
2. *Soda pura.*
3. *Aquæ ammoniæ puræ.*
4. *Lapis cauſticus.*
5. *Aqua kali puri.*
6. *Calx pura.*

Diluted acids are to be given immediately, then oily and mucilaginous ſubſtances.

METALLIC POISONS.

1. *Aurum fulminals.*
2. *Preparata argenti.*
3. *Preparata biſmuthi.*
4. *Preparata cupri.*
5. *Preparata plumbi.*
6. *Preparata ſtanni.*

Alkaline ſalts, vomiting after; with milk and oily foods.

MERCURIAL POISONS.

1. *Hydrargyrus muriatus.*
2. *Calomel as impurus.*
3. *Hydrargyrus muriatus mitis.*
4. *Calx hydrargyri alba.*
5. *Hydrargyrus nitratus ruber.*
6. *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus.*

Alkaline ſalts are recommended as the beſt antidotes againſt mercurial poiſons.

ANTIMONIAL POISONS.

1. *Antimonium.*
2. *Antimonium ſublimatum.*
3. *Antimonium muriatum.*
4. *Vitrum antimonii.*
5. *Crocos antimonii.*
6. *Antimonium tartariſatum.*
7. *Mercurius vitæ.*
8. *Hepar antimonii.*
9. *Sulphur antimonii præcipitatum.*

Oily and mucilaginous ſubſtances, with cordials, and then opium, allay the violent vomiting and purging uſually produced by antimonial preparations.

ARSENICAL POISONS.

1. *Arſenicum album.*
2. *Arſenicum flavum.*
3. *Arſenicum rubrum.*
4. *Auripigmentum.*
5. *Arſenicum.*
6. *Arſenicum poroſum.*
7. *Cobaltum arſenicale.*

The hepar ſulphuris is found the beſt antidote againſt arſenical preparations.

A Table of the MEPHITIC VAPOURS *usually considered as poisonous.*

POISONOUS MINERAL ACID VAPOURS.

1. *Halitus sulphuris accensi.*
2. *Gaz acidi sulphurici.*
3. *Gaz acidi muriatici.*
4. *Gaz acidi nitrosi.*
5. *Gaz acidum carbonicum.*
   a. In the *Grotto del Cano*, &c.
   b. From *fermenting liquors.*
   c. From *fermenting dough.*
   d. From the *waters of Pyrmont*, &c.
   e. From the *burning of lime.*
   f. From the *burning of bricks*, &c.

Pure air thrown into the lungs through a tube introduced into the trachea; stimulating volatile applitions thrown into the stomach, and tobacco glysters, are recommended.

POISONOUS ALKALINE VAPOURS.

1. *Alkali volatile*, from putrid urine, &c.

PUTRID VAPOURS.

1. From dead putrifying animals.
2. From dead putrifying vegetables.
3. Air corrupted by breathing.
4. Air corrupted by animal perspiration.

The best antidotes is pure air.

POLEY-MOUNTAIN. See *Polium creticum*, and *Polium montanum.*

POLĬUM, (*Polium, i*, n. πολιον, from πολιος, white; so called from its white capillaments). Poley.

POLĬUM CRETĬCUM. Candy poley-mountain. *Teucrium creticum* of Linnæus. The tops and whole herb enter the antiquated compounds *mithridate* and *theriaca.* The plant is obtained from the island of Candy; has a moderately aromatic smell, and a nauseous bitter taste. It is placed amongst the aperients and corroborants.

POLĬUM MONTĀNUM. Poley-mountain of Montpellier. This plant, *Teucrium capitatum* of Linnæus, bears the winter of our climate, and is generally substituted for the candy species.

POLLEX, (*Pollex, icis*, m.). The thumb, or great toe.

POLYDIPSĬA, (*Polydipsia, æ*, f. πολυδιψια, from πολυ, much, and διψη, thirst). Excessive thirst. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysorexiæ* of Cullen. It is mostly symptomatic of fever, dropsy, excessive discharges, or poisons.

POLŸGĂLA, (*Polygala, æ*, f. πολυγαλα, from πολυς, much, and γαλα, milk, so named from its abundance of milky juice). *Polygalon.* Common milk wort. The root of this plant, *Polygala vulgaris* of Linnæus, is somewhat similar in taste to that of the seneka, but much weaker. The leaves are very bitter, and a handful of them infused in wine is said to be a safe and gentle purge.

POLŸGĂLA AMĀRA. This is a remarkably bitter plant, and though not used in this country, promises to be as efficacious as those in greater repute. It has been given freely in phthisis pulmonalis, and, like other remedies, failed in producing a cure: yet, as a palliative, it claims attention. Its virtues are balsamic, demulcent, and corroborant.

POLŸGĂLA SENĔGA. The systematic name of the rattlesnake milk wort. See *Seneka.*

POLŸGĂLA VULGĀRIS. The systematic name of the common milk wort. See *Polygala.*

POLŸGŎNUM, (*Poliygonum, i*, n. πολυγονον, from πολυ, many, and γονυ, a joint; so named from its numerous joints). Knot grass.

POLŸGŎNUM AVICŬLĀRE. The systematic name of the knot-grass. See *Centumnodia.*

POLŸGŎNUM BISTORTA. The systematic name of the officinal bistort. See *Bistorta.*

POLŸGŎNUM DIVARĬCĀTUM. The ſyſtematic name of the eaſtern buck-wheat plant. See *Buck-wheat, eaſtern.*

POLŸGŎNUM FAGOPŸRUM. The ſyſtematic name of the buck-wheat. See *Buck-wheat.*

POLŸGŎNUM HYDRŎPĬPER. The ſyſtematic name of the poor man's pepper. See *Hydropiper.*

POLŸGŎNUM PERSĬCARĬA. The ſyſtematic name of arſmart. See *Perſicaria.*

POLŸTRĬCHUM COMMŪNE, (*Polytrichum*, or *on*, *i*, n. πολυτριχον, from πολυ, many, and θριξ, hair; ſo called from its reſemblance to a woman's hair, or becauſe, in ancient times, women uſed to dye the hair with it, to keep it from ſhedding). The ſyſtematic name of the golden maidenhair. See *Adianthum aureum.*

POLŸPODĬUM, (*Polypodium*, *i*, n. πολυποδιον, from πολυς, many, and πους, a foot; ſo called from its numerous ramifications, which reſemble the polypus). Common polypody. Polypody of the oak. *Polypodium vulgare* of Linnæus. The leaves of polypody have a weak ungrateful ſmell, and a nauſeous ſweet taſte, leaving a kind of roughneſs and ſlight acrimony in the mouth. They give out their ſmell and taſte, together with a yellow colour, both to water and rectified ſpirit. The ſpirituous tincture is ſweeter than the watery; but in inſpiſſation its ſweetneſs is in great part deſtroyed, or covered by the other matter; the ſpirituous extract, as Cartheuſer obſerves, being to the taſte only ſubadſtringent and ſubacrid, with very little ſweetneſs, while the watery extract retains the full ſweetneſs of the polypody.

The root of the *polypodium quercinum*, or thoſe that grow on the oak, has been moſt eſteemed for medicinal uſe, though no juſt reaſon can be aſſigned for this preference. By the antients it was employed as a purgative, and thought to be peculiarly uſeful in expelling bile and pituitous humours, therefore much uſed in maniacal and melancholical diſorders; but, to act as a cathartic, the root muſt be exhibited in its recent ſtate, and in a large doſe. Another character in which it has been recommended, and for which, from its ſenſible qualities, it ſeems to promiſe more advantage, is that of a demulcent or pectoral; thus, joined with liquorice, its good effects have been experienced in coughs and aſthmatic affections. However, it is now rarely uſed in this country, nor have the French authors, Poiſſoner and Malouin, who have cited inſtances of its ſucceſs in mania, been able to reſtore to it its antient reputation in this calamitous diſorder.

POLŸPODĬUM FILIX MAS. The ſyſtematic name of the male fern. See *Filix mas.*

POLŸPODĬUM VULGĀRE. The ſyſtematic name of the common polypody. See *Polypodium.*

POLYPODY., See *Polypodium.*

POLYPODY, MALE. See *Filix mas.*

POLŸPUS, (*Polypus*, *i*, vel *podis*, m. πολυπους, from πολυς, many, and πους, a foot, from its ſending off many ramifications like legs). This term is generally given to a ſarcomatous ſubſtance, that frequently ariſes in the noſtrils, uterus, &c. from its having many attachments or roots. They vary from each other according to the different cauſes that produced them, and the alterations that happen in them. Sometimes a polypus is owing to a ſwelling of the pituitary membrane, which ſwelling may poſſeſs a greater or leſs ſpace of the membrane, as alſo its cellular ſubſtance, and may affect either one or both noſtrils. At other times it ariſes from an ulcer produced by a caries of ſome of the bones which form the internal ſurface of the noſtrils. Polypuſes are ſometimes ſo

ſoft, that upon the leaſt touch they are lacerated, and bleed; at other times they are very compact, and even ſcirrhous. Some continue ſmall a great while; others increaſe ſo faſt as in a ſhort time to puſh out at the noſtrils, or extend backwards towards the throat. Le Dran mentions, that he has known them fill up the ſpace behind the uvula, and turning towards the mouth, have protruded the fleſhy arch of the palate ſo far forwards as to made it parallel with the third *dentes molares*. There are others which, though at firſt free from any malignant diſpoſition, become afterwards carcinomatous, and even highly cancerous. Of whatever nature the polypus is, it intercepts the paſſage of the air through the noſtril, and, when large, forces the *ſeptum narium* into the other noſtril, ſo that the patient is unable to breathe, unleſs through the mouth. A large *polypus* preſſing in like manner upon the ſpongy bones, gradually forces them down upon the maxillary bones, and thus compreſſes and ſtops up the orifice of the *ductus lachrymalis*; nor is it impoſſible for the ſides of the *canalis naſalis* to be preſſed together. In which caſe, the tears having no paſſage through the noſe, the eye is kept conſtantly watering, and the *ſaccus lachrymalis* not being able to diſcharge its contents, is ſometimes ſo much dilated, as to form what is called a flat *fiſtula*. The above writer has ſeen inſtances of polypuſes ſo much enlarged as to force down the oſſa palati.

The coagulable ſubſtance which is found in the cavities of the heart of thoſe who are ſome time *in articulo mortis*, is improperly called a polypus.

Polysarchĭa, (*Polyſarchia*, *æ*, f. πολυσαρκια, from πολυς, much, and σαρξ, fleſh). Troubleſome corpulency or fatneſs. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ* and order *intumeſcentiæ* of Cullen.

Poma, (*Pomum*, *i*, n. pl. *poma*). See *Apples*.

Pomegranate. See *Granatum*.

Pompholyx, (*Pompholyx*, *ўgis*, f. πομφολυξ, from πομφος, a bladder). See *Tutia*.

Pomum adāmi, (*Pomum*, *i*, n. an apple; ſo called becauſe it was thought to have originated in conſequence of Adam having eaten the forbidden fruit). The protuberance in the anterior part of the neck, formed by the fore part of the thyroid cartilage.

Pons varolĭi. *Corpus annulare. Proceſſus annularis. Eminentia annularis.* Varolius's bridge. An eminence of the medulla oblongata, firſt deſcribed by Varolius. It is formed by the two exterior crura of the cerebellum becoming flattened and paſſing over the crura of the cerebrum.

Poorman's pepper. See *Lepedium*.

Poplar. See *Populus*.

Poples, (*Poples*, *ĭtis*, m.). The ham, or joint of the knee.

Popliteal artery, (*Arteria poplitea*, from *poples*, the ham). The continuation of the crural artery, through the hollow of the ham.

Poplitēus, (*Popliteus muſculus*, from *poples*, the ham).

Poppy, red corn. See *Papaver erraticum*.

Poppy, white. See *Papaver album*.

Pōpŭlus, (*Populus*, *i*, f. from πολυς, many, becauſe of the multitude of its ſhoots). Of this tree, *Populus nigra* of Linnæus, the black poplar, the young buds, *oculi*, or rudiments of the leaves, which appear in the beginning of the ſpring, were formerly employed in an officinal ointment. At preſent they are almoſt entirely diſregarded, though they ſhould ſeem, from their ſenſible qualities, to be applicable to purpoſes of ſome importance. They have a

yellow, unctuous, odorous, balsamic juice.

Pŏpŭlus balsămifera. See *Tacamahacus*.

Pŏpŭlus nigra, The systematic name of the black poplar. See *Populus*.

Pori biliarii. The biliary pores or ducts, that receive the bile from the penicilli of the liver, and convey it to the hepatic duct.

Porrīgo, (*Porrigo, gĭnis*, f. *a porrigendo*, from its spreading abroad). A disease very common among children, in which the skin of the hairy part of the head becomes dry and callous, and comes off like bran upon combing the head.

Porrum, (*Porrum, i*, n.). The common leek. *Allium porrum* of Linnæus. Every part of this plant, but more particularly the root, abounds with a peculiar odour. The expressed juice possesses diuretic qualities, and is given in the cure of dropsical diseases, and calculous complaints.

Porta, (*Porta, æ*, f. *a portando*, because through it the blood is carried to the liver). That part of the liver where its vessels enter.

Portæ vena. See *Vena portæ*.

Portĭo dura, (*Portio, onis*, f.). One branch of the seventh pair of nerves is called *portio dura*, the hard portion, either from its being more firm than the other, or because it runs into the hard part of the skull; and the other the *portio mollis*, or soft portion). Facial nerve. This nerve arises near the pons from the crus of the brain, enters the petrous portion of the temporal bone, gives off a branch into the tympanum, which is called the chorda tympani, and then proceeds to form the *pes anserinus* on the face, from whence the integuments of the face are supplied with nerves. See *Facial nerve*.

Portĭo mollis. Auditory nerve. This nerve arises from the medulla oblongata and fourth ventricle of the brain, enters the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and is distributed, by innumerable branches, not only to the cochlea, but also to the membrane lining the vestibulum and semicircular canals, and is the immediate organ of hearing.

Portulāca, (*Portulaca, æ*, f. from *porto*, to carry, and *lac*, milk; because it increases the animal milk). Purslane. The plant which is so called in dietical and medical writings, is the *Portulaca oleracea* of Linnæus; it abounds with a watery and somewhat acid juice, and is often put into soups, or pickled with spices. It is said to be antiseptic and aperient.

Portulāca oleracĕa. The systematic name of the eatable purslane. See *Portulaca*.

Posterĭor annulāris, (*Musculus posterior annularis*). An external interosseal muscle of the hand, that extends and draws the ring finger inwards.

Posterĭor indĭcis, (*Musculus posterior indicis*). An internal interosseal muscle of the hand, that extends the fore finger obliquely, and draws it outwards.

Posterĭor medĭi. An external interosseal muscle of the hand, that extends the middle finger, and draws it outwards.

Pot-ash, (*Potassa, æ*, f.). *Kali* of the pharmocœias. This alkali may be extracted from various substances; and it is more or less pure according as it is afforded by one substance or another. Several varieties are made in commerce, to which different names have been affixed, and which are indispensably necessary to be known. The chemist may, indeed, confound all these distinctions, in his writings, under one single denomination; but the distinctions established by the artists, are founded upon a series of experiments, which have proved that the virtues of these several alkalis are very different; and

this conſtant variety in their effects, appears to juſtify the various denominations aſſigned to them.

1. The alkali extracted from the lixivium of wood aſhes, is known by the name of ſalin. The ſalin calcined, and by this means diſengaged from all the blackening principles, forms pot-aſh.

The aſhes are more or leſs rich in alkali, according to the nature of the wood which affords them. In general, hard woods contain the moſt. The aſhes of beech afford from 11 o 13 lb. per quintal, according to the experiments which have been made, n the large way, at St. Saveur; hoſe of box afforded from 12 to 4 lb. The tables drawn up by the everal adminiſtrators of the gunpowder and ſaltpetre manufactories nay be conſulted, reſpecting the quantity of alkali afforded by the combuſtion of ſeveral plants; they uſed 4000 lb. of each in their various xperiments.

To extract this alkali, nothing more is neceſſary than to waſh the aſhes, and to concentate the diſſolution in boilers of caſt iron. It is on account of the alkali that wood aſhes re employed in the lixiviums uſed by aundreſſes or bleachers. The uſe of lkali in this caſe, is to combine with he fat ſubſtances, and to render them oluble in water.

Almoſt all the pot-aſh ſold in commerce for the uſe of our glaſs-houſes, ur ſoap-makers, our bleaching-rounds, &c. is fabricated in the orth, where the abundance of wood dmits of its being applied to this ngle purpoſe. Works of this kind ight be eſtabliſhed to ſufficient adantage in the foreſts of other kingoms; but there is more to be done han is generally ſuppoſed, before he inhabitants of the mountains can e turned towards this ſpecies of inuſtry. Monſ. Chaptal has experienced this difficulty in the attempts; and very conſiderable ſacrifices have been made by him, to ſecure this reſource in the neighbourhood of Laigoual and Leſperou. The accurate calculations which he made, have nevertheleſs proved, that the pot-aſh would coſt only from 15 to 17 livres the quintal, whereas they are purchaſed from the north at 30 or 40 livres.

2d, The lees of wine is almoſt totally converted into alkali by combuſtion. This alkali is called *cendres gravelées*; it has almoſt always a greeniſh colour. This alkali is conſidered as very pure.

3d, The combuſtion of tartar of wine likewiſe affords an alkali of conſiderable purity. It is uſually burned wrapped up in paper, in ſmall packets, which are dipped in water, and afterwards expoſed upon burning coals. In order to purify it, the reſidue of the combuſtion is diſſolved in water, the ſolution concentrated by fire, the foreign ſalts ſeparated in proportion as they precipitate, and a very pure alkali is at laſt obtained, which is known by the name of *ſalt of tartar*. To procure ſalt of tartar more ſpeedily, as well as more economically, I burn a mixture of equal parts of nitrate of pot-aſh, or common nitre, and tartar. The reſidue, after lixiviation, affords a beautiful ſalt of tartar. Salt of tartar is the alkali moſt commonly employed in medical uſes; it is given in the doſe of ſeveral grains.

4th, If ſaltpetre be fuſed upon charcoal, the acid is decompoſed and diſſipated, while the alkali remains alone and diſengaged; this is called extemporaneous alkali.

When the vegetable alkali has been brought to the greateſt ſtate of purity, it attracts the humidity of the air, and is reſolved into a liquor. In this ſtate it is known by the very improper name of *Oil of tartar per deliquium*.

POTASSA. See *Pot-aſh*.

POTATOE, COMMON. The root of the *Solanum tuberoſum* of Linnæus.

A native of Peru. An extremely nutritious and wholesome vegetable.

Potatoe, spanish. The root of the *Convolvulus batatas* of Linnæus. It is a native of the Indies. It is firm, and of a pale brown on the outside; white within; and very sweet, like chesnuts, and the only esculent root of the genus convolvulus.

Potentilla, (*Potentilla, æ*, f. *a potentia*, from its efficacy). Wild tansy. *Argentina. Anserina.* The leaves of this plant, *Potentilla anserina* of Linnæus, possess mildly adstringent and corroborant qualities; but are seldom used, except by the lower orders.

Potentilla anserina. The systematic name of the silver-weed, or wild tansy. See *Potentilla.*

Potentilla reptans. The systematic name of the common cinquefoil. See *Pentaphyllum.*

Poterium sanguisorba. The systematic name of the Burnet saxifrage, the leaves of which are often put into cool tankards; they have an adstringent quality.

Pouparts ligament. *Ligamentum Poupartii.* Fallopian ligament. Inguinal ligament. A strong ligament, or rather a tendinous expansion of the external oblique muscle, going across from the inferior and anterior spinous process of the ilium, to the crista of the os pubis. It is under this ligament, the femoral vessels pass; and when the intestine or omentum passes underneath it, the disease is called a femoral hernia.

Power, muscular. See *Irritability* and *Muscular motion.*

Power, tonic. See *Irritability.*

Præcipitate red. See *Hydrargyrus nitratus ruber.*

Præcipitate white. See *Calx hydrargyri alba.*

Præcordĭa, (*Præcordia, orum*, n. pl. from *præ*, before, and *καρδια*, the heart). The fore part of the region of the thorax.

Præpuce. *Preputium.* The membranous cutaneous fold that covers the glans penis and clitoris.

Præputĭum, (*Præputium, i*, n. from *præputo*, to cut off before, because some nations used to cut it off in circumcision). See *Prepuce.*

Precipitation, (*Præcipitatio, onis*, f. from *præcipito*, to cast down). When two bodies are united, for instance, an acid and an oxyd, or metallic calx, and a third body is added, such as an alkali, which has a greater affinity with the acid than the metallic oxyd, the consequence is, that the alkali combines with the acid, and the oxyd, thus deserted, appears in a separate state at the bottom of the vessel in which the operation was performed. This decomposition is commonly known by the name of *precipitation*, and the substance that sinks is named a *precipitate.* The substance, by the addition of which the phenomenon is produced, is denominated the *precipitant.*

By this operation, bodies are recovered from their solution, by means of the addition of some other substance, with which either the menstruum or the body dissolved have a greater affinity than they have with each other.

Precipitation, therefore, is of two kinds; one, where the substance superadded unites with the menstruum, and occasions that which was before dissolved to be thrown down; the other, in which it unites with the dissolved body, and falls with it to the bottom. Of the first, we have an example in the precipitation of sulphur from alkaline lixivia, by the means of acids; of the second, in the precipitation of mercury from aquafortis by the muriatic acid.

The subjects of this operation, as well those which are capable of being precipitated, as those which precipi-

tate, will readily appear by the Table of Attractions.

The manner of performing it is so simple, as to need no particular directions. All that is required, is to add the precipitant by degrees, as long as it continues to occasion any precipitation. When the whole of the powder has fallen, it is to be well edulcorated, that is, washed in several fresh parcels of water, and afterwards dried for use.

When metals are employed as precipitants, as in the purification of martial vitriol from copper by the addition of fresh iron, they ought to be perfectly clean, and free from any rusty or greasy matter, otherwise they will not readily, if at all, dissolve, and consequently the precipitation will not succeed; for the substance to be precipitated separates only by the additional one dissolving and taking its place. The separated powder, often, instead of falling to the bottom, lodges upon the precipitant, from which it must be occasionally shaken off, for reasons sufficiently obvious.

Though, in this operation, the precipitated powder is generally the part required for use, yet some advantage may be frequently made of the liquor remaining after the precipitation. Thus, when fixed alkaline salt is dissolved in water, and sulphur dissolved in this lixivium, the addition of acids separates and throws down the sulphur, only in virtue of the acid uniting with, and neutralizing the alkali by which the sulphur was held dissolved; consequently, if the precipitation be made with the vitriolic acid, and the acid gradually dropt in till the alkali be completely saturated, that is, as long as it continues to occasion any precipitation or turbidness, the liquor will yield, by proper evaporation and crystallization, a neutral salt, composed of the vitriolic acid and fixed alkali, that is, vitriolated tartar. In like manner, if the precipitation be made with the nitrous acid, a true nitre; if with the muriatic, the salt called cubic nitre; and if with the acid of vinegar, the kali acetatum.

Predisposing cause. *Causa prædisponens. Causa proëgumena.* That which renders the body susceptible of disease. The most frequent predisposing causes of diseases are, the temperament and habit of the body, idiosyncracy, age, sex, and structure of the part diseased.

Predisposition, (*Prædispositio, onis*, f.). That constitution or state of the solids or fluids, or of both, which disposes the body to the action of disease.

Pregnancy. *Utero gestation.* The particular manner in which pregnancy takes place has hitherto remained involved in obscurity, notwithstanding the laborious investigation of the most eminent philosophers of all ages.

Although pregnancy is a state which (with a few exceptions), is natural to all women, it is in general the source of many disagreeable sensations, and often the cause of diseases which might be attended with the worst consequences if not properly treated.

It is now, however, universally acknowledged, that those women who bear children enjoy, usually, more certain health, and are much less liable to dangerous diseases, than those who are unmarried, or who prove barren.

Signs of pregnancy. The womb has a very extensive influence, by means of its nerves, on many other parts of the body; hence, the changes which are produced on it by impregation, must be productive of changes on the state of the general system. These constitute the signs of pregnancy.

During the first fourteen or fifteen weeks, the signs of pregnancy are

very ambiguous, and cannot be depended on; for, as they proceed from the irritation of the womb on other parts, they may be occaſioned by every circumſtance which can alter the natural ſtate of that organ.

The firſt circumſtance which renders pregnancy probable, is the ſuppreſſion of the periodical evacuation, which is generally accompanied with fullneſs in the breaſts, headach, flushings in the face, and heat in the palms of the hands.

Theſe ſymptoms are commonly the conſequences of ſuppreſſion, and therefore are to be regarded as ſigns of pregnancy, in ſo far only as they depend on it.

As, however, the ſuppreſſion of the periodical evacuation often happens from accidental expoſure to cold, or from the change of life in conſequence of marriage, it can never be conſidered as an infallible ſign.

The belly, ſome weeks after pregnancy, becomes flat, from the womb ſinking, as formerly explained, and hence drawing down the inteſtines along with it; but this cannot be looked upon as a certain ſign of pregnancy, becauſe an enlargement of the womb from any other cauſe will produce the ſame effect.

Many women, ſoon after they are pregnant, become very much altered in their looks, and have peculiar irritable feelings, inducing a diſpoſition of mind which renders their temper eaſily ruffled, and incite an irreſiſtible propenſity to actions of which on other occaſions they would be aſhamed.

In ſuch caſes, the features acquire a peculiar ſharpneſs, the eyes appear larger, and the mouth wider than uſual; and the woman has a particular appearance, which cannot be deſcribed, but with which women are well acquainted.

Theſe breeding ſymptoms, as they are called, originate from the irritation produced on the womb by impregnation; and as they may proceed from any other circumſtance which can irritate that organ, they cannot be depended on when the woman is not young, or where there is not a continued ſuppreſſion for at leaſt three periods.

The irritations on the parts contiguous to the womb are equally ambiguous; and therefore the ſigns of pregnancy in the firſt four months are always to be conſidered as doubtful, unleſs every one enumerated be diſtinctly and unequivocally preſent.

From the fourth month, the ſigns of pregnancy are leſs ambiguous, eſpecially after the womb has aſcended into the cavity of the belly. In general, about the fourth month, or a ſhort time after, the child becomes ſo much enlarged, that its motions begin to be felt by the mother; and hence a ſign is furniſhed at that perion called quickening. Women, very improperly, conſider this ſign as the moſt unequivocal proof of pregnancy; for though, when it occurs about the period deſcribed, preceded by the ſymptoms formerly enumerated, it may be looked upon as a ſure indication that the woman is with child; yet when there is an irregularity, either in the preceding ſymptoms or in its appearance, the ſituation of the woman muſt be doubtful.

This fact will be eaſily underſtood; for as the ſenſation of the motion of the child cannot be explained, or accurately deſcribed, women may readily miſtake other ſenſations for that of quickening. Flatus has often been ſo pent up in the bowels, that the natural pulſation of the great arteries, of which people are conſcious only in certain ſtates of the body, has frequently been miſtaken for this feeling.

After the fourth month, the womb riſes gradually from the cavity of the baſon, enlarges the belly, and puſhes

out the navel; hence the protruſion of the navel has been conſidered one of the moſt certain ſigns of pregnancy in the latter months. Every circumſtance, however, which increaſes the bulk of the belly occaſions this ſymptom; and therefore it cannot be truſted to, unleſs other ſigns concur.

The progreſſive increaſe of the belly, along with ſuppreſſion, after having been formerly regular, and the conſequent ſymptoms, together with the ſenſation of quickening at the proper period, afford the only true marks of pregnancy.

Theſe ſigns, however, are not to be entirely depended on; for the natural deſire which every woman has to be a mother, will induce her to conceal, even from herſelf, every ſymptom which may render her ſituation doubtful, and to magnify every circumſtance which can tend to prove that ſhe is pregnant.

Beſide quickening and increaſe of bulk of the belly, another ſymptom appears in the latter months, which, when preceded by the ordinary ſigns, renders pregnancy certain beyond a doubt. It is the preſence of milk in the breaſts. When, however, there is any irregularity in the preceding ſymptoms, this ſign is no longer to be conſidered of any conſequence.

As every practitioner muſt naturally wiſh to diſtinguiſh pregnancy from diſeaſe, the diſorders which reſemble it ſhould be thoroughly underſtood, and alſo their diagnoſtics. It is, however, neceſſary to remark, that wherever any circumſtance occurs which affords the moſt diſtant reaſon to doubt the caſe, recourſe ought to be had to the advice of an experienced practitioner, and every ſymptom ſhould be unreſervedly deſcribed to him.

PRESBYOPĬA, (*Preſbyopia*, æ, f. πρεσβυωπια, from πρεσβυ, old, and ωψ, ſight; becauſe it is frequent with old men). That defect of the ſight by which objects cloſe are ſeen confuſedly, but, at remoter diſtances, diſtinctly. As the myopia is common to infants, ſo the preſbyopia is a malady common to the aged. The proximate cauſe is a tardy adunation into the focus, ſo that it falls beyond the retina. The ſpecies are, 1. *Preſbyopia* from a flatneſs of the cornea. By ſo much the cornea is flatter, ſo much the leſs and more tardy it refranges the rays into the focus. This evil ariſes, 1ſt, From a want of aqueous or vitreous humour, which is common to the aged; or may ariſe from ſome diſeaſe; 2d, From a cicatrix, which diminiſhes the convexity of the cornea; 3d, From a natural conformation of the cornea. 2. *Preſbyopia* from too flat a cryſtalline lens. This evil is moſt common to the aged, or it may happen from a waſting of the cryſtalline lens. 3. *Preſbyopia* from too ſmall denſity of the cornea or humours of the eye. By ſo much more theſe humours are thin or rarified, ſo much the leſs they refrange the rays of light. Whoſoever is a myops from this cauſe is cured in older age; for age induces to a greater denſity of the cornea and lens. From this it is an obſerved fact, that the *preſbyopes* are often cured ſpontaneouſly, and throw away their glaſſes, which younger perſons in this diſeaſe are obliged to uſe. 5. *Preſbyopia* from a cuſtom of viewing continually remote objects; hence artificers who are occupied in remote objects are ſaid to contract this malady. The reaſon of this phenomenon is not very clear. 6. *Preſbyopia Senilis*. From a multitude of cauſes aged perſons are preſbyopes; from a penury of humours, which render the cornea and lens flatter, and the bulb ſhorter. When in ſenile age, from dryneſs, the bulb of the eye becomes flatter and ſhorter, and the cornea flatter, thoſe who were ſhort-ſighted or myopes before, ſee now without

their concave glaſſes. 7. *Preſbyopia.* From too cloſe a proximity of objects. The focus is ſhorter of diſtant, but longer of nearer objects. 8. *Preſbyopia* from a coarctated pupil. By ſo much ſmaller is the aperture of the diaphragm in an optic tube, ſo much remoter is the focus. 9. *Preſbyopia Mercurialis*, which ariſes from the uſe of mercurial preparations. The patient feels a preſſing pain in the eye, which, from being touched is increaſed, and the bulb of the eye appears as if rigid, and with difficulty can be moved. Near objects the patient can ſcarce diſtinguiſh, and diſtant only in a confuſed manner. Many have ſuppoſed this diſorder an imperfect amauroſis.

PRIAPEIA. See *Nicotiana minor.*

PRIAPISM, (*Priapiſmus, i*, m. πριαπισμος, from πριαπος, a heathen god, whoſe penis is always painted erect). A continual erection of the penis.

PRIMÆ VĬÆ. The firſt paſſages. The ſtomach and the inteſtinal tube are ſo called, and the lacteals the *ſecundæ viæ.*

PRIMARY TEETH. See *Teeth.*

PRIMROSE. See *Primula vulgaris.*

PRIMŬLA VERIS, (*Primula, æ*, f. from *primulus*, the beginning, ſo called becauſe it flowers in the beginning of the ſpring). *Verbaſculum.* The cowſlip, paigil, or peagle. The flowers of this plant have a moderately ſtrong and pleaſant ſmell, and a ſomewhat roughiſh bitter taſte. Vinous liquors impregnated with their flavour by maceration or fermentation, and ſtrong infuſions of them drank as tea, are ſuppoſed to be mildly corroborant, antiſpaſmodic, and anodyne. An infuſion of three pounds of the freſh flowers in five pints of boiling water is made in the ſhops into a ſyrup of a fine yellow colour, and agreeably impregnated with the flavour of the cowſlip.

PRIMŬLA VULGĀRIS. The primroſe. The leaves and root of this common plant poſſeſs ſternutatory properties.

PRINCIPLES. *Principia.* Primary ſubſtances. According to modern chemiſts, this term is applied to thoſe particles which are compoſed of two or more elements (ſee *Elements*), that may again be decompoſed by the action of fire or putridity; ſuch as water, gum, reſin, &c.

PRIOR ANNULARIS, (*Muſculus prior annularis*). An internal interoſſeous muſcles of the hand. See *Interoſſei manus.*

PRIOR INDĬCIS, (*Muſculus prior medii*). *Extenſor tertii internodii indicis* of Douglas. An internal interoſſeal muſcle of the hand, which draws the fore finger inwards towards the thumb, and extends it obliquely.

PRIOR MEDII, (*Muſculus prior medii*). An external interoſſeus muſcle of the hand. See *Interoſſei manus.*

PROBE, (*Stylus, i*, m. from *probo*, to try; becauſe ſurgeons try the depth and extent of wounds, &c. with it). A chirurgical inſtrument of a long and ſlender form.

PROCATARCTIC CAUSE, (*Cauſa procatarctica*, from προκαταρχω, to go before). See *Exciting cauſe.*

PROCESS, (*Proceſſus, us*, m. from *procedo*, to go before). An eminence of a bone; as the ſpinous and tranſverſe proceſſes of the vertebræ.

PROCESSUS CÆCI VERMĬFORMIS. See *Inteſtines.*

PROCIDENTĬA, (*Procidentia, æ*, f. from *procido*, to fall down). A falling down of any part; thus, *procidentia ani, uteri, vagina*, &c.

PROCTALGĬA, (*Proctalgia, æ*, f. πρωκταλγια, from πρωκτος, the fundament, and αλγος, pain). A violent pain at the anus. It is moſtly ſymptomatic of ſome diſeaſe, as piles, ſcirrhus, prurigo, cancer, &c.

PROCTĪTIS, (*Proctitis, ĭdis*, f. πρωκτιτις, from πρωκτος, the anus).

Inflammation of the internal or mucous membrane of the lower part of the rectum.

Profluvĭa, (*Profluvium, i*, n. from *profluo*, to run down). Fluxes. The fifth order in the class *pyrexiæ* of Cullen's nosology, characterized by pyrexia, with increased excretions.

Profluvĭi cortex. See *Coneſſi cortex*.

Profundus. See *Flexor profundus perforans*.

Profusĭo. A loss of blood. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *apocenoses* of Cullen.

Prognōsis, (*Prognosis, is*, f. προγνωσις, from προ, before, and γινωσκω, to know). The judgment of the event of a disease by particular symptoms.

Prolapsus, (*Prolapsus, us*, m. from *prolabor*, to slip down). A protrusion. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *ectopiæ* of Cullen; distinguished by the falling down of a part that is uncovered.

Pronation. The act of turning the palm of the hand downwards. It is performed by rotating the radius upon the ulna, by means of several muscles which are termed pronators; as,

Pronātor radĭi quadrātus. This, which has gotten its name from its use and its shape, is a small fleshy muscle, situated at the lower and inner part of the fore-arm, and covered by the tendons of the flexor muscles of the hand. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the lower and inner part of the ulna, and runs nearly in a transverse direction, to be inserted into that part of the radius which is opposite to its origin, its inner fibres adhering to the interosseous ligament. This muscle assists in the pronation of the hand, by turning the radius inwards.

Pronātor radĭi teres. This is a small muscle, situated at the upper and anterior part of the fore-arm. It is called *teres*, to distinguish it from the pronator quadratus. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the anterior and inferior part of the outer condyle of the os humeri; and tendinous from the coronoid process of the ulna, near the insertion of the brachialis internus. The median nerve passes between these two portions. From these origins the muscle runs obliquely downwards and outwards, and is inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the anterior and convex edge of the radius, about the middle of that bone. This muscle, as its name indicates, serves to turn the hand inwards.

Prophylactics, (*Prophylactica*, προφυλακτικα, from προ, before, and φυλασσω, to defend). Any means made use of to preserve health.

Proptōma, (*Proptoma, ătis*, n. προπτωμα, from προπιπτω, to fall down). A relaxation of the scrotum, of the under lip, of the breasts in females, of the præpuce, or of the ears.

Prostate gland, (*Glandula prostata*, from προ, before, and ιστημι, to stand; because it is situated before the urinary bladder). A very large, heart-like, firm gland, situated between the neck of the urinary bladder and bulbous part of the urethra. It secretes the lacteal fluid, which is emitted into the urethra by ten or twelve ducts that open near the verumontanum during coition.

Prostate inferior. See *Transversus perinei alter*.

Proximate cause. *Causa proxima*. The proximate cause of a disease may be said to be in reality the disease itself. All proximate causes are either diseased actions of simple fibres, or an altered state of the fluids.

Pruna, (*Pruna, orum*, pl. of *prunum, i*, n.). Plums or prunes. See *Plums*.

Prune. See *Plums*.

PRUNELLA, (*Prunella, æ*, f. from *pruna*, a burn, becauſe it heals burns). *Brunella. Conſolida minor. Symphitum minus.* Self heal. This plant, *Prunella vulgaris, foliis omnibus ovato-oblongis, ſerratis, petiolatis*, of Linnæus, is recommended as an adſtringent in hæmorrhages and fluxes, as in gargles againſt aphthæ and inflammations of the fauces.

PRUNELLA VULGĀRIS. The ſyſtematic name of the ſelf heal. See *Prunella*.

PRUNELLOE. See *Plum*.

PRŪNUM GALLĬCUM, (*Prunum, i*, n.). The common prune or plum. The plant which affords this fruit is the *Prunus domeſtica* of Linnæus. *Prunus pedunculis ſubſolitariis, foliis lanceolato-ovatis convolutis, ramis muticis. Gemmæ floriferæ aphyllæ.* Mur. Claſs *Icoſandria*. Order *Monogynia*. Prunes are conſidered as emollient, cooling, and laxative, eſpecially the French prunes, which are directed in the decoction of ſenna, and other purgatives; and the pulp is ordered in the *electuarium è ſenna*. See *Plum*.

PRUNUM SYLVESTRE. The ſloe or fruit of the *Prunus ſpinoſa* of Linnæus. *Prunus pedunculis ſolitariis foliis lanceolatis glabris, ramis ſpinoſis.* Claſs *Icoſandria*. Order *Monogynia*. It is ſometimes employed in gargles, to tumefactions of the tonſils and uvula, and from its adſtringent taſte was formerly much uſed in hæmorrhages, &c.

PRUNUS AVĬUM. The ſyſtematic name of the black cherry-tree. See *Ceraſa nigra*.

PRUNUS CERĂSUS. The ſyſtematic name of the red cherry-tree. See *Ceraſa rubra*.

PRUNUS DOMESTĬCA. The ſyſtematic name of the damſon-tree. See *Damſon*.

PRUNUS LAURO-CERĂSUS. The ſyſtematic name of the poiſon laurel. See *Lauro-ceraſus*.

PRUNUS PADUS. The ſyſtematic name of the bird cherry-tree. See *Padus*.

PRUNUS SPINŌSA. The ſyſtematic name of the ſloe-tree. See *Prunus ſylveſtris*.

PRURĪGO, (*Prurigo, gĭnis*, f. from *prurio*, to itch). The prurigo is a genus of diſeaſe in the order *papulous eruptions* of Dr. Willan's cutaneous diſeaſes. As it ariſes from different cauſes, or at different periods of life and exhibits ſome varieties in its form, he deſcribes it under the titles of prurigo mitis, prurigo formicans, and prurigo ſenilis. In theſe the whole ſurface of the ſkin is uſually affected; but there are likewiſe many caſes of local prurigo, which will be afterwards noticed according to their reſpective ſituations.

1. The *Prurigo mitis* originates without any previous indiſpoſition, generally in ſpring, or the beginning of ſummer. It is characterized by ſoft and ſmooth elevations of the cuticle, ſomewhat larger than the papulæ of the lichen, from which they alſo differ by retaining the uſual colour of the ſkin; for they ſeldom appear red, or much inflamed, except from violent friction. They are not, as in the other caſe, accompanied with tingling, but with a ſenſe of itching almoſt inceſſant. This is, however, felt more particularly on undreſſing, and often prevents reſt for ſome hours after getting into a bed. When the tops of the papulæ are removed by rubbing or ſcratching, a clear fluid oozes out from them, and gradually concretes into thin black ſcabs.

This ſpecies of prurigo moſtly affects young perſons, and its cauſe may, I think, in general be referred to ſordes collected on the ſkin, producing ſome degree of irritation, and alſo preventing the free diſcharge of the cutaneous exhalation; the bad conſequences of which muſt neceſſarily be felt at that ſeaſon of the

year when perſpiration is moſt copious. Thoſe who have originally a delicate or irritable ſkin, muſt likewiſe, in the ſame circumſtances, be the greateſt ſufferers.

The eruption extends to the arms, breaſt, back, and thighs, and often continues during two or three months of the ſummer, if not relieved by proper treatment. When perſons affected with it neglect waſhing the ſkin, or are uncleanly in their apparel, the irruption grows more inveterate, and at length changing its form, often terminates in the itch. Puſtules ariſe among the papulæ, ſome filled with lymph, others with pus. The acarus ſcarabiei begins to breed in the furrows of the cuticle, and the diſorder becomes contagious.

2. The *Prurigo formicans* is a much more obſtinate and troubleſome diſeaſe than the foregoing. It uſually affects perſons of adult age, commencing at all ſeaſons of the year indifferently; and its duration is from four months to two or three years, with occaſional ſhort intermiſſions. The papulæ are ſometimes larger, ſometimes more obſcure, than in the preceding ſpecies; but are, under every form, attended with an inceſſant, almoſt intolerable itching. They are diffuſed over the whole body, except the face, feet, and palms of the hands; they appear, however, in greateſt number on thoſe parts which, from the ordinary mode of dreſs, are ſubjected to tight ligatures; as about the neck, loins, and thighs.

The itching is complicated with other ſenſations, which are variouſly deſcribed by patients. They ſometimes feel as if ſmall inſects were creeping on the ſkin; ſometimes as if ſtung all over by ants; ſometimes as if hot needles were piercing the ſkin in divers places. On ſtanding before a fire, or undreſſing, and more particularly on getting into bed, theſe ſenſations become moſt violent, and uſually preclude all reſt during the greater part of the night. The prurigo formicans is by moſt practitioners deemed contagious, and confounded with the itch. In endeavouring to aſcertain the juſtneſs of this opinion, Dr. Willan has been led to make the following remarks: 1. The eruption is, for the moſt part, connected with internal diſorder, and ariſes where no ſource of infection can be traced. 2. Perſons affected may have conſtant intercourſe with ſeveral others, and yet never communicate the diſeaſe to any of them. 3. Several perſons of one family may have the prurigo formicans about the ſame time; but he thinks this ſhould be referred rather to a common prediſpoſition than to contagion, having obſerved that individuals of a family are often ſo affected, at certain ſeaſons of the year, even when they reſide at a diſtance from each other.

Although the prurigo formicans is never, like the former ſpecies, converted into the itch, yet it does occaſionally terminate in a puſtular diſeaſe, not contagious.

3. *Prurigo ſenilis.* This affection does not differ much in its ſymptoms and external appearances from the prurigo formicans; but has been thought by medical writers to merit a diſtinct conſideration, on account of its peculiar inveteracy. The prurigo is perhaps aggravated, or becomes more permanent, in old age, from the dry, condenſed ſtate of the ſkin and cuticle, which often takes place at that period. Thoſe who are affected with it in a high degree have little more comfort to expect during life, being inceſſantly tormented with a violent and univerſal itching. The ſtate of the ſkin in the prurigo ſenilis, is favourable to the production of an inſect, the pediculus humanus, more eſpe-

cially to the variety of it usually termed body-lice.

These insects, it is well known, are bred abundantly among the inhabitants of sordid dwellings, of jails, workhouses, &c. and in such situations prey upon persons of all ages indiscriminately. But in the prurigo senilis they arise, notwithstanding every attention to cleanliness or regimen, and multiply so rapidly that the patient endures extreme distress, from their perpetual irritation. The nits or eggs are deposited on the small hairs of the skin, and the pediculi are only found on the skin or on the linen, not under the cuticle, as some authors have represented. In connection with the foregoing series of complaints, Dr. Willan mentions some pruriginous affections which are merely local. He confines his observations to the most troublesome of these, seated in the podex, præputium, urethra, pubes, scrotum, and pudendum muliebre. Itching of the nostrils, eyelids, lips, or of the external ear, being generally symptomatic of other diseases, do not require a particular consideration.

1. *Prurigo podicis.* Ascarides in the rectum excite a frequent itching and irritation about the sphincter ani, which ceases when the cause is removed by proper medicines. A similar complaint often arises, independently of worms, hæmorrhoidal tumors, or other obvious causes, which is mostly found to affect persons engaged in sedentary occupations; and may be referred to a morbid state of secretion in the parts, founded, perhaps, on a diminution of constitutional vigour. The itching is not always accompanied with an appearance of papulæ or tubercles; it is little troublesome during the day time, but returns every night soon after getting into bed, and precludes rest for several hours. The complaint continues in this form during three or four months, and has then an intermission, till it is produced again by hot weather, fatigue, watching, or some irregularity in diet. The same disease occurs at the decline of life, under a variety of circumstances.

Women, after the cessation of the catamenia, are liable to be affected with this species of prurigo, more especially in summer or autumn. The skin between the nates is rough and papulated, sometimes scaly, and a little humour is discharged by violent friction. Along with this complaint, there is often an eruption of itching papulæ on the neck, breast, and back; a swelling and inflammation of one or both ears, and a discharge of matter from behind them, and from the external meatus auditorius. The prurigo podicis sometimes occurs as a symptom of the lues venerea.

2. The *Prurigo præputii* is owing to an altered state of secretion on the glans penis, and inner surface of the præputium. During the heat of summer there is also, in some persons, unusual discharge of mucus, which becomes acrimonious, and produces a troublesome itching, and often an excoriation of these parts. Washing of them with water, or soap and water, employed from time to time, relieves the complaint, and should indeed be practised as an ordinary point of cleanliness, where no inconvenience is immediately felt. If the fluid be secreted in too large a quantity, that excess may be restrained, by washes made with the extract of lead, or by applying the unguentum cerusæ acetatæ.

3. *Prurigo urethralis.* A very troublesome itching sometimes takes place at the extremity of the urethra in females, without any manifest cause. It occurs as well in young women as in those who are of an advanced age. On examination, no

ſtricture nor tumour has been found along the courſe of the urethra. Probably, however, the itching may be occaſioned by a morbid ſtate of the neck of the bladder, being in ſome inſtances connected with pain and difficulty of making water.

An itching at the extremity of the urethra in men is produced by calculi, and by ſome diſeaſes of the bladder. In caſes of ſtricture an itching is alſo felt, but near the place where the ſtricture is ſituated. Another cauſe of it is ſmall broken hairs, which are ſometimes drawn in from the pubes, between the præputium and glans, and which afterwards becoming fixed in the entrance of the urethra, occaſion an itching, or ſlight ſtinging, particularly on motion. Mr. J. Pearſon, ſurgeon of the Lock Hoſpital, has ſeen five caſes of this kind, and gave immediate relief by extracting the ſmall hair from the urethra.

4. *Prurigo pubis.* Itching papulæ often ariſe on the pubes, and become extremely ſore if their tops are removed by ſcratching. They are occaſioned ſometimes by neglect of cleanlineſs, but more commonly by a ſpecies of pediculus, which perforates the cuticle, and thus derives its nouriſhment, remaining fixed in the ſame ſituation. Theſe inſects are termed by Linnæus, &c. *pediculi pubis*; they do not, however, affect the pubes only, but often adhere to the eye-brows, eye-lids, and axillæ. They are often found, alſo, on the breaſt, abdomen, thighs, and legs, in perſons of the ſanguine temperament, who have thoſe parts covered with ſtrong hairs. It is remarkable that they ſeldom or never fix upon the hairy ſcalp. The great irritation produced by them on the ſkin, ſolicits conſtant ſcratching, by which they are torn from their attachments; and painful tubercles ariſe at the places where they had adhered. When the pediculi are diffuſed over the greater part of the ſurface of the body, the patient's linen often appears as if ſprinkled with drops of blood.

5. *Prurigo ſcroti.* The ſcrotum is affected with a troubleſome and conſtant itching from aſcarides within the rectum, from friction by violent exerciſe in hot weather, and very uſually from the pediculi pubis. Another and more important form of the complaint appears in old men, ſometimes connected with the prurigo podicis, and referable to a morbid ſtate of the ſkin, or ſuperficial glands of the part. The ſcrotum, in this caſe, aſſumes a brown colour, often alſo becoming thick, ſcaly, and wrinkled. The itching extends to the ſkin covering the penis, more eſpecially along the courſe of the urethra; and has little reſpite, either by day or night.

The *Prurigo pudendi muliebris*, is ſomewhat analagous to the prurigo ſcroti in men. It is often a ſymptomatic complaint in the lichen and lepra; it likewiſe originates from aſcarides irritating the rectum, and is in ſome caſes, connected with a diſcharge of the fluor albus.

A ſimilar affection ariſes in conſequence of the change of ſtate in the genital organs at the time of puberty, attended with a ſeries of moſt diſtreſſing ſenſations. Dr. Willan confines attention to one caſe of the diſorder, which may be conſidered as idiopathic, and which uſually affects women ſoon after the ceſſation of the catamenia. It chiefly occurs in thoſe who are of the phlegmatic temperament, and inclined to corpulency. Its ſeat is the labia pudendi, and entrance of the vagina. It is often accompanied with an appearance of tenſion or fulneſs of thoſe parts, and ſometimes with inflamed itching papulæ on the labia and mons veneris. The diſtreſs ariſing from a

ſtrong and almoſt perpetual itching in the above ſituation, may be eaſily imagined. In order to allay it in ſome degree, the ſufferers have frequent recourſe to friction, and to cooling applications: whence they are neceſſitated to forego the enjoyment of ſociety. An excitement of venereal ſenſations alſo takes place from the conſtant direction of the mind to the parts affected, as well as from the means employed to procure alleviation. The complicated diſtreſs thus ariſing, renders exiſtence almoſt inſupportable, and often produces a ſtate of mind bordering on frenzy.

Deep ulcerations of the parts ſeldom take place in the prurigo pudendi; but the appearance of aphthæ on the labia and nymphæ, is by no means unuſual. From intercourſe with females under theſe circumſtances, men are liable to be affected with aphthous ulcerations on the glans, and inſide of the præputium, which prove troubleſome for a length of time, and often excite an alarm, being miſtaken for chancres.

Women, after the fourth month of their pregnancy, often ſuffer greatly from the prurigo pudendi, attended with aphthæ. Theſe, in a few caſes, have been ſucceeded by extenſive ulcerations, which deſtroyed the nymphæ, and produced a fatal hectic: ſuch inſtances are, however, extremely rare. The complaint has, in general, ſome intervals or remiſſions; and the aphthæ uſually diſappear ſoon after delivery, whether at the full time, or by a miſcarriage.

Prurītus, (*Pruritus*, *us*, m. from *prurio*, to itch). See *Prurigo*.

Prussiats, (*Pruſſiats*, *tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the pruſſic acid, or colouring matter of pruſſian blue, with different baſes; thus, *pruſſiat of alumine*, *pruſſiat of ammoniac*, &c.

Psalterĭum, (*Pſalterium*, *i*, n. a harp; becauſe it is marked with lines that give it the appearance of a harp). *Lyra*. The medullary body that unites the poſterior crura of the fornix of the brain.

Psellismus, (*Pſelliſmus*, *i*, m. ψελλισμος; from ψελλιζω, heſitation of ſpeech). Defect of ſpeech. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *dyſceneſiæ* of Cullen.

Pseudo-ăcorus. See *Iris paluſtris*.

Pseudoblepsis, (*Pſeudoblepſis*, *is*, f. ψευδοβλεψις; from ψευδος, falſe, and βλεψις, ſight). Imaginary viſion of objects. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *dyæſtheſiæ* of Cullen; characterized by depraved ſight, creating objects, or repreſenting them different from what they are. Species: 1. *Pſeudoblepſis imaginaria*, in which objects are perceived that are not preſent. 2. *Pſeudoplepſis mutans*, in which objects that are preſent appear ſomewhat changed.

Pseudŏpyrethrum. See *Ptarmica*.

Psidĭum pomifĕrum. The ſyſtematic name of the apple guava. This plant, and the *pyriferum*, bear fruits, the former like apples, the latter like pears. The apple kind is moſt cultivated in the Indies, on account of the pulp having a fine acid flavour, whereas the pear ſpecies is ſweet, and therefore not ſo agreeable in warm climates. Of the inner pulp of either, the inhabitants make jellies; and of the outer rind they make tarts, marmalades, &c. The latter they alſo ſtew and eat with milk, and prefer them to any other ſtewed fruits. They have an adſtringent quality, which exiſts alſo in every part of the tree, and abundantly in the leaf buds, which are occaſionally boiled with barley and liquorice, as an excellent drink againſt diarrhœas. A ſimple decoc-

tion of the leaves, uſed as a bath, are ſaid to cure the itch, and moſt cutaneous eruptions.

Psidĭum pyrifĕrum. The ſyſtematic name of the pear guava. See *Pſidium pomiferum*.

Psoas magnus, (*Pſoas, adis*, m. ψοας; from ψοα, the loin; becauſe it is ſituated in the loins). *Pſoas, ſeu lumbricus internus* of Winſlow. This is a long, thick, and very conſiderable muſcle, ſituated cloſe to the fore part and ſides of the lumbar vertebræ. It ariſes from the bodies of the laſt vertebra of the back, and of all the lumbar vertebræ laterally, as well as from the anterior ſurfaces of their tranſverſe proceſſes, by diſtinct tendinous and fleſhy ſlips, that are gradually collected into one maſs, which becomes thicker as it deſcends, till it reaches the laſt of the lumbar vertebræ, where it grows narrower again, and, uniting at its outer and poſterior edge, (where it begins to become tendinous) with the iliacus internus, deſcends along with that muſcle under the ligamentum fallopii, and goes to be inſerted tendinous at the bottom of the trochanter minor of the os femoris, and fleſhy into the bone a little below that proceſs. Between the tendon of this muſcle and the iſchium, we find a conſiderable burſa mucoſa. This muſcle, at its origin, has ſome connection with the diaphragm, and likewiſe with the quadratus lumborum. It is one of the moſt powerful flexors of the thigh forwards, and may likewiſe aſſiſt in turning it outwards. When the inferior extremity is fixed, it may help to bend the body forwards, and in an erect poſture, it greatly aſſiſts in preſerving the equilibrium of the trunk upon the upper part of the thigh.

Psoas parvus. This muſcle, which was firſt deſcribed by Riolanus, is ſituated upon the pſoas magnus, at the anterior part of the loins. The pſoas parvus ariſes thin and fleſhy from the ſide of the uppermoſt vertebra of the loins, and ſometimes alſo from the lower edge of the laſt vertebra of the back, and from the tranſverſe proceſſes of each of theſe vertebræ; it then extends over part of the pſoas magnus, and terminates in a thin flat tendon, which is inſerted into that part of the brim of the pelvis, where the os pubis joins the ilium. From this tendon a great number of fibres are ſent off, which form a thin faſcia, that covers part of the pſoas magnus and iliacus internus, and gradually loſes itſelf on the fore part of the thigh. In the human body this muſcle is very often wanting; but in a dog, according to Douglas, it is never deficient. Riolanus was of opinion, that it occurs oftner in men than in women; Winſlow aſſerts juſt the contrary; but the truth ſeems to be, that it is as often wanting in one ſex as in the other. Its uſe ſeems to be to aſſiſt the pſoas magnus in bending the loins forwards; and when we are lying upon our back, it may help to raiſe the pelvis.

Psōra, (*Pſora, æ*, f. ψωρα, the itch). The itch. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *dialyſes* of Cullen: appearing firſt on the wriſts and between the fingers in ſmall puſtules with watery heads. It is contagious.

Psorĭāsis, (*Pſoriaſis, is*, f. ψωριασις; from ψωραω, to itch). The diſeaſe to which Dr. Willan gives this title is characterized by a rough and ſcaly ſtate of the cuticle, ſometimes continuous, ſometimes in ſeparate patches, of various ſizes, but of an irregular figure, and for the moſt part accompanied with rhagades or fiſſures of the ſkin. From the lepra it may be diſtinguiſhed, not only by the diſtribution of the patches, but alſo by its ceſſation and recurrence at certain ſeaſons of the year, and by

the diſorder of the conſtitution with which it is uſually attended. Dr. Willan gives the following varieties: *Pſoriaſis guttata, —diffuſa, —gyrata, —palmaria, —labialis, —infantilis, —inveterata.*

Pſoriaſis guttata. This complaint appears in ſmall, diſtinct, but irregular patches of laminated ſcales, with little or no inflammation round them. The patches very ſeldom extend to the ſize of a ſixpence. They have neither an elevated border, nor the oval or circular form by which all the varieties of lepra are diſtinguiſhed; but their circumference is ſometimes angular, and ſometimes goes into ſmall ſerpentine proceſſes. The ſcale formed upon each of them is thin, and may be eaſily detached, leaving a red, ſhining baſe. The patches are often diſtributed over the greateſt part of the body, but more particularly on the back part of the neck, the breaſt, arms, loins, thighs, and legs. They appear alſo upon the face, which rarely happens in lepra. In that ſituation they are red and more rough than the adjoining cuticle, but not covered with ſcales. The pſoriaſis guttata often appears on children in a ſudden eruption, attended with a ſlight diſorder of the conſtitution, and ſpreads over the body within two or three days. In adults it commences with a few ſcaly patches on the extremities, proceeds very gradually, and has a longer duration than in children. Its firſt occurrence is uſually in the ſpring ſeaſon, after violent pains in the head, ſtomach, and limbs. During the ſummer it diſappears ſpontaneouſly, or may be ſoon removed by proper applications, but it is apt to return again early in the enſuing ſpring, and continues ſo to do for ſeveral ſucceſſive years. When the ſcales have been removed, and the diſeaſe is about to go off, the ſmall patches have a ſhining appearance, and they retain a dark red, intermixed with ſomewhat of a bluiſh colour, for many days, or even weeks, before the ſkin is reſtored to its uſual ſtate. In the venereal diſeaſe there is an eruption which very much reſembles the pſoriaſis guttata, the only difference being a ſlighter degree of ſcalineſs, and a different ſhade of colour in the patches, approaching to a livid red, or very dark roſe colour. The patches vary in their extent, from the ſection of a pea, to the ſize of a ſilver penny, but are not exactly circular. They riſe at firſt very little, if at all, above the cuticle. As ſoon, however, as the ſcales appear on them, they become ſenſibly elevated; and ſometimes the edge or circumference of the patch is higher than the little ſcales in its centre. This eruption is uſually ſeen upon the forehead, breaſt, between the ſhoulders, or in the inſide of the fore-arms, in the groins, about the inſide of the thighs, and upon the ſkin covering the lower part of the abdomen. The ſyphilitic pſoriaſis guttata is attended with, or ſoon followed by, an ulceration of the throat. It appears about ſix or eight weeks after a chancre has been healed by an ineffectual courſe of mercury. A ſimilar appearance takes place at nearly the ſame period, in ſome caſes where no local ſymptoms had been noticed. When a venereal ſore is in a diſcharging ſtate, this eruption, or other ſecondary ſymptoms, often appear much later than the period above mentioned. They may alſo be kept back three months, or even longer, by an inefficient application of mercury. If no medicines be employed, the ſyphilitic form of the pſoriaſis guttata will proceed during ſeveral months, the number of the ſpots increaſing, and their bulk being ſomewhat enlarged, but without any other material alteration.

The *Pſoriaſis diffuſa* ſpreads into

large patches, irregularly circumſcribed, reddiſh, rough, and chappy, with ſcales interſperſed. It commences, in general, with numerous minute aſperities, or elevations of the cuticle, more perceptible by the touch than by ſight. Upon theſe, ſmall diſtinct ſcales are ſoon after formed, adhering by a dark central point, while their edges may be ſeen white and detached. In the courſe of two or three weeks all the intervening cuticle becomes rough and chappy, appears red, and raiſed, and wrinkled, the lines of the ſkin ſinking into deep furrows. The ſcales which form among them are often ſlight, and repeatedly exfoliate. Sometimes, without any previous eruption of papulæ, a large portion of the ſkin becomes dry, harſh, cracked, reddiſh, and ſcaly, as above deſcribed. In other caſes, the diſorder commences with ſeparate patches of an uncertain form and ſize, ſome of them being ſmall, like thoſe in the pſoriaſis guttata, ſome much larger. The patches gradually expand till they become confluent, and nearly cover the part or limb affected. Both the pſoriaſis guttata and diffuſa likewiſe occur as a ſequel of the lichen ſimplex. This tranſition takes place more certainly after frequent returns of the lichen. The parts moſt affected by pſoriaſis diffuſa are the cheeks, chin, upper eye-lids, and corners of the eyes, the temples, the external ear, the neck, the fleſhy parts of the lower extremities, and the fore-arm, from the elbow to the back of the hand, along the ſupinator muſcle of the radius. The fingers are ſometimes nearly ſurrounded with a looſe ſcaly incruſtation; the nails crack and exfoliate ſuperficially. The ſcaly patches likewiſe appear, though leſs frequently, on the forehead and ſcalp, on the ſhoulders, back, and loins, on the abdomen, and inſtep. This diſeaſe occaſionally extends to all the parts above-mentioned at the ſame time; but, in general, it affects them ſucceſſively, leaving one place free, and appearing in others; ſometimes, again, returning to its firſt ſituation. The pſoriaſis diffuſa is attended with a ſenſation of heat, and with a very troubleſome itching, eſpecially at night. It exhibits ſmall, ſlight, diſtinct ſcales, having leſs diſpoſition than the lepra to form thick cruſts. The chaps or fiſſures of the ſkin, which uſually makes a part of this complaint, are very ſore and painful, but ſeldom diſcharge any fluid. When the ſcales are removed, by frequent waſhing, or by the application of unguents, the ſurface, though raiſed and uneven, appears ſmooth and ſhining; and the deep furrows of the cuticle are lined by a ſlight ſcalineſs. Should any portion of the diſeaſed ſurface be forcibly excoriated, there iſſues out a thin lymph, mixed with ſome drops of blood, which ſlightly ſtains and ſtiffens the linen, but ſoon concretes into a thin, dry ſcab; this is again ſucceeded by a white ſcalineſs, gradually increaſing, and ſpreading in various directions. As the complaint declines, the roughneſs, chaps, ſcales, &c. diſappear, and a new cuticle is formed, at firſt red, dry, and ſhrivelled, but which, in two or three weeks, acquires the proper texture. The duration of the pſoriaſis diffuſa is from one to four months. If, in ſome conſtitutions, it does not then diſappear, but becomes, to a certain degree, permanent, there is, at leaſt, an aggravation or extenſion of it, about the uſual periods of its return. In other caſes, the diſeaſe, at the vernal returns, differs much as to its extent, and alſo with reſpect to the violence of the preceding ſymptoms. The eruption is, indeed, often confined to a ſingle ſcaly patch, red, itching, and chapped, of a moderate ſize, but irregularly circumſcribed. This ſoli-

tary patch is ſometimes ſituated on the temple, or upper part of the cheek, frequently on the breaſt, the calf of the leg, about the wriſt, or within and a little below the elbow joint, but eſpecially at the lower part of the thigh, behind. It continues in any of theſe ſituations ſeveral months, without much obſervable alteration. The complaint denominated with us the bakers itch, is an appearance of the pſoriaſis diffuſa on the back of the hand, commencing with one or two ſmall, rough, ſcaly patches, and finally extending from the knuckles to the wriſt. The rhagades, or chaps and fiſſures of the ſkin, are numerous about the knuckles and ball of the thumb, and where the back of the hand joins the wriſt. They are often highly inflamed, and painful, but have no diſcharge of fluid from them. The back of the hand is a little raiſed or tumefied, and, at an advanced period of the diſorder, exhibits a reddiſh, gloſſy ſurface, without cruſts or numerous ſcales. However, the deep furrows of the cuticle are, for the moſt part, whitened by a ſlight ſcalineſs. This complaint is not general among bakers; that it is only aggravated by their buſineſs, and affects thoſe who are otherwiſe diſpoſed to it, may be concluded from the following circumſtances: 1. It diſappears about midſummer, and returns in the cold weather at the beginning of the year; 2. Perſons conſtantly engaged in the buſineſs, after having been once affected with the eruption, ſometimes enjoy a reſpite from it for three or four years; 3. When the buſineſs is diſcontinued, the complaint does not immediately ceaſe. The grocers itch has ſome affinity with the bakers itch, or tetter; but, being uſually a puſtular diſeaſe at its commencement, it properly belongs to another genus. Waſherwomen, probably from the irritation of ſoap, are liable to be affected with ſimilar ſcaly diſeaſe on the hands and arms, ſometimes on the face and neck, which, in particular conſtitutions, proves very troubleſome, and of long duration.

The *Pſoriaſis gyrata* is diſtributed in narrow patches or ſtripes, variouſly figured; ſome of them are nearly longitudinal; ſome circular, or ſemicircular with vermiform appendages; ſome are tortuous, or ſerpentine; others like earth-worms or leeches: the furrows of the cuticle, being deeper than uſual, make the reſemblance more ſtriking, by giving to them an annulated appearance. There is a ſeparation of ſlight ſcales from the diſeaſed ſurface, but no thick incruſtations are formed. The uniform diſpoſition of theſe patches is ſingular; I have ſeen a large circular one ſituated on each breaſt above the papilla; and two or three others of a ſerpentine form, in analagous ſituations along the ſides of the cheſt. The back is often variegated in like manner, with convoluted tetters, ſimilarly arranged on each ſide of the ſpine. They likewiſe appear, in ſome caſes, on the arms and thighs, interſecting each other in various directions. A ſlighter kind of this complaint affects delicate young women and children in ſmall ſcaly circles or rings, little diſcoloured; they appear on the cheeks, neck, or upper part of the breaſt, and are moſtly confounded with the herpetic, or puſtular ring-worm. The pſoriaſis gyrata has its remiſſions and returns, like the pſoriaſis diffuſa; it alſo exhibits, in ſome caſes, patches of the latter diſorder on the face, ſcalp, or extremities, while the trunk of the body is chequered with the ſingular figures above deſcribed.

Pſoriaſis Palmaria. One very obſtinate ſpecies of tetter is nearly confined to the palm of the hand. It commences with a ſmall, harſh, or ſcaly patch, which gradually ſpreads over the whole palm, and ſometimes

appears in a ſlighter degree on the inſide of the fingers and wriſt. The ſurface feels rough from the detached and raiſed edges of the ſcaly laminæ; its colour often changes to brown, or black, as if dirty; yet the moſt diligent waſhing produces no favourable effect. The cuticular furrows are deep, and cleft at the bottom longitudinally, in various places, ſo as to bleed on ſtretching the fingers. A ſenſation of heat, pain, and ſtiffneſs in the motions of the hand, attends this complaint. It is worſt in winter or ſpring, and occaſionally diſappears in autumn or ſummer, leaving a ſoft, dark-red cuticle; but many perſons are troubled with it for a ſeries of years, experiencing only very ſlight remiſſions. Every return or aggravation of it is preceded by an increaſe of heat and dryneſs, with intolerable itching. Shoemakers have the pſoriaſis palmaria locally, from the irritation of the wax they ſo conſtantly employ. In braziers, tinmen, ſilverſmiths, &c. the complaint ſeems to be produced by handling cold metals. A long prediſpoſition to it from a weak, languid, hectical ſtate of the conſtitution may give effect to different occaſional cauſes. Dr. Willan has obſerved it in women after lying-in; in ſome perſons it is connected, or alternates with arthritic complaints. When the palms of the hands are affected as above ſtated, a ſimilar appearance often takes place on the ſoles of the feet; but with the exception of rhagades or fiſſures, which ſeem leſs liable to form there, the feet being uſually kept warm and covered. Sometimes, alſo, the pſoriaſis palmaria is attended with a thickneſs of the præputium, with ſcalineſs, and painful cracks. Theſe ſymptoms at laſt produce a phymoſis, and render connubial intercourſe difficult, or impracticable; ſo great, in ſome caſes, is the obſtinacy of them, that remedies are of no avail, and the patient can only be relieved by circumciſion. This affection of the præputium is not exactly ſimilar to any venereal appearance; but rhagades or fiſſures, and indurated patches within the palm of the hand, take place in ſyphilis, and ſomewhat reſemble the pſoriaſis palmaria. The venereal patches are, however, diſtinct, white, and elevated, having nearly the conſiſtence of a ſoft corn. From the rhagades there is a ſlight diſcharge, very offenſive to the ſmell. The ſoles of the feet are likewiſe, in this caſe, affected with the patches, not with rhagades. When the diſeaſe yields to the operation of mercury, the indurated portions of cuticle ſeparate, and a ſmooth new cuticle is found formed underneath. The fingers and toes are not affected with the patches, &c. in venereal caſes.

Pſoriaſis labialis. The pſoriaſis ſometimes affects the prolabium without appearing on any other part of the body. Its characteriſtics are, as uſual, ſcalineſs, intermixed with chaps and fiſſures of the ſkin. The ſcales are of a conſiderable magnitude, ſo that their edges are often looſe, while the central points are attached, a new cuticle gradually forms beneath the ſcales, but is not durable. In the courſe of a few hours it becomes dry, ſhrivelled, and broken; and, while it exfoliates, gives way to another layer of tender cuticle, which ſoon, in like manner, periſhes. Theſe appearances ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the ſlight chaps and roughneſs of the lips produced by very cold or froſty weather, but eaſily removed. The pſoriaſis labialis may be a little aggravated by froſt or ſharp winds, yet it receives no material alleviation from an oppoſite temperature. It is not, indeed confined within any certain limit, or period of duration, having, in ſeveral inſtances, been protracted through all the ſeaſons.

The under lip is always more affected than the upper; and the diſeaſe takes place more eſpecially in thoſe perſons whoſe lips are full and prominent.

Pſoriaſis ſcrotalis. The ſkin of the ſcrotum may be affected in the pſoriaſis diffuſa like other parts of the ſurface of the body; but ſometimes a roughneſs and ſcalineſs of the ſcrotum appears as an independent complaint, attended with much heat, itching, tenſion, and redneſs. The above ſymptoms are ſucceeded by a hard, thickened, brittle texture of the ſkin, and by painful chaps or excoriations, which are not eaſy to be healed. This complaint is ſometimes produced under the ſame circumſtances as the prurigo ſcroti, and appears to be in ſome caſes a ſequel of it. A ſpecies of the pſoriaſis ſcrotalis likewiſe occurs in the lues venerea, but merits no particular attention, being always combined with other ſecondary ſymptoms of the diſeaſe.

Pſoriaſis infantilis. Infants, between the ages of two months and two years, are occaſionally ſubject to the dry tetter. Irregular, ſcaly patches, of various ſizes, appear on the cheeks, chin, breaſt, back, nates, and thighs. They are ſometimes red, and a little rough, or elevated; ſometimes excoriated, then again covered with a thin incruſtation; and laſtly, interſected by chaps or fiſſures. The general appearances nearly coincide with thoſe of the pſoriaſis diffuſa; but there are ſeveral peculiarities in the tetter of infants which require a diſtinct conſideration.

The Pſoriaſis inveterata, is characterized by an almoſt univerſal ſcalineſs, with a harſh, dry, and thickened ſtate of the ſkin. It commences from a few irregular, though diſtinct patches on the extremities. Others appear afterwards on different parts, and, becoming confluent, ſpread at length over all the ſurface of the body, except a part of the face, or ſometimes the palms of the hands, and ſoles of the feet. The ſkin is red, deeply furrowed, or wrinkled, ſtiff and rigid, ſo as ſomewhat to impede the motion of the muſcles, and of the joints. So quick, likewiſe, is the production and ſeparation of ſcales, that large quantities of them are found in the bed on which a perſon affected with this diſeaſe has ſlept. They fall off in the ſame proportion by day, and being confined within the linen, excite a troubleſome and perpetual itching.

PSOROPHTHALMĬA, (*Pſorophthalmia, æ*, f. ψωροφθαλμια, from ψωρο, a ſcab, and οφθαλμος, an eye). A ſcabby eruption, or itch-like puſtules of the eye-lids and their margins. The proximate cauſe is an acrimony depoſited in the glands of the eyelids. The ſpecies of the pſorophthalmia are, 1. *Pſorophthalmia cruſtoſa*, which forms dry or humid cruſts in the margins of the eyelids. 2. *Pſorophthalmia herpetica*, in which ſmall papulæ, itching extremely, and terminating in ſcurf, are obſerved.

PSYCHOTRĬA EMETĬCA, (*Pſycotria, æ*, f. ψυχοτρια, from ψυχος, cold, becauſe it grows in cold places). See *Ipecacuanha*.

PSYDRACĬÆ, (*Pſydracia, æ*, f. ψυδρακια, from ψυχος, cold). Red and ſomewhat elevated ſpots, which ſoon form broad and ſuperficial veſicles, ſuch as thoſe produced by the ſtinging nettle, the bites of inſects, &c. See *Puſtule*.

PSYLLĬUM, (*Pſyllium, i*, n. ψυλλιον, from ψυλλος, a flea; ſo called becauſe it was thought to deſtroy fleas). *Pulicaris herba.* Flea-wort. The ſeeds of this plant, *Plantago pſyllium*; *caule ramoſo herbaceo; foliis ſubdentatis, recurvatis*; *capitulis aphyllis* of Linnæus, have a naſeous mucilaginous taſte, and no remarkable

ſmell. The decoction of the ſeeds is recommended in hoarſeneſs and aſperity of the fauces.

PTARMĬCA, (*Ptarmica*, *æ*, f. πταρμικα, from πταιρω, to ſneeze; ſo called becauſe it irritates the noſe, and provokes ſneezing). *Pſeudopyrethrum*. *Pyrethrum ſylveſtre*. *Draco ſylveſtris*. *Tarchon ſylveſtris*. *Sternutamentoria*. Sneeze-wort. Baſtard pellitory. *Achillea ptarmica; foliis lanceolatis, acuminatis, argute ſerratis* of Linnæus. The flowers and roots of this plant have a hot biting taſte, approaching to that of pyrethrum, with which they alſo agree in their pharmaceutical properties. Their principal uſe is as a maſticatory and ſternutatory.

PTERIS AQUILĪNA, (*Pteris*, f. πτερις, from πτερονα, wing; ſo called from the likeneſs of its leaves to wings, and *aquilina*, from *aquila*, an eagle, from its reſemblance to an eagle's wings). The ſyſtematic name of the common brake, or female fern. See *Filix fœmina*.

PTEROCARPUS SANTALĪNUS. The ſyſtematic name of the red ſaunder's tree. See *Santalum rubrum*.

PTĔRYGĬUM, (*Pterygĭum*, *i*, n, πτερυγιον, πτερυξ, a wing). A membranous excreſcence which grows upon the internal canthus of the eye chiefly, and expands itſelf over the albuginea and cornea towards the pupil. It appears to be an extenſion or prolongation of the fibres and veſſels of the caruncula lachrymalis, or ſemilunar membrane, appearing like a wing. The ſpecies of pterygium are four: 1. *Pterygium tenue*, ſeu *ungula*, is a pellucid pellicle, thin, of a cineritious colour, and unpainful; growing out from the caruncula lacrymalis, or membrana ſemilunaris. 2. *Pterygium craſſum*, ſeu *pannus*, differs from the ungula by its thickneſs, red colour, and fulneſs of the red veſſels on the white of the eye, and it ſtretches over the cornea like faſciculi of veſſels. 3. *Pterygium malignum*, is a pannus of various colours, painful, various, and ariſing from a cancerous acrimony. 4. *Pterygium pingue*, ſeu *pinguicula*, is a mollicle-like lard or fat, ſoft, without pain, and of a light yellow colour, which commonly is ſituated in the external angle of the eye, and rarely extends to the cornea; but often remains through life.

PTERŸGO. Names compounded of this word belong to muſcles which are connected with the pterygoid proceſs of the ſphænoid bone; as, *pterygo-pharyngeus*, &c.

PTERŸGO-PHARYNGĒUS. See *Conſtrictor pharyngis ſuperior*.

PTERŸGO-STAPHILINUS EXTERNUS. See *Levator palati*.

PTERYGOIDĒUS EXTERNUS, (*Pterygoideus*, from πτερυξ, a wing, from its belonging to the proceſſus pterygoides). *Pterygoideus minor* of Winſlow. It is placed, as it were, horizontally along the baſis of the ſcull, between the pterygoid proceſs and the condyle of the lower jaw. It uſually ariſes by two diſtinct heads; one of which is thick, tendinous, and fleſhy, from the outer wing of the pterygoid proceſs of the os ſphenoides, and from a ſmall part of the os maxillare adjoining to it; the other is thin and fleſhy, from a ridge in the temporal proceſs of the ſphenoid bone, juſt behind the ſlit that tranſmits the veſſels to the eye. Sometimes this latter origin is wanting, and, in that caſe, part of the temporal muſcle ariſes from this ridge. Now and then it affords a common origin to both theſe muſcles. From theſe origins the muſcle forms a ſtrong fleſhy belly, which deſcends almoſt tranſverſely outwards and backwards, and is inſerted tendinous and fleſhy into a depreſſion in the fore part of the condyloid proceſs of the lower jaw, and into the anterior ſur-

face of the capsular ligament that surrounds the articulation of that bone. All that part of this muscle, which is not hid by the pterygoideus internus, is covered by a ligamentous expansion, which is broader than that belonging to the pterygoideus internus, and originates from the inner edge of the glenoid cavity of the lower jaw, immediately before the styloid process of the temporal bone, and extends obliquely downwards, forwards, and outwards, to the inner surface of the angle of the jaw. When these muscles act together, they bring the jaw horizontally forwards. When they act singly, the jaw is moved forwards, and to the opposite side. The fibres that are inserted into the capsular ligament, serve likewise to bring the moveable cartilage forwards.

PTERYGOIDĒUS INTERNUS. *Pterygoideus major* of Winslow It arises tendinous and fleshy from the whole inner surface of the external ala of the pterygoid process, filling all the space between the two wings; and from that process of the os palati that makes part of the pterygoid fossa. From thence the muscle growing larger, descends obliquely downwards, forwards, and outwards, and is inserted, by tendinous and fleshy fibres, into the inside of the lower jaw, near its angle. This muscle covers a great part of the *pterygoideus externus;* and along its posterior edge we observe a ligamentous band, which extends from the back part of the styloid process to the bottom of the angle of the lower jaw. The use of this muscle is to raise the lower jaw, and to pull it a little to one side.

PTERYGOIDĒUS MAJOR. See *Pterygoideus internus.*

PTERYGOIDĒUS MINOR. See *Pterygoideus externus.*

PTERYGOID PROCESS. (*Pterygoides*, from πτερυξ, a wing, and ειδος, resemblance). A wing-like process of the sphænoid bone.

PTILŌSIS, (*Ptilosis, is*, f. πτιλωσις, from πτιλος, bald). A synonym of Madarosis. See *Madarosis.*

PTOSIS, (*Ptosis, is*, f. πτωσις, from πιπτω, to fall). A synonym of Blepharoptosis. See *Blepharoptosis.*

PTOSIS IRĬDIS. *Prolapsus iridis*, is a prolapsus of the iris through a wound of the cornea. It is known by a blackish tubercle, which prominates a little from the cornea in various forms. The species of the ptosis of the iris are, 1. *Ptosis recens*, or a recent ptosis from a side wound of the cornea, as that which happens, though rarely, in or after the extraction of the cataract. 2. *Ptosis inveterata*, in which the incarcerated prolapsed iris is grown or attached to the wound or ulcer, and by the air has become callous or indurated.

PTYALISM, (*Ptyalismus, i*, m. πτυαλισμος, from πτυαλιζω, to spit). A salivation, or increased secretion of saliva from the mouth.

PUBES, (*Pubes, is*, f. from βυβων, the groin). The external part of the organs of generation of both sexes, which is covered with hair.

PUBIS OS. A bone of the fœtal pelvis. See *Innominatum os.*

PUDENDA, (*Pudenda, orum*, n. pl. from *pudor*, shame). The parts of generation.

PUDICAL ARTERY. *Arteria pudica.* Pudendal artery. A branch of the internal iliac distributed on the organs of generation.

PUERPERAL FEVER. Childbed fever. Cullen considers this disease as a species of continued fever.

PUFFBALL. See *Lycoperdon.*

PULEGĬUM, (*Pulegium, i*, n. from *pulex*, a flea; because the smell of its leaves burnt destroys fleas). Penyroyal. *Mentha pulegium* of Linnæus. *Mentha floribus verticillatis, foliis ovatis obtusis subcrenatis, caulibus subteretibus repentibus.* Class *Didynamia.* Order *Gymnospermia.* This plant is

considered as a carminative, stomachic, and emmenagogue; and is in very common use in hysterical disorders. The officinal preparations of pennyroyal are, a simple water, a spirit, and an essential oil.

PULEGĬUM CERVĪNUM. Hart's pennyroyal. *Mentha cervina* of Linnæus. This plant possesses the virtues of pennyroyal in a very great degree; but is remarkably unpleasant. It is seldom employed but by the country people, who substitute it for pennyroyal.

PULICARĬA, (*Pulicaria, æ*, f. from *pulex*, a flea; so named because it was thought to destroy fleas if hung in a chamber). See *Psyllium*.

PULMONARĬA, (*Pulmonaria, æ*, f. from *pulmo*, the lungs; so called because of its virtues in affections of the lungs). Lung-wort.

PULMONĀRĬA ARBORĔA. *Musus pulmonarius quercinus*. This subastringent, and rather acid plant, *Lichen pulmonarius* of Linnæus, was once in high estimation in the cure of diseases of the lungs, especially coughs, asthmas, and catarrhs. Its virtues are similar, and in no way inferior to those of the lichen islandicus.

PULMONARĬA MACULĀTA. Spotted lung-wort. Jerusalem cowslips. Jerusalem sage. *Pulmonaria officinalis* of Linnæus. This plant is rarely found to grow wild in England; but is very commonly cultivated in gardens, where its leaves become broader, and approach more to a cordate shape. The leaves, which are the part medicinally used, have no peculiar smell; but, in their recent state, manifest a slightly adstringent and mucilaginous taste; hence it seems not wholly without foundation that they have been supposed to be demulcent and pectoral. They have been recommended in hemoptoës, tickling coughs, and catarrhal defluxions upon the lungs. The name pulmonaria, however, seems to have arisen, rather from the speckled appearance of these leaves, resembling that of the lungs, than from any intrinsic quality which experience discovered to be useful in pulmonary complaints.

PULMONĀRĬA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the spotted lung-wort. See *Pulmonaria maculata*.

PULMONARY VESSELS. The pulmonary artery, *arteria pulmonalis*, arises from the right ventricle of the heart, and soon divides into the right and left, which ramify throughout the lungs, and form a beautiful net-work on the air vesicles, where they terminate in the veins, *venæ pulmonales*, whose branches at length form four trunks, which empty themselves into the left auricle of the heart.

PULSATĪLLA NIGRĬCANS, (*Pulsatilla, æ*, f. from *pulso*, to beat about; so called from its being perpetually agitated by the air). This plant, *Anemone pratensis* of Linnæus, (*Anemone pedunculo involucrato, petalis apice reflexis, foliis bipinnatis*. Class *Polyandria*. Order *Polygynia*), has been received into the Edinburgh pharmacopœia upon the authority of Baron Stoerck, who recommended it as an effectual remedy for most of the chronic diseases affecting the eye, particularly amaurosis, cataract, and opacity of the cornea, proceeding from various causes. He likewise found it of great service in venereal nodes, nocturnal pains, ulcers, caries, indurated glands, suppressed menses, serpiginous eruptions, melancholy, and palsy. The plant, in its recent state, has scarcely any smell; but its taste is extremely acrid, and, when chewed, it corrodes the tongue and fauces.

PULSE, (*Pulsus, us*, m.). The beating of the artery at the wrist is termed the pulse. It depends upon, and is synchronous with, that of the heart; hence physicians feel the

pulse, to ascertain the quickness or tardiness of the blood's motion, the strength of the heart, &c.

Pulvis, (*Pulvis, eris*, m.). A powder.

Pulvis alŏës cum canella. A cathartic, deobstruent powder, possessing stimulating and aloetic properties.

Pulvis alŏës cum ferro. This possesses aperient and deobstruent virtues; and is mostly given in chlorosis and constipation.

Pulvis alŏës cum guaiăco. A warm aperient, laxative powder, calculated for the aged, and those affected with dyspeptic gout, attended with costiveness and spasmodic complaints of the stomach and bowels.

Pulvis alumĭnis compositus. An astringent and tonic compound, mostly exhibited in uterine hæmorrhages, and debility of the primæ viæ.

Pulvis antimoniālis. This preparation is called in the new chemical nomenclature, *phosphas calcis stibiatus*. It is in high esteem as a febrifuge, sudorific, and antispasmodic; and, under the name of James's powder, has been long sold as a secret medicine. The diseases in which it is mostly exhibited are, most species of asthenic and exanthematous fevers, acute rheumatism, gout, diseases arising from obstructed perspiration, dysuria, nervous affections, and spasms.

Pulvis aromatĭcus. An elegant stimulant, carminative, and stomachic powder.

Pulvis asări compositus. This powder is used as an errhine in diseases of the head, or to promote sneezing, in order to rouse the actions of the system.

Pulvis cerūssæ compositus. This is mostly used in the form of collyrium, lotion, or injection, as a mucilaginous sedative.

Pulvis chelarum cancri compositus. An antacid and astringent powder, mostly given to children with diarrhæa and acidity of the primæ viæ.

Pulvis contrayērvæ compositus. A febrifuge diaphoretic, mostly given in the dose of from one to two scruples in slight febrile affections.

Pulvis crētæ compositus. An astringent, carminative, and stomachic powder exhibited in the cure of diarrhæa, pyrosis, and diseases arising from acidity of the bowels, inducing much pain.

Pulvis crētæ compositus cum opĭo. The above powder, with the addition of opium, in the proportion of one grain to two scruples.

Pulvis ipecacŭanhæ compositus. A diaphoretic powder, similar to that of Dr. Dover, which gained such repute in the cure of rheumatisms, and other diseases arising from obstructed perspiration and spasm.

Pulvis jalappæ compositus. A saline purgative.

Pulvis myrrhæ compositus. A stimulant, antispasmodic, and emmenagogue powder, mostly exhibited in the dose of from fifteen grains to two scruples, in uterine obstructions and hysterical affections.

Pulvis opiātus. An absorbent and anodyne.

Pulvis scammōnĭi compositus. From ten to fifteen grains are exhibited as a stimulating cathartic.

Pulvis scammōnĭi cum alŏë. A stimulating cathartic, in the dose of from ten to fifteen grains.

Pulvis scammōnĭi cum calomĕlane. A vermifugal cathartic, in the dose of from ten to twenty grains.

Pulvis sennæ compositus. A saline stimulating cathartic.

Pulvis tragăcanthæ compositus. A very useful demulcent

powder, which may be given in the doſe of a drachm in coughs, diarrhæas, ſtrangury, &c.

PUMPION, COMMON. See *Cucurbita.*

PUNCTA LACHRYMALIA. Two ſmall orifices, one of which is conſpicuous in each eyelid, at the extremity of the tarſus, near the internal canthus.

PUNICA. See *Granatum.*

PUNICA GRANATUM. The ſyſtematic name of the pomegranate. See *Granatum.*

PUPIL, (*Pupilla, æ*, f. from *pupa*, a babe; becauſe it reflects the diminiſhed image of the perſon who looks upon it like a puppet). The round opening in the middle of the iris, in which we ſee ourſelves in the eye of another.

PUPILLA. See *Pupil.*

PURGING FLAX. See *Linum catharticum.*

PURGING NUT. See *Ricinus major.*

PURSLANE. See *Portulaca.*

PUS, (*Pus, uris*, n. pl. *prura*). A whitiſh, bland, cream-like fluid, heavier than water, found in phlegmonous abſceſſes, or on the ſurface of ſores. It is diſtinguiſhed, according to its nature, into laudable or good pus, ſcrophulous, ſerous, and ichorous pus, &c.

The moſt generally eſtabliſhed opinion of the nature of pus, till within the laſt thirty years has been, that it was compoſed both of ſolids and fluids; nor is the opinion even now entirely exploded. It was called "true, or laudable pus," to diſtinguiſh it from a ſimilar diſcharge, ſuppoſed to be compoſed wholly of fluids, called mucus. Yet the diſtinctions between pus and mucus have been very ill defined: there was thought to be a difference in their appearance to the eye; but the principal mark of diſtinction aroſe from a breach of ſurface being believed neceſſary to the formation of pus, but not of mucus; conſequently, when there was no breach in the ſolids, the diſcharge was conſidered to be only mucus.

This notion of pus muſt have taken its riſe from an idea that the ſolids of the parts were broken down into pus.

The phyſiologiſts who formed this theory cannot, however, be ſaid to have made their diſtinctions with great accuracy, ſince the diſcharge, in conſequence of a bliſter being applied to the ſurface of the body, was admitted to be pus; although, in ſuch caſes there is no loſs of ſubſtance, and therefore the diſcharge ſhould have been called mucus.

To aſcertain a real difference between the fluid formed where there is a breach in the ſolids, and that met with where the ſurface is entire, has been conſidered an object meriting the attention of ſome of our moſt eminent ſurgeons, although the fluid formed under both theſe circumſtances will be found to be preciſely the ſame. This inquiry muſt have ariſen from their adhering to the hypotheſis which has been mentioned, and which not being founded upon the principles of the animal œconomy, can never explain, ſatisfactorily, any of the operations in the living body.

It will be found, upon inveſtigation, that the appearance of a diſcharge produced from the ſecreting ſurface of an internal canal, or excretory duct, when the produce of the ſuppurative inflammation, is exactly ſimilar to a diſcharge, in conſequence of inflammation in any other part of the body. The only reſpect in which they differ is, that, in the one caſe, there is no breach of ſurface, and, in the other, there moſt commonly appears to be one. The one is ſuppuration alone, the other ſuppuration attended by ulceration.

Mr. Home has been at conſiderable pains to collect thoſe properties and

circumſtances which have been aſcertained reſpecting pus; and has endeavoured, by inveſtigating others not ſo well underſtood, to render the hiſtory of it more complete. Through the whole of theſe obſervations, which are extracted from his work, pus will be conſidered as a fluid, whoſe formation depends upon a proceſs in the animal economy analogous to glandular ſecretions. Its production, Mr. Home obſerves, depends upon inflammation having previouſly taken place in ſome part of the body, either in the common reticular membrane, upon the internal ſurface of circumſcribed cavities, or the ſurfaces of internal canals, which form excretory ducts of the body.

Inflammation is neceſſary for the formation of pus; and although a fluid, ſomewhat ſimilar, is produced without any preceding inflammation, ſuch fluids, not having all the properties of true pus, can be readily diſtinguiſhed from it.

Pus, whether it is formed in the cellular membrane upon an inveſting membrane, or on the internal ſurface of an excretory duct, has exactly the ſame appearance and general properties. No diſtinctions will, therefore, be made between pus produced under this or that peculiar circumſtance; believing it, when preceded by the ſame degree of inflammation in a healthy conſtitution, and when free from any extraneous ſubſtances, to be the ſame fluid. But as a difference in pus may ariſe from a variety of cauſes, it will be proper firſt to mark thoſe properties which really belong to it in an healthy ſtate of body, and afterwards mention the variations to which it is liable.

Pus taken from an healthy ulcer, near the ſource of circulation, as on the arm or breaſt, readily ſeparates from the ſurface of the ſore, the granulations underneath being ſmall, pointed, and of a florid red colour, and has the following properties: it is nearly of the conſiſtence of cream; is of a white colour; has a mawkiſh taſte; and, when cold, is inodorous; but, when warm, has a peculiar ſmell. Examined in a microſcope, it is found to conſiſt of two parts, of globules, and a tranſparent colourleſs fluid; the globules are probably white, at leaſt they appear to have ſome degree of opacity. Its ſpecific gravity is greater than that of water. It does not readily go into putrefaction. Expoſed to heat, it evaporates to dryneſs; but does not coagulate. It does not unite with water in the heat of the atmoſphere, but falls to the bottom; yet, if kept in a conſiderable degree of heat, riſes and diffuſes through the water, and remains mixed with it, even after having been allowed to cool, the globules being diſcompoſed.

Pus varies in its appearance, according to the different circumſtances which affect the ulcer that forms it; ſuch as, the degree of violence of the inflammation, alſo its nature, whether healthy or unhealthy; and theſe depend upon the ſtate of health, and ſtrength of the parts yielding pus. Theſe changes ariſe more from indolence and irritability, than from any abſolute diſeaſe; many ſpecific diſeaſes, in healthy conſtitutions, producing no change in the appearance of the matter from their ſpecific quality. Thus, the matter from a gonorrhæa, from the ſmall-pox puſtules, the chicken-pock, and from an healthy ulcer, has the ſame appearance, and ſeems to be made up of ſimilar parts, conſiſting of globules floating in a tranſparent fluid, like common pus; the ſpecific properties of each of theſe poiſons being ſuperadded to thoſe of pus. Matter from a cancer may be conſidered as an exception; but a cancerous ulcer is never in a healthy ſtate.

In indolent ulcers, whether the

indolence arifes from the nature of the parts, or the nature of the inflammation, the pus is made up of globules and flaky particles, floating in a tranſparent fluid; and globules and flakes are in different proportions, according to the degree of indolence: this is particularly obſervable in ſcrophulous abſceſſes, preceded by a ſmall degree of inflammation. That this flaky appearance is no part of true pus, is well illuſtrated by obſerving, that the proportion it bears to the globules is greateſt where there is the leaſt inflammation; and in thoſe abſceſſes that ſometimes occur, which have not been preceded by any inflammation at all, the contents are wholly made up of a curdy or flaky ſubſtance, of different degrees of conſiſtence, which is not conſidered to be pus, from its not having the properties ſtated in the definition of that fluid.

The conſtitution and part muſt be in health to form good pus; for very ſlight changes in the general health are capable of producing an alteration in it, and even of preventing its being formed at all, and ſubſtituting in its place coagulating lymph.

This happens moſt readily in ulcers in the lower extremities, owing to the diſtance of the parts from the ſource of the circulation, rendering them weaker. And it is curious to obſerve the influence that diſtance alone has upon the appearance of pus.

A man had a compound fracture of the right leg, and an ulcer on the ankle of the left. He was in tolerable health, the ulcer looking well. An attack of fever came on ſoon after, when the ulcer on the ankle ceaſed to form good pus, the matter not ſeparating readily from its ſurface, while the compound fracture continued to look very well; but in twelve hours more the ſame change had taken place in the opening of the compound fracture, which was about ſix inches higher up the leg than the ulcer. In irritable ulcers, the diſcharge is often thin, being principally made up of an aqueous fluid, poſſeſſed of an irritating quality, and containing few globules; ſuch ulcers are commonly attended with hæmorrhage from the ſmaller veſſels, by which the diſcharge is very materially altered in its properties, is rendered acrid, and more ready to run into putrefaction than true pus. We find, however, in many irritable conſtitutions, the ſame appearances that were mentioned to take place in the indolent, the coagulating lymph being thrown out, and adhering firmly to the ſurface of the ulcer; therefore the appearance of an ulcer alone will not lead us to a correct judgment of its nature, but will only inform us whether it is healthy or unhealthy.

Although theſe different appearances of pus have been noticed, from their being ſo connected with its hiſtory as to deſerve attention, they are not to be conſidered as belonging to true pus, but as ariſing from a defect in the proceſs, whatever it is, by which pus is formed.

Pus differs from chyle in its globules being larger, not coagulating by expoſure to the air, nor by heat, which thoſe of chyle do.

The pancreatic juice contains globules, but they are much ſmaller than thoſe of pus.

Milk is compoſed of globules, nearly of the ſame ſize as thoſe of pus, but much more numerous. Milk coagulates by runnet, which pus does not; and contains oil and ſugar, which are not to be diſcovered in pus.

The caſes in which pus is formed are, properly ſpeaking, all reducible to one, which is, the ſtate of parts conſequent to inflammation. For, as far as we yet know, pus has in no inſtance been met with unleſs preceded

by inflammation; and although, in ſome caſes, a fluid has been formed independent of preceding inflammation, it differs from pus in many of its properties, as has been already obſerved.

In inflammation, the ſmaller blood-veſſels become conſiderably enlarged; and, what is curious, this takes place in the greateſt degree in the veins; the ſmall veſſels are not only enlarged, but become more numerous; which proceed entirely from the blood being propelled further than uſual in the old veins, but from new ones being formed; and this takes place in a much ſhorter time than has been imagined. It is highly probable, that theſe new veſſels are ſo conſtructed, as to make the blood undergo certain changes, by which the fluid that afterwards conſtitutes pus is formed.

It has been long aſcertained, that new veſſels are generated in extravaſated coagula of blood, and exudations of coagulating lymph. The following caſe aſcertains the period in which this effect can be produced to be within twenty-four hours; and we know, that pus commonly requires a much longer time for its formation, under the ſame circumſtances, and in ſimilar parts.

Mr. Home performed the operation for the ſtrangulated hernia upon a man in other reſpects in health, at ſeven o'clock in the morning. The hernial ſac was laid open, and the gut, which proved to be a portion of the ilium about ſix inches in length, was attentively examined, previous to its being returned into the cavity of the belly. It had the natural poliſhed ſurface peculiar to an inteſtine; and although its veſſels were turgid with blood, it did not appear that they were uncommonly numerous. After the operation, the ſymptoms did not abate ſo much as might have been expected; and, during the afternoon he complained of pain in the lower part of his belly. He had no paſſage by ſtool; and next morning, about ſeven o'clock, his pulſe was ſcarcely perceptible to the touch; his ſkin cold and clammy; and, about twelve o'clock at noon, he died, having lived twenty-nine hours after the operation.

The body was opened, and the portion of gut which had been ſtrangulated was found conſiderably inflamed, the external ſurface having loſt its natural poliſh, and having ſeveral ſmall portions of exudated coagulating lymph adhering to it. The veſſels of the gut were minutely injected, the arteries with a red coloured injection, and the veins with a yellow one. Upon examination afterwards, all theſe adhering portions of coagulating lymph were found to be injected, having a conſiderable artery going to each of them, and a returning vein, which was larger than the artery. It is evident, therefore, that the coagulating lymph was laid upon the external ſurface of the gut after the operation; and we cannot ſuppoſe, that any ſuch proceſs as the forming new veſſels, could have been going on during the laſt five hours of his life, when the pulſe in the wriſt was ſcarcely to be felt, and the powers of life were ſo much weakened in every reſpect. We muſt therefore conclude, that the whole operation of throwing out coagulating lymph, and ſupplying it with blood-veſſels after it had become ſolid, was effected in leſs than twenty-four hours.

This ſhows, that inflammation forms a vaſcular ſurface previous to the formation of pus. Is it not, therefore, highly probable, that the newly formed parts are ſo organized as to ſecrete that fluid?

In conſidering the time required for the formation of pus, it is neceſſary to take notice of the periods

which are found, under different circumſtances, to intervene between a healthy or natural ſtate of the parts, and the preſence of that fluid after the application of ſome irritating ſubſtance to the ſkin.

In caſes of wounds made into muſcular parts, where blood veſſels are divided, the firſt proceſs which takes place is the extravaſation of red blood; the ſecond is the exudation of coagulating lymph, which afterwards becomes vaſcular; and the third, the formation of matter, which laſt does not, in common, take place in leſs than two days; the preciſe time will, however, vary exceedingly, according to the nature of the conſtitution, and the ſtate of the parts at the time.

If an irritating ſubſtance is applied to a cuticular ſurface, upon which it raiſes a bliſter, pus will be formed in about twenty-four hours.

Pustŭla, (*Puſtula*, *æ*, f. dim. of *pus*, matter). See *Puſtule*.

Pustule. An elevation of the cuticle, ſometimes globate, ſometimes conoidal in its form, and containining pus, or a lymph which is in general diſcoloured. Puſtules are various in their ſize, but the diameter of the largeſt ſeldom exceeds two lines. There are many different kinds of puſtules, properly diſtinguiſhed in medical authors, by ſpecific appellations, as 1. *Phlyzacium*, a ſmall puſtule containing pus, and raiſed on a hard, circular, inflamed baſe, of a vivid red colour. It is ſucceeded by a thick, hard, dark-coloured ſcab. 2. *Pſydracium*, a minute puſtule, irregularly circumſcribed, producing but a ſlight elevation of the cuticle, and terminating in a laminated ſcab. Many of theſe puſtules uſually appear together, and become confluent. When mature they contain pus; and after breaking, diſcharge a thin watery humour.

Putamen, (*Putamen*, *inis*, n. from *puto*, to cut). The bark or paring of any vegetable. The putamen, or green rind of the walnut, has been celebrated as a powerful antivenereal remedy, for more than a century and a half; and Petrus Borellus has given directions for a decoction not unlike that which is commonly called the Liſbon diet drink, in which the walnut, with its green bark, forms a principal ingredient. Ramazzini, whoſe works were publiſhed early in the preſent century, has likewiſe informed us, that in his time the green rind of the walnut was eſteemed a good antivenereal remedy in England. This part of the walnut has been much uſed in decoctions, during the laſt fifty years, both in the green and dry ſtate; it has been greatly recommended by writers on the continent, as well as by thoſe of our own country; and is, without doubt, a very uſeful addition to the decoction of the woods. Mr. Pearſon has employed it during many years, in thoſe caſes where pains in the limbs and indurations of the membranes have remained, after the venereal diſeaſe has been cured by mercury; and he informs us, that he has ſeldom directed it without manifeſt advantage.

Brambilla and Girtanner alſo contend for the antivenereal virtues of the green bark of the walnut; but the reſult of Mr. P.'s experience will not permit him to add his teſtimony to theirs. I have given it, ſays he, in as large doſes as the ſtomach could retain, and for as long a time as the ſtrength of the patients, and the nature of their complaints, would permit; but I have uniformly obſerved, that if they who take it be not previouſly cured of *lues venerea*, the peculiar ſymptoms will appear, and proceed in their uſual courſe, in defiance of the powers of this medicine.

The *Decoctum luſitanicum* may be given with great advantage in many of thoſe cutaneous diſeaſes which are attended with aridity of the ſkin; and I have had ſome opportunities of obſerving, that when the putamen of the walnut has been omitted, either intentionally or by accident, the ſame good effects have not followed the taking of the decoction, as when it contained this ingredient.

PUTREFACTION OF THE HUMAN BODY. The ſame requiſites are neceſſary to the putrefaction of the human body, as are required for the putrid fermentation of vegetables. 1. *A certain degree of heat:* thus bodies putrefy ſooner immerſed in water, and more ſlowly when buried in a very dry earth, which abſorbs the moiſture from the body. 2. *The acceſs of atmoſpheric air.* Thus bodies putrefy ſooner when expoſed to the open air, than when buried. In like manner, animal ſubſtances, in the exhauſted receiver of an air-pump, go very ſlowly into putrefaction. Animals putrefy quickeſt in vital air; ſlower in carbonic; and in muriatic air, the ſloweſt. 3. *A temperature of heat* of at leaſt ten degrees. Thus bodies putrefy ſooner in ſummer than in winter. If the heat be conſiderable, and ſuddenly applied, then the body is dried into a mummy. If the cold be intenſe, bodies may be preſerved free from putrefaction for many months.

The fluids of the body are firſt diſſipated in the air, then the ſoft parts, and at length, after many ages, the ſubſtance of the bones themſelves, volatilized by putrefaction, totally evaporate. For coffins have been found, which had been depoſited for centuries, and well cloſed, in which not the leaſt appearance of a body could be detected. The dead body, therefore, does not reſolve itſelf into earth, to be mixed with the duſt, but into air, from which it was made. For the ſoil of burying-places, in which for ages, an immenſe number of bodies have putrefied, is not at all elevated: and, were it otherwiſe, the whole ſurface of the earth would by this time, from the accumulated bodies of dead men and animals, have become a maſs of animal earth: which is no where found to be the caſe. Nor are dead bodies, when depoſited in the earth, the food of worms. For theſe are only found in bodies expoſed to the atmoſphere, or at leaſt ſuperficially buried, and not in thoſe to which the air has no acceſs.

The phenomena of a putrefying body are: 1. *Emphyſematous ſwelling*, whence ariſes the diſpoſition in drowned bodies to ſwim, after a time, on the ſurface. This intumeſcence, or ſwelling, ariſes from the converſion of the putrefying fluids into the gaſeous ſtate. 2. *A cadaverous odour is exhaled*, which is ſpecific, and affects the noſtrils. 3. *The whole ſurface of the body* acquires a yellow tinge, interſperſed here and there with greeniſh, livid, and black ſpots. Theſe by degrees burſt, and emit an intolerable putrid fetor, deſtructive to man. 4. At length the ſwelling, after a ſhort time, ſubſides, the ruptured ſpots diſcharge a cadaverous *ſanies*, by which the whole body is changed into a brown or greeniſh pultaceous maſs; and the cadaverous ſtench is again emitted, though weaker. 5. This putrid maſs at length dries into a browniſh, black, friable ſubſtance. This change is effected, for the moſt part, in eighteen months, and at longeſt within three years. 6. Of all the parts of the body, the bones reſiſt decompoſition the longeſt, on account of their earthy compages; but at length they give way. Auguſtus, when he viſited the tomb of Alexander the Great, found the body, to all appearance, in the moſt perfect ſtate of preſerva-

tion; on the ſlighteſt touch, however, the unconquered hero, the former *Alexander*, crumbled into duſt!

The deeper an animal body is buried in the earth, the more ſlowly it putrefies; in a calcareous, more ſpeedily than in an argillaceous; but the quickeſt of all is in a moiſt ſandy ſoil. If the ſandy ſoil be very dry, and friable, defended from the air and rain, the gaſes conſtantly emitted, are abſorbed by the ſand; and the body, in this ſtate, is converted into a mummy.

The bodies of women are more readily convertible into mummy than thoſe of the males, on account of the greater ſubtilty of their humours. Out of fifty-two bodies dug up in this ſtate, from a cemetery at Paris, one only was a male.

Sometimes, though rarely, the ſoft parts are changed into a *ſaponaceous ſubſtance*, ſoluble in water; which, chemically examined, conſiſts of a peculiar oil, and volatile alkali. This change takes place when a number of bodies are ſo buried together, without any intermediate earth, that the gaſeous fluids which are emitted are not ſuffered to eſcape. In this caſe, one portion of the hydrogen combines with carbone, and forms oil; the other portion, with azote, is changed into volatile alkali, producing, when mixed, a ſaponaceous maſs; as was obſerved in the burying-ground at Paris.

PUTRID FERMENTATION. That proceſs by which a ſubſtance is decompoſed and diſſipated in the air, in the form of putrid gaz. Every living body, when deprived of life, performs a retrograde proceſs, and becomes decompoſed. This is called fermentation in vegetables, and putrefaction in animals. The ſame cauſes, the ſame agents, and the ſame circumſtances, determine and favour the decompoſition in vegetables and animals, and the difference of the products which are obtained, ariſes from the difference of the conſtituent parts of each. The requiſites to this proceſs are, 1. A certain degree of humidity. 2. The acceſs of atmoſpheric air. 3. A certain degree of heat. See alſo *Fermentation*.

PUTRID FEVER. A ſpecies of typhus. See *Typhus gravior*.

PYLORIC ARTERY. A branch of the hepatic artery.

PYLŌRUS, (*Pylorus*, *i*, m. πυλωρος, from πυλυω, to guard an entrance; becauſe it guards, as it were, the entrance of the bowels). The inferior aperture of the ſtomach, which opens into the inteſtines.

PYRAMĬDĀLIS, (*Pyramidalis*, ſc. *muſculus*; from πυραμις, a pyramid). Fallopius, who is conſidered as the firſt accurate deſcriber of this muſcle, firſt gave it the name of *pyramidalis*, from its ſhape. But Veſalius ſeems to have been acquainted with it, and to have deſcribed it as a part of the rectus. It is a very ſmall muſcle, ſituated at the bottom of the fore part of the rectus, and is covered by the ſame aponeuroſis that forms the anterior part of the ſheath of that muſcle. It ariſes, by ſhort tendinous fibres, from the upper and fore part of the pubis. From this origin, which is ſeldom more than an inch in breadth, its fibres aſcend ſomewhat obliquely, to be inſerted into the linea alba, and inner edge of the rectus, commonly at about the diſtance of two inches from the pubis, and frequently at a greater or leſs diſtance, but always below the umbilicus. In ſome ſubjects the pyramidalis is wanting on one or both ſides, and when this happens, the internal oblique is uſually found to be of greater thickneſs at its lower part. Now and then, though rarely, there are two at one ſide, and only one at the other, and M. Sabbatier has even ſeen two on each ſide. Fallopius, and

many others after him, have considered it as the congener of the internal oblique; but its use seems to be to assist the lower part of the rectus.

Pyramĭdālis faciei. See *Levator labii superioris alæque nasi.*

Pyrĕthrum, (*Pyrethrum, i,* n. πυρεθρον, from πυρ, fire, because of the hot taste of its root). *Dentaria. Herba salivaris. Pes alexandrinus.* Pellitory of Spain. *Anthemis pyrethrum* of Linnæus. *Anthemis caulibus simplicibus unifloris decumbentibus, foliis pinnato-multifidis.* Class *Syngenesia.* Order *Polygamia superflua.* The ancient Romans, we are told, employed the root of this plant as a pickle. In its recent state it is not so pungent as when dried, yet if applied to the skin, it is said to produce inflammation. Its qualities are stimulant; but it is never used, except as a masticatory, for relieving tooth-achs, rheumatic affections of the face, and paralysis of the tongue, in which it affords relief by stimulating the excretory ducts of the salival glands.

Pyrĕthrum sylvestre. See *Ptarmica.*

Pyretology, (*Pyretologia, æ,* f. πυρετολογια, from πυρ, fire, or heat, and λογος, a discourse). A discourse or doctrine on fevers.

Pyrexĭa, (*Pyrexia, æ,* f. πυρεξια, from πυρ, fire). Fever.

Pyrexiæ. Febrile diseases. The first class of Cullen's nosology; characterized by frequency of pulse after a cold shivering, with increase of heat, and especially, among other impaired functions, a diminution of strength.

Pyriformis, (*Pyriformis, is,* from *pyrus,* a pear, and *forma,* a shape, shaped like a pear). *Pyriformis,* seu *iliacus externus* of Douglas. Spigelius was the first who gave a name to this muscle, which he called *pyriformis,* from its supposed resemblance to a pear. It is a small radiated muscle, situated under the glutæus maximus, along the inferior edge of the glutæus minimus. It arises by three, and sometimes four tendinous and fleshy origins, from the anterior surface of the second, third, and fourth pieces of the os sacrum, so that this part of it is within the pelvis. From these origins the muscle grows narrower, and passing out of the pelvis, below the niche in the posterior part of the ilium, from which it receives a few fleshy fibres, is inserted, by a roundish tendon of an inch in length, into the upper part of the cavity at the root of the trochanter major. The use of this muscle is to assist in moving the thigh outwards, and in moving it a little upwards.

Pyrites, (*Pyrites, æ,* m. πυριτες, from πυρ, fire; so called because it strikes fire with steel). A metallic substance, formed of iron united with sulphur, from which all the sulphur of commerce is obtained.

Pyrites arsenĭcāles. See *Arsenic.*

Pyrmont water. A general view of the analysis of this water will show, that it stands the first in rank of the highly carbonated chalybeates, and contains such an abundance of carbonic acid, as not only to hold dissolved a number of carbonic salts, but to show all the properties of this acid uncombined, and in its most active form. Pyrmont water is likewise a strong chalybeate, with regard to the proportion of iron; and it is besides a very hard water, containing much selenite and earthy carbonats. The diseases to which this mineral water may be advantageously applied, are the same as those for which the spa and others of the acidulated chalybeates are resorted to, that is, in all cases of debility that require an active tonic that is not permanently heating; various disorders in the alimentary canal, especially bilious, vomiting, and diar-

rhœa, and complaints that originate from obſtructed menſtruation.

Pyrŏla, (*Pyrola, æ*, from *pyrus*, a pear; ſo named becauſe its leaves reſemble thoſe of the pear-tree). Round leaved wintergreen. This elegant little plant, *Pyrola rotundifolia* of Linnæus, is now forgotten in the practice of medicine. It poſſeſſes gently adſtringent qualities, and has a ſomewhat bitter taſte.

Pyrŏla rotundĭfolĭa. The ſyſtematic name of the wintergreen. See *Pyrola*.

Pyro-lignĕous acid. *Acidum pyro-lignoſum*. An acid liquor of a brown colour, of a pretty ſtrong and peculiar ſmell, obtained by diſtillation from wood, eſpecially the beech, birch, and box. It is thought by ſome chemiſts to be acetic acid.

Pyro-lignites, (*Pyro-lignis, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the pyro-lignic acid with different baſes.

Pyro-mucites, (*Pyro-mucis, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the pyro-mucic acid with different baſes.

Pyro-mucous acid. *Acidum pyro-mucoſum*. Syrupous acid. The acid liquor obtained by diſtillation from inſipid, ſaccharine, gummy, farinaceous mucilages. The celebrated Gren is of opinion, that it is a mixture of acetic with oxalic acid, and does not deſerve to be received in the ſyſtem of chemiſtry as a peculiar acid.

Pyro-tartrites, (*Pyro-tartris, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the combination of the pyro-tartrous acid with different baſes.

Pyro-tartrous acid. *Acidum pyro-tartroſum*. See *Tartar, ſpirit of*.

Pyrōsis, (*Pyroſis, is*, f. πυρωσις, from πυροω, to burn). The heart-burn. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes* and order *ſpaſmi* of Cullen; known by a burning pain in the ſtomach, attended with copious eructation, generally of a watery inſipid fluid.

Pyrus cydonĭa. The ſyſtematic name of the quince tree. See *Cydonium malum*.

Pyrus malus, The ſyſtematic name of the apple-tree. See *Apples*.

Q.

Q. P. An abbreviation of *quantum placet*, as much as you pleaſe.

Q. S. The contractions for *quantum ſufficit*.

Q. V. An abbreviation of *quantum vis*, as much as you will.

Quadrātus. See *Depreſſor labii inferioris*.

Quadātus femŏris, (*Quadratus*, from *quadra*, a ſquare; ſo called from its ſuppoſed ſhape). A muſcle of the thigh ſituated on the outſide of the pelvis. It is a flat, thin, and fleſhy muſcle, but not of the ſhape its name would ſeem to indicate. It is ſituated immediately be-

low the gemini. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the external ſurface and lower edge of the tuberoſity of the iſchium, and is inſerted by ſhort tendinous fibres into a ridge which is ſeen extending from the baſis of the trochanter major to that of the trochanter minor. Its uſe is to bring the os femoris outwards.

QUADRĀTUS GENÆ. See *Platiſma myoides*.

QUADRĀTUS LABĬI INFERĬORIS. See *Depreſſor labii inferioris*.

QUADRĀTUS LUMBŌRUM. *Quadratus, ſeu Lumbaris externus* of Winſlow. A muſcle ſituated within the cavity of the abdomen. This is a ſmall, flat, and oblong muſcle, that has gotten the name of *quadratus* from its ſhape, which is that of an irregular ſquare. It is ſituated laterally, at the lower part of the ſpine. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy, from about two inches from the poſterior part of the ſpine of the ilium. From this broad origin it aſcends obliquely inwards, and is inſerted into the tranſverſe proceſſes of the four ſuperior lumbar vertebræ, into the lower edge of the laſt rib, and, by a ſmall tendon, that paſſes up under the diaphragm, into the ſide of the laſt vertebra of the back. When this muſcle acts ſingly, it draws the loins to one ſide; when both muſcles act, they ſerve to ſupport the ſpine, and perhaps to bend it forwards. In laborious reſpiration, the quadratus lumborum may aſſiſt in pulling down the ribs.

QUADRĀTUS MAXILLÆ INFERĬORIS. See *Platyma myoides*.

QUADRĀTUS RADĬI. See *Pronator radii quadratus*.

QUARTAN AGUE. Of this ſpecies of ague, as well as the other kinds, there are ſeveral varieties noticed by authors. The moſt frequent of theſe are, 1. The double quartan, with two paroxyſms or fits on the firſt day, none on the ſecond and third, and two again on the fourth day. 2. The double quartan, with a paroxyſm on the firſt day, another on the ſecond, but none on the third. 3. The triple quartan, with three paroxyſms every fourth day. 4. The triple quartan, with a ſlight paroxyſm every day, every fourth paroxyſm being ſimilar. See alſo *Febris intermittens*.

QUARTZ. This name is given to the opake or irregularly figured vitrifiable ſtone.

QUASSĬA, (*Quaſſia, æ*, f. from a ſlave of the name of *Quaſſi*, who firſt uſed it with uncommon ſucceſs as a ſecret remedy in the malignant endemic fevers which frequently prevailed at Surinam). Bitter quaſſia. The root, bark, and wood of this tree, *Quaſſia amara* of Linnæus (*Quaſſia floribus hermaphroditis, foliis impari-pinnatis, foliolis oppoſitis ſeſſilibus, petiolo articulato alato, floribus racemoſis*. Suppl. Plant. Claſs *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*), are all comprehended in the catalogues of the materia medica. The tree is a native of South America, particularly of Surinam, and alſo of ſome of the Weſt India iſlands. The botanical character of this ſpecies of quaſſia was known long before that of the ſimarouba, as it is noticed in its proper place in the Sp. Plantarum, upon the authority of Dahlberg, when it was thought peculiar to Surinam. Afterwards, Linnæus, in his Materia Medica, referred it to the *Nux Americana, foliis alatis bifidis* of Commelin.

The roots are perfectly ligneous; they may be medically conſidered in the ſame light as the wood, which is now moſt generally employed, and ſeems to differ from the bark in being leſs intenſely bitter; the latter is therefore thought to be a more powerful medicine. Quaſſia has no ſenſible odour; its taſte is that of a pure bitter, more intenſe and durable than

that of almoſt any other known ſubſtance; it imparts its virtues more completely to watery than to ſpirituous menſtrua, and its infuſions are not blackened by the addition of martial vitriol. The watery extract is from a ſixth to a ninth of the weight of the wood, the ſpirituous about a twenty-fourth. Quaſſia, as before obſerved, derived its name from a negro named Quaſſi, who employed it with uncommon ſucceſs as a ſecret remedy in the malignant endemic fevers which frequently prevailed at Surinam. In conſequence of a valuable conſideration, this ſecret was diſcloſed to Daniel Rolander, a Swede, who brought ſpecimens of the quaſſia wood to Stockholm, in the year 1756; and, ſince then, the effects of this drug have been generally tried in Europe, and numerous teſtimonies of its efficacy publiſhed by many reſpectable authors. Various experiments with quaſſia have likewiſe been made, with a view to aſcertain its antiſeptic powers; from which it appears to have conſiderable influence in retarding the tendency to putrefaction; and this, Profeſſor Murray thinks, cannot be attributed to its ſenſible qualities, as it poſſeſſes no adſtringency whatever; nor can it depend upon its bitterneſs, as gentian is much bitterer, yet leſs antiſeptic. The medicinal virtues aſcribed to quaſſia are thoſe of a tonic, ſtomachic, antiſeptic, and febrifuge. It has been found very effectual in reſtoring digeſtion, expelling flatulencies, and removing habitual coſtiveneſs, produced from debility of the inteſtines, and common to a ſedentary life. Dr. Lettſom, whoſe extenſive practice gave him an opportunity of trying the effects of quaſſia in a great number of caſes, ſays, "In debility, ſucceeding febrile diſeaſes, the Peruvian bark is moſt generally more tonic and ſalutary than any other vegetable hitherto known; but in hyſterical atony, to which the female ſex is ſo prone, the quaſſia affords more vigour and relief to the ſyſtem than the other, eſpecially when united with the vitriolum album, and ſtill more with the acid of ſome abſorbent." In dyſpepſia, ariſing from hard drinking, and alſo in diarrhœas, the doctor exhibited the quaſſia with great ſucceſs. But, with reſpect to the tonic and febrifuge qualities of quaſſia, he ſays, "I by no means ſubſcribe to the Linnæan opinion, where the author declares, me quidem judice chinchinam longe ſuperat." It is very well known, that there are certain peculiarities of the air, and idioſyncraſies of conſtitution, unfavourable to the exhibition of Peruvian bark, even in the moſt clear intermiſſions of fever; and writers have repeatedly noticed it. But this is comparatively very rare. About midſummer 1785, Dr. L. met with ſeveral inſtances of low remittent and nervous fevers, wherein the bark uniformly aggravated the ſymptoms, though given in intermiſſions the moſt favourable to its ſucceſs, and wherein quaſſia, or ſnake-root, was ſucceſsfully ſubſtituted. In ſuch caſes, he moſtly obſerved, that there was great congeſtion in the hepatic ſyſtem, and the debility at the ſame time diſcouraged copious evacuations. And in many fevers, without evident remiſſions to warrant the uſe of the bark, whilſt, at the time, increaſing debility began to threaten the life of the patient, the Doctor found that quaſſia, or ſnake-root, ſingly or combined, upheld the vital powers, and promoted a critical intermiſſion of fever, by which an opportunity was offered for the bark to effect a cure. It may be given in infuſion, or in pills made from the watery extract; the former is generally preferred, in the proportion of three or four drachms of the wood to twelve ounces of water.

QUASSIA AMĀRA. The ſyſtema-

tic name of the bitter quaſſia tree. See *Quaſſia.*

QUASSIA SIMAROUBA. The ſyſtematic name of the ſimarouba quaſſia. See *Simarouba.*

QUASSY. See *Quaſſia.*

QUEEN OF THE MEADOW. See *Ulmaria.*

QUERCŬLA, (*Quercula, æ*, f. dim. of *quercus*, the oak; ſo called becauſe it has leaves like the oak). An antiquated name of the germander. See *Chamædrys.*

QUERCUS, (*Quercus, us*, f. from *quero*, to enquire; becauſe divinations were formerly given from oaks by the Druids). The oak. *Quercus robur* of Linnæus. *Quercus foliis oblongis glabris ſinuatis, lobis rotundatis, glandibus oblongis.* Claſs *Monoecia.* Order *Polyandria.* This valuable tree is indigenous to Britain. Its adſtringent effects were ſufficiently known to the ancients, but it is the bark which is now directed for medicinal uſe by our pharmacopœias. Oak bark manifeſts to the taſte a ſtrong adſtringency, accompanied with a moderate bitterneſs. Like other adſtringents, it has been recommended in agues, and for reſtraining hæmorrhages, alvine fluxes, and other immoderate evacuations. A decoction of it has likewiſe been advantageouſly employed as a gargle, and as a fomentation or lotion in *procidentia recti et uteri.* Galls, which, in the warm climate of the Eaſt, are found upon the leaves of this tree, are occaſioned by a ſmall inſect with four wings, called *Cynips quercus folii*, which depoſits an egg in the ſubſtance of the leaf, by making a ſmall perforation through the under ſurface. The ball preſently begins to grow to a conſiderable ſize. Two ſorts of galls are diſtinguiſhed in the ſhops; one ſaid to be brought from Aleppo, the other from Turkey and the ſouthern parts of Europe. The former are generally of a blueiſh colour, or of a grayiſh or black verging to blueneſs; unequal and warty on the ſurface; hard to break; and of a cloſe compact texture: the other of a light browniſh or whitiſh colour, ſmooth, round, eaſily broken, leſs compact, and of a much larger ſize. The two ſorts differ only in ſize and ſtrength, two of the blue galls being ſuppoſed equivalent in this reſpect to three of the others. Galls appear to be the moſt powerful of the vegetable adſtringents. As a medicine, they are to be conſidered as applicable to the ſame indications as the oak-bark, and by poſſeſſing a greater degree of adſtringent and ſtyptic power, ſeem to have an advantage over it, and to be better ſuited for external uſe. Reduced to fine powder, and made into an ointment, they have been found of great ſervice in hæmorrhoidal affections.

QUERCUS CERRIS. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the Turkey galls. See *Quercus.*

QUERCUS ESCULUS. The ſyſtematic name of the Italian oak, whoſe acorns are, in times of ſcarcity, ſaid to afford a meal of which bread is made.

QUERCUS MARĪNA. The ſea oak. Sea wrack. This ſea-weed is the *Fucus veſiculoſus*; *fronde plana dichotoma coſtata integerrima, veſiculis axillaribus geminis, terminalibus tuberculatis* of Linnæus. It is ſaid to be a uſeful aſſiſtant to ſea water in the cure of diſorders of the glands. Burnt in the open air, and reduced to a black powder, it forms the æthiops vegetabilis, which, as an internal medicine, is ſimilar to burnt ſponge.

QUERCUS PHELLOS. The ſyſtematic name of the willow-leaved oak, whoſe acorns are much ſweeter than cheſnuts, and much eaten by the Indians. They afford by expreſſion an oil little inferior to oil of almonds.

QUERCUS ROBUR. The ſyſtematic name of the oak tree. See *Quercus.*

QUERCUS SUBER. The ſyſtematic name of the cork-tree. See *Suber*.

QUICK-GRASS. The *Triticum repens* of Linnæus, is ſometimes ſo called. See *Gramen caninum*.

QUICK-LIME. See *Lime*.

QUICKSILVER. See *Hydrargyrus*.

QUID PRO QUO. Theſe words are applied the ſame as *ſuccedaneum*, when one thing is made uſe of to ſupply the defect of another.

QUINCE. See *Cydonium malum*.

QUINCE, BENGAL. See *Bengal quince*.

QUINCY. The *Cynanche tonſillaris* of Cullen. See *Cynanche*.

QUNISEY. A ſpecies of cynanche. See *Cynanche*.

QUINQUEFOLĬUM. (*Quinquefolium, i*, f. from *quinque*, five, and *folium*, a leaf; ſo called becauſe it has five leaves on each footſtalk). Cinquefoil or five-leaved graſs. See *Pentaphyllum*.

QUINQUĬNA. See *Cinchona*.

QUOTIDIAN AGUE. See *Febris intermittens*.

R.

R. This letter is placed at the beginning of a preſcription as a contraction of *recipe*, take: thus, ℞ *Magneſ. alb.* ʒj, ſignifies, Take a dram of magneſia.

RABIES CANĪNA. See *Hydrophobia*.

RACHIALGĬA, (*Rachialgia, æ*, f. from ῥαχις, the ſpine, and αλφυ, pain). A pain in the ſpine. It was formerly applied to ſeveral ſpecies of cholic which induced pain in the back.

RACHĪTIS, (*Rachitis, ĭdis*, f, ῥαχίτις; from ῥαχις, the ſpine of the back; ſo called becauſe it was ſuppoſed to originate in a fault of the ſpinal marrow). The rickets. A ſpecies of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ*, and order *intumeſcentiæ* of Cullen; known by a large head, prominent forehead, protruded ſternum, flattened ribs, big belly, and emaciated limbs, with great debility. It is uſually confined in its attack between the two periods of nine months and two years of age, ſeldom appearing ſooner than the former, or ſhewing itſelf for the firſt time after the latter period. The muſcles become flaccid, the head enlarges, the carotids are diſtended, the limbs waſte away, and their epiphyſes increaſe in bulk. The bones and ſpine of the back are variouſly diſtorted; diſinclination to muſcular exertion follows: the abdomen ſwells and grows hard; the ſtools are frequent and looſe; a ſlow fever ſucceeds, with cough and difficulty of reſpiration: atrophy is confirmed, and death enſues. Frequently it happens that nature reſtores the general health, and leaves the limbs diſtorted.

After death, the liver and the ſpleen have been found enlarged and ſchirrhous; the meſenteric glands indurated, and the lungs either charged with vomicæ, or adhering to the pleura; the bones ſoft; the brain flaccid or oppreſſed with lymph, and the diſtended bowels loaded moſt frequently with ſlime, ſometimes with worms.

It is remarkable, that in the kindred diſeaſe, which Hoffmann and Sauvage call the atrophy of infants, we have many of the ſame ſymp-

toms and the ſame appearances nearly after death. They who periſh by this diſeaſe, ſays Hoffmann, have the meſenteric glands enlarged and ſchirrhous; the liver and ſpleen obſtructed and increaſed in ſize; the inteſtines are much inflated, and are loaded with black and fœtid matters, and the muſcles, more eſpecially of the abdomen, waſte away.

RACKASĪRA BALSĂMUM. See *Balſamum rackaſira.*

RACŌSIS, (*Racoſis, is*, f. ῥακωσις, from ῥακος, a rag). A ragged excoriation of the relaxed ſcrotum.

RADIAL ARTERY. *Arteria radialis.* A branch of the humeral artery, that runs down the ſide of the radius.

RADĬALIS EXTERNUS BREVĬOR. See *Extenſor carpi radialis brevior.*

RADĬALIS EXTERNUS LONGĬOR. See *Extenſor carpi radialis longior.*

RADĬALIS EXTERNUS PRIMUS. See *Extenſor carpi radialis longior.*

RADĬALIS INTERNUS. See *Flexor carpi radialis.*

RADĬALIS SECUNDUS. See *Extenſor carpi radialis brevior.*

RADICŬLA, (*Radicula, æ*, f. dim. of *radix*, a root). A little root; the fibrous part of a root. The common radiſh is ſometimes ſo called. See *Raphanus hortenſis.*

RADICŬLA. A ſmall root or radicle. A term ſometimes applied by anatomiſts to expreſs the ſmaller origin of ſome nerves.

RADISH, HORSE. See *Raphanus ruſticanus.*

RADISH, GARDEN. See *Raphanus hortenſis.*

RADĬUS, (*Radius, i.* m. a ſtaff or beam; ſo called from its reſemblance). This bone has gotten its name from its ſuppoſed reſemblance to the ſpoke of a wheel, or to a weaver's beam; and ſometimes, from its ſupporting the hand, it has been called *manubrium manus.* Like the ulna, it is of a triangular figure, but it differs from that bone, in growing larger as it deſcends, ſo that its ſmaller part anſwers to the larger part of the ulna, and vice verſa. Of its two extremities, the uppermoſt and ſmalleſt is formed into a ſmall rounded head, furniſhed with cartilage, and hollowed at its ſummit, for an articulation with the little head at the ſide of the pulley of the os humeri. The round border of this head, next the ulna, is formed for an articulation with the leſſer ſygmoid cavity of that bone. This little head of the radius is ſupported by a neck, at the bottom of which, laterally, is a conſiderable tuberoſity, into the poſterior half of which is inſerted the poſterior tendon of the biceps, while the anterior half is covered with cartilage, and ſurrounded with a capſular ligament, ſo as to allow this tendon to ſlide upon it as upon a pulley. Immediately below this tuberoſity, the body of the bone may be ſaid to begin. We find it ſlightly curved thoughout its whole length, by which means a greater ſpace is formed for the lodgment of muſcles, and it is enabled to croſs the ulna without compreſſing them. Of the three ſurfaces, to be diſtinguiſhed on the body of the bone, the external and internal ones are the broadeſt and flatteſt. The anterior ſurface is narrower and more convex. Of its angles, the external and internal ones are rounded; but the poſterior angle, which is turned towards the ulna, is formed into a ſharp ſpine, which ſerves for the attachment of the interoſſeous ligament, of which mention is made in the deſcription of the ulna. This ſtrong ligament, which is a little interrupted above and below, ſerves not only to connect the bones of the fore-arm to each other, but likewiſe to afford a greater ſurface for the lodgment of muſcles. On the fore part of the bone, and at about one third of its length, from its upper end, we obſerve a channel for veſſels, ſlanting

obliquely upwards. Towards its lower extremity, the radius becomes broader, of an irregular ſhape, and ſomewhat flattened, affording three ſurfaces, of which the poſterior one is the ſmalleſt; the ſecond, which is a continuation of the internal ſurface of the body of the bone, is broader and flatter than the firſt; and the third, which is the broadeſt of the three, anſwers to the anterior and external ſurface of the body of the bone. On this laſt we obſerve ſeveral ſinuoſities, covered with a thin layer of cartilage, upon which ſlide the tendons of ſeveral muſcles of the wriſt and fingers. The loweſt part of the bone is formed into an oblong articulating cavity, divided into two by a ſlight tranſverſe riſing. This cavity is formed for an articulation with the bones of the wriſt. Towards the anterior and convex ſurface of the bone, this cavity is defended by a remarkable eminence, called the *ſtyloid* proceſs of the radius, which is covered with a cartilage that is extended to the lower extremity of the ulna; a ligament is likewiſe ſtretched from it to the wriſt. Beſides this large cavity, the radius has another much ſmaller one, oppoſite its ſtyloid proceſs, which is lined with cartilage, and receives the rounded ſurface of the ulna. The articulation of the radius with the leſſer ſygmoid cavity of the ulna, is ſtrengthened by a circular ligament, which is attached to the two extremities of that cavity, and from thence ſurrounds the head of the radius. This ligament is narroweſt, but thickeſt at its middle part. But, beſides this ligament, which connects the two bones of the fore arm with each other, the ligaments which ſecure the articulation of the radius with the os humeri, are common both to it and to the ulna, and therefore cannot well be underſtood till both theſe bones are deſcribed. Theſe ligaments are a capſular and two lateral ligaments. The capſular ligament is attached to the anterior and poſterior ſurfaces of the lower extremity of the os humeri, to the upper edges and ſides of the cavities we remarked at the bottom of the pulley and little head, and likewiſe to ſome part of the condyles: from thence it is ſpread over the ulna, to the edges of the greater ſygmoid cavity, ſo as to include in it the end of olecranon and of the coronoid proceſs; and is likewiſe fixed round the neck of the radius, ſo as to include the head of that bone within it. The lateral ligaments may be diſtinguiſhed into external and internal, or according to Winſlow, into *brachio radialis*, and *brachio cubitalis*. They both deſcend laterally from the loweſt part of each condyle of the os humeri, and, from their fibres ſpreading wide as they deſcend, have been compared to a gooſe's foot. The internal ligament, or brachio cubitalis, which is the longeſt and thickeſt of the two, is attached to the coronoid proceſs of the ulna. The external ligament, or brachio radialis, terminates in the circular ligament of the radius. Both theſe ligaments adhere firmly to the capſular ligament, and to the tendons of ſome of the adjacent muſcles. In conſidering the articulation of the fore-arm with the os humeri, we find that when both the bones are moved together upon the os humeri, the motion of the ulna upon the pulley allows only of flexion and extenſion; whereas, when the palm of the hand is turned downwards or upwards, or in other words, in pronation and ſupination, we ſee the radius moving upon its axis, and in theſe motions its head turns upon the little head of the os humeri at the ſide of the pulley, while its circular edge rolls in the leſſer ſygmoid cavity of the ulna. At the lower end of the fore-arm the edge of the ulna is received into a

ſuperficial cavity at the ſide of the radius. This articulation, which is ſurrounded by a looſe capſular ligament, concurs with the articulation above, in enabling the radius to turn with great facility upon its axis; and it is chiefly with the aſſiſtance of this bone that we are enabled to turn the palm of the hand upwards or downwards, the ulna having but a very inconſiderable ſhare in theſe motions.

RADIX, (*Radix, icis*, f.). A root.

RADIX BENGĀLE. See *Caſſumuniar.*

RADIX BRASILĬENSIS, See *Ipecacuanha.*

RADIX CALAGUALÆ. See *Calagualæ radix.*

RADIX CALAGUELLÆ. See *Calagualæ radix.*

RADIX CASSUMUNIAR. See *Caſſumuniar.*

RADIX CHYNLEN. See *Chynlen radix.*

RADIX COLOMBO. See *Colomba.*

RADIX DULCIS. See *Glycyrrhiza.*

RADIX IKAN. See *Ikan radix.*

RADIX INDĬCA LOPEZĬANA. See *Lopez radix.*

RADIX MATALISTA. See *Mataliſta radix.*

RADIX ROSEA. See *Rhodiola.*

RADIX RUBRA. See *Rubia.*

RADIX TIMAC. See *Timac.*

RADIX URSĪNA. See *Meum.*

RADŬLA. A wooden ſpatula or ſcraper.

RAGWORT. See *Jacobæa.*

RAISIN. See *Uva paſſa major.*

RAMENTA. The little ſlips, ſhreds, or filings of any thing.

RANA ESCULENTA. The French frog. The fleſh of this ſpecies of frog, very common in France, is highly nutritious and eaſily digeſted.

RANCID. Oily ſubſtances are ſaid to have become rancid when by keeping they acquire a ſtrong offenſive ſmell, and altered taſte.

RANINE ARTERY. *Arteria ranina.* Sublingual artery. The ſecond branch of the external carotid.

RANŬLA, (*Raunla, æ*, f. from *rana*, a frog; ſo called from its reſemblance to a frog, or becauſe it makes the patient croak like a frog). An inflammatory or indolent tumour under the tongue. Theſe tumours are of various ſizes and degrees of conſiſtence, ſeated on either ſide of the frænum. Children, as well as adults, are ſometimes affected with tumors of this kind; in the former they impede the action of ſucking; in the latter, of maſtication, and even ſpeech. The contents of them are various; in ſome, they reſemble the ſaliva, in others, the glairy matter found in the cells of ſwelled joints. Sometimes, it is ſaid that a fatty matter has been found in them; but from the nature and ſtructure of the parts, we are ſure that this can ſeldom happen; and in by far the greateſt number of caſes, we find that the contents reſemble the ſaliva itſelf. This, indeed, might naturally be expected, for the cauſe of theſe tumors is univerſally to be looked for in an obſtruction of the ſalivary ducts. Obſtructions here may ariſe from a cold, inflammation, violent fits of the tooth-ach, attended with ſwelling in the inſide of the mouth; and in not a few caſes we find the ducts obſtructed by a ſtony matter, ſeemingly ſeparated from the ſaliva, as the calculous matter is from the urine; but where inflammation has been the cauſe, we always find matter mixed with the other contents of the tumor. As theſe tumors are not uſually attended with much pain, they are ſometimes neglected, till they burſt of themſelves, which they commonly do when arrived at the bulk of a large nut. As

they were produced originally from an obſtruction in the ſalivary duct, and this obſtruction cannot be removed by the burſting of the tumour, it thence happens, that they leave an ulcer extremely difficult to heal, nay, which cannot be healed at all, till the cauſe is removed.

RANUNCŬLUS, (*Ranunculus, i,* m. dim. of *rana*, a frog; becauſe it is found in fenny places, where frogs abound). Water crow-foot. The great acrimony of moſt of the ſpecies of ranunculus is ſuch, that, on being applied to the ſkin, they excite itching, redneſs, and inflammation, and even produce bliſters, tumefaction, and ulceration of the part. On being chewed, they corrode the tongue; and, if taken into the ſtomach, bring on all the deleterious effects of an acrid poiſon. The corroſive acrimony which this family of plants poſſeſſes, was not unknown to the antients, as appears from the writings of Dioſcorides; but its nature and extent had never been inveſtigated by experiments, before thoſe inſtituted by C. Krapf, at Vienna, by which we learn, that the moſt virulent of the Linnæan ſpecies of ranunculus, are the bulboſus, ſceleratus, acris, arvenſis, thora, and illyricus.

The effects of theſe were tried, either upon himſelf or upon dogs, and ſhow, that the acrimony of the different ſpecies is often confined to certain parts of the plant, manifeſting itſelf either in the roots, ſtalks, leaves, flowers, or buds; the expreſſed juice, extract, decoction, and infuſion of the plants were alſo ſubjected to experiments. In addition to theſe ſpecies mentioned by Krapf, we may alſo notice the R. Fammula, and eſpecially the R. Alpeſtris, which, according to Haller, is the moſt acrid of this genus. Mr. Curtis obſerves, that even pulling up the ranunculus acris, the common meadow ſpecies, which poſſeſſes the active principle of this tribe in a very conſiderable degree throughout the whole herb, and carrying it to ſome little diſtance, excited a conſiderable inflammation in the palm of the hand in which it was held. It is neceſſary to remark, that the acrimonious quality of theſe plants is not of a fixed nature; for it may be completely diſſipated by heat; and the plant, on being thoroughly dried, becomes perfectly bland. Krapf attempted to counteract this venomous acrimony of the ranunculus by means of various other vegetables, none of which was found to anſwer the purpoſe, though he thought that the juice of ſorrel, and that of unripe currants, had ſome effect in this way; yet theſe were much leſs availing than water; while vinegar, honey, ſugar, wine, ſpirit, mineral acids, oil of tartar, p. d. and other ſapid ſubſtances, manifeſtly rendered the acrimony more corroſive. It may be alſo noticed, that the virulency of moſt of the plants of this genus, depends much upon the ſituation in which they grow, and is greatly diminiſhed in the cultivated plant.

RANUNCŬLUS ABORTĪVUS. The ſyſtematic name of a ſpecies of ranunculus which poſſeſſes acrid and veſicating properties.

RANUNCŬLUS ACRIS. The ſyſtematic name of the meadow crow-foot. See *Ranunculus pratenſis*.

RANUNCŬLUS ALBUS. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Anemone nemeroſa* of Linnæus. The bruiſed leaves and flowers are ſaid to cure tinea capitis applied to the part. The inhabitants of Kamſkatka, it is believed, poiſon their arrows with the root of this plant.

RANUNCŬLUS BULBŌSUS. Bulbous rooted crow-foot. The roots and leaves of this plant, *Ranunculus bulboſus; calycibus retroflexis, pedun-*

culis ſulcatis, caule erecto multifloro, foliis compoſitis of Linnæus, have no conſiderable ſmell, but a highly acid and fiery taſte. Taken internally, they appear to be deleterious, even when ſo far freed from the cauſtic matter by boiling in water, as to diſcover no ill quality to the palate. The effluvia, likewiſe, even when freely inſpired, is ſaid to occaſion headachs, anxieties, vomitings, &c. The leaves and roots, applied externally, inflame and ulcerate, or veſicate the parts, and are liable to affect alſo the adjacent parts to a conſiderable extent.

RANUNCŬLUS FICARĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the pilewort. See *Chelidonium minus*.

RANUNCŬLUS FLAMMŬLA. The ſyſtematic name of the ſmaller water crow-foot or ſpearwort. Its virtues and qualities are ſimilar to thoſe of the *Ranunculus bulboſus*.

RANUNCŬLUS PALUSTRIS. Water Crowfoot. The leaves of this ſpecies of crow-foot, *Ranunculus ſceleratus* of Linnæus, are ſo extremely acrid, that the beggars in Switzerland are ſaid, by rubbing their legs with them, to produce a very fetid and acrimonious ulceration.

RANUNCŬLUS PRATENSIS. Meadow crow-foot. *Ranunculus acris* of Linnæus.

This, and ſome other ſpecies of ranunculus, have, for medical purpoſes, been chiefly employed externally as a veſicatory, and are ſaid to have the advantage of a common bliſtering plaſter, in producing a quicker effect, and never cauſing ſtrangury; but, on the other hand, it has been obſerved, that the ranunculus is leſs certain in its operation, and that it ſometimes occaſions ulcers, which prove very troubleſome and difficult to heal. Therefore their uſe ſeems to be applicable only to certain fixed pains, and ſuch complaints as require a long continued topical ſtimulus or diſcharge from the part, in the way of an iſſue, which, in various caſes, has been found to be a powerful remedy.

RANUNCŬLUS SCELĔRĀTUS. The ſyſtematic name of the marſh crow-foot. See *Ranunculus paluſtris*.

RAPA, (*Rapa, æ*, f. *Ety.* uncertain). *Rapum*. The turnip. *Braſſica rapa* of Linnæus. Turnips are accounted a ſalubrious food, demulcent, detergent, ſomewhat laxative and diuretic, but liable, in weak ſtomachs, to produce flatulencies, and prove difficult of digeſtion. The liquor preſſed out of them, after boiling, is ſometimes taken medicinally in coughs and diſorders of the breaſt. The ſeeds are occaſionally taken as diuretics; they have no ſmell, but a mild acrid taſte.

RAPE. See *Rapus*.

RAPHANĬA, (*Raphania, æ*, f. from *raphanus*, the radiſh or ſharlock; becauſe the diſeaſe is ſaid to be produced by eating the ſeeds of that plant). A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes* and order *ſpaſmi* of Cullen; characterized by a ſpaſmodic contraction of the joints, with convulſive motions, and a moſt violent pain returning at various periods. It begins with cold chills and laſſitude, pain in the head, anxiety about the præcordia. Theſe ſymptoms are followed by ſpaſmodic twitchings in the tendons of the fingers and of the feet, diſcernible to the eye, heat, fever, ſtupor, delirium, ſenſe of ſuffocation, aphonia, and horrid convulſions of the limbs. After theſe, vomiting and diarrhæa come on, with a diſcharge of worms. About the eleventh or the twentieth day copious ſweats ſucceed, or purple exanthemata, or tabes, or rigidity of all the joints.

RAPHĂNUS HORTENSIS. *Radicula. Raphanus niger*. The radiſh. The ſeveral varieties of this plant,

Raphanus ſativus of Linnæus, are ſaid to be employed medicinally in the cure of calculous affections. The juice, made into a ſyrup, is given to relieve hoarſeneſs. Mixed with honey or ſugar, it is adminiſtered in pituitous aſthma; and, as antiſcorbutics, their efficacy is generally acknowledged.

RAPHĂNUS NIGER. See *Raphanus hortenſis*.

RĂPHĂNUS RUSTICĂNUS, (*Raphanus, i*, m. ῥαφανος, παρα το ῥαδιως φαινεσθαι, from its quick growth). *Armoracia*. Horſe-radiſh. The plant which affords this root is the *Cochlearia armoracia*; *foliis radicalibus lanceolatis crenatis, caulinis inciſis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Tetradynamia*. Order *Siliculoſa*. Horſe-radiſh has long been received into the materia medica, is alſo well known at our tables. "It affects the organs both of taſte and ſmell with a quick penetrating pungency; nevertheleſs it contains in certain veſſels a ſweet juice, which ſometimes exudes in little drops upon the ſurface. Its pungent matter is of a very volatile kind, being totally diſſipated in drying, and carried off in evaporation, or diſtillation by water, and rectified as the pungency exhales, the ſweet matter of the root becomes more ſenſible, though this alſo is, in a great meaſure, diſſipated or deſtroyed. It impregnates both water and ſpirit, by infuſion or by diſtillation, very richly with its active matters. In diſtillation with water, it yields a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil, exceedingly penetrating and pungent."

Dr. Cullen has mentioned every thing neceſſary to be known, reſpecting the medicinal virtues of horſe-radiſh, we ſhall therefore tranſcribe all that the ingenious profeſſor has written on this ſubject. "The root of this only is employed; and it affords one of the moſt acrid ſubſtances of this order (*Siliquoſe*), and therefore proves a powerful ſtimulant, whether externally or internally employed. Externally, it readily inflames the ſkin, and proves a rubefacient that may be employed with advantage in palſy and rheumatiſm; and, if its application be long continued, it produces bliſters. Taken internally, Dr. Cullen ſays it may be ſo managed as to relieve hoarſeneſs, by acting on the fauces. Received into the ſtomach, it ſtimulates this, and promotes digeſtion; and therefore is properly employed as a condiment with our animal food. If it be infuſed in water, and a portion of this infuſion be taken with a large draught of warm water, it readily proves emetic, and may either be employed by itſelf to excite vomiting, or to aſſiſt the operation of other emetics. Infuſed in water, and taken into the ſtomach, it proves ſtimulant to the nervous ſyſtem, and is thereby uſeful in palſy; and, if employed in large quantity, it proves heating to the whole body; and hereby it proves often uſeful in chronic rheumatiſm, whether ariſing from ſcurvy or other cauſes. Bergius has given us a particular method of exhibiting this root, which is, by cutting it down, without bruiſing, into ſmall pieces, and theſe, if ſwallowed without chewing, may be taken down in large quantities, to that of a table-ſpoonful. And the author alleges, that, in this way, taken in the morning for a month together, this root has been extremely uſeful in arthritic caſes; which, however, I ſuppoſe to have been of the rheumatic kind. It would ſeem, in this manner employed, analogous to the uſe of unbruiſed muſtard ſeed; it gives out in the ſtomach its ſubtle volatile parts, that ſtimulate conſiderably without inflaming. The matter of horſe-radiſh, like the ſame matter of the other ſiliquoſe plants carried into the blood-veſſels, paſſes readily into the kid-

neys, and proves a powerful diuretic, and is therefore useful in dropsy; and we need not say, that, in this manner, by promoting both urine and perspiration, it has been long known as one of the most powerful antiscorbutics."

RAPHĂNUS SATĪVUS. The systematic name of the radish plant. See *Raphanus hortensis*.

RAPHĂNUS SYLVESTRIS. The poor man's pepper is sometimes so called. See *Lepedium*.

RAPHE, (*Raphe, es*, f. ραφη, a suture). The rough eminence which divides the scrotum, as it were, in two. It proceeds from the root of the penis inferiorly towards the perinæum.

RAPHE CERĔBRI. The longidudinal eminence of the corpus callosum of the brain is so called, because it appears somewhat like a suture.

RAPUM, (*Rapum, i*, n. *Ety.* uncertain). See *Rapa*.

RAPUNCŬLUS, (*Ranunculus, i*, m. dim. of *rapa*, the turnip). The wild turnip.

RAPUNCŬLUS VIRGINĬANUS. The name given by Morrison to the blue cardinal flower. See *Lobelia*.

RAPUS, (*Rapus, i*, m.). *Rapa. Napus. Napus dulcis.* Garden or sweet navew. French turnip. *Brassica rapa* of Linnæus. The seeds of this plant are sometimes used medicinally. They possess similar virtues to those of mustard. See *Sinapi*.

RASH, (*Exanthema*), consists of red patches on the skin, variously figured; in general confluent, and diffused irregularly over the body, leaving interstices of a natural colour. Portions of the cuticle are often elevated in a rash, but the elevations are not acuminated. The eruption is usually accompanied with a general disorder of the constitution, and terminates in a few days, by cuticular exfoliations.

RASPBERRY. See *Rubus idæus*.

RATTLESNAKE ROOT. See *Seneka*.

RAUCĒDO, (*Raucedo, ĭnis*, f. from *raucus*, hoarse). *Raucitas*. Hoarseness. It is always symptomatic of some other disease

RAUCĬTAS, (*Raucitas, atis*, f. from *raucus*, hoarse). Hoarseness.

REAGENTS. *Reagentia*. Tests. Such substances as enable the chemist to draw conclusions respecting the nature and properties of the bodies to be examined, by means of those alterations which they suffer themselves, or produce in others. As tests or reagents for alkalies are employed the *blue syrup of violets*; *paper stained red*, with a decoction of *Fernambuc*, or *Brazil wood*; or *stained yellow* by the *tincture* of *turmeric root*; and the *tincture* of *litmus* reddened by a very weak acid, and the red alkanet tincture.

REALGAR. A metallic substance of a red colour, more or less lively and transparent, and often crystalized in brilliant needles. It is formed by a combination of arsenic with sulphur. See *Arsenic*.

RECEPTACŬLUM CHŸLI, (*Receptaculum, i*, n. from *recipio*, to receive). The existence of such a receptacle in the human body is doubted. In brute animals the receptable of the chyle is situated on the dorsal vertebræ where the lacteals all meet.

RECTIFICATION, (*Rectificatio, onis*, f. from *rectifico*, to make clean). A second distillation, in which substances are purified by their more volatile parts being raised by heat carefully managed; thus, spirit of wine, æther, &c. are rectified by their separation from the less volatile and foreign matter which altered or debased their properties.

RECTUM, (*Rectum, i*, n. from its straight position). *Rectum intestinum*. The last portion of the large intestines in the pelvis. See *Intestines*.

RECTUS ABDOMĬNIS. This long and ſtrait muſcle is ſituated near its fellow, at the middle and fore part of the abdomen, parallel to the linea alba, and between the aponeuroſes of the other abdominal muſcles. It ariſes ſometimes by a ſingle broad tendon from the upper and inner part of the os pubis, but more commonly by two heads, one of which is fleſhy, and originates from the upper edge of the pubis, and the other tendinous, from the inſide of the ſymphyſis pubis, behind the pyramidalis muſcle. From theſe beginnings, the muſcle runs upwards the whole length of the linea alba, and, becoming broader and thinner as it aſcends, is inſerted by a thin aponeuroſis into the edge of the cartilago enſiformis, and into the cartilages of the fifth, ſixth, and ſeventh ribs. This aponeuroſis is placed under the pectoral muſcle, and ſometimes adheres to the fourth rib. The fibres of this muſcle are commonly divided by three tendinous interſections, which were firſt noticed by Berenger, or, as he is commonly called, Carpi, an Italian anatomiſt, who flouriſhed in the ſixteenth century. One of theſe interſections is uſually where the muſcle runs over the cartilage of the ſeventh rib; another is at the umbilicus; and the third is between theſe two. Sometimes there is one, and even two, between the umbilicus and the pubis. When one, or both of theſe occur, however, they ſeldom extend more than half way acroſs the muſcle. As theſe interſections ſeldom penetrate through the whole ſubſtance of the muſcle, they are all of them moſt apparent on its anterior ſurface, where they firmly adhere to the ſheath; the adheſions of the rectus to the poſterior layer of the internal oblique, are only by means of cellular membrane, and of a few veſſels which paſs from one to another.

Albinus and ſome others have ſeen this muſcle extending as far as the upper part of the ſternum.

The uſe of the rectus is to compreſs the fore part of the abdomen, but more particularly the lower part; and, according to the different poſitions of the body it may likewiſe ſerve to bend the trunk forwards, or to raiſe the pelvis. Its ſituation between the two layers of the internal oblique, and its adheſions to this ſheath, ſecure it in its place, and prevent it from riſing into a prominent form when in action; and laſtly, its tendinous interſections enable it to contract at any of the intermediate ſpaces.

RECTUS ANTERĬOR BREVIS. See *Rectus capitis internus minor*.

RECTUS ANTERĬOR LONGUS. See *Rectus capitis internus major*.

RECTUS CAPĬTIS INTERNUS MAJOR. *Rectus anterior longus* of Winſlow. This muſcle is ſituated on the anterior part of the neck, cloſe to the vertebræ. It was known to moſt of the antient anatomiſts, but was not diſtinguiſhed by any particular name until Cowper gave it the preſent appellation, and which has been adopted by moſt writers, except Winſlow. It is a long muſcle, thicker and broader above than below, where it is thin, and terminates in a point. It ariſes, by diſtinct flat tendons, from the anterior points of the tranſverſe proceſſes of the five inferior vertebræ of the neck, and, aſcending obliquely upwards, is inſerted into the anterior part of the cuneiform proceſs of the occipital bone. The uſe of this muſcle is to bend the head forwards.

RECTUS CAPĬTIS INTERNUS MINOR. Cowper, who was the firſt accurate deſcriber of this little muſcle, gave it the name of *rectus internus minor*, which has been adopted by Douglas and Albinus. Winſlow calls it *rectus anterior brevis*. It is in part covered by the rectus major. It ariſes fleſhy from the upper and fore

part of the body of the first vertebra of the neck, near the origin of its transverse process, and, ascending obliquely inwards, is inserted near the root of the condyloid process of the occipital bone, under the last described muscle. It assists in bending the head forwards.

Rectus capĭtis lateralis. This muscle seems to have been first described by Fallopius. Winslow calls it *transversalis anticus primus*. It is somewhat larger than the rectus minor, but resembles it in shape, and is situated immediately behind the internal jugular vein, at its coming out of the cranium. It arises fleshy from the upper and fore part of the transverse process of the vertebra of the neck, and, ascending a little obliquely upwards and outwards, is inserted into the occipital bone, opposite to the stylo-mastoid hole of the os temporis. This muscle serves to pull the head to one side.

Rectus capĭtis postĭcus major. This, which is the *rectus major* of Douglas and Winslow, is a small, short, and flat muscle, broader above than below, and is situated, not in a straight direction, as its name would insinuate, but obliquely, between the occiput and the second vertebra of the neck, immediately under the complexus. It arises, by a short thick tendon, from the upper and posterior part of the spinous process of the second vertebra of the neck; it soon becomes broader, and ascending obliquely outwards, is inserted, by a flat tendon, into the external lateral part of the lower semi-circular ridge of the os occipitis. The use of this muscle is to extend the head, and pull it backwards.

Rectus capĭtis postĭcus minor. This is the *rectus minor* of Douglas and Winslow. It is smaller than the last described muscle, but resembles it in shape, and is placed close by its fellow, in the space between the recti majores. It arises, by a short thick tendon, from the upper and lateral part of a little protuberance in the middle of the back part of the first vertebra of the neck, and, becoming broader and thinner as it ascends, is inserted, by a broad flat tendon, into the occipital bone, immediately under the insertion of the last described muscle. The use of it is to assist the rectus major in drawing the head backwards.

Rectus externus ocŭli. *Abductor oculi. Indignabundus.* The outer straight muscle of the eye. It arises from the bony partition between the foramen opticum and lacerum, being the longest of the straight muscles of the eye, and is inserted into the sclerotic membrane, opposite to the outer canthus of the eye. Its use is to move the eye outwards.

Rectus femŏris. *Rectus* sive *Gracilis anterior* of Winslow. A straight muscle of the thigh, situated immediately at the fore part. It arises from the os ilium by two tendons. The foremost and shortest of these springs from the outer surface of the inferior and anterior spinous process of the ilium; the posterior tendon which is thicker and longer than the other, arises from the posterior and outer part of the edge of the cotyloid cavity, and from the adjacent capsular ligament. These two tendons soon unite, and form an aponeurosis, which spreads over the anterior surface of the upper part of the muscle; and through its whole length we observe a middle tendon, towards which its fleshy fibres run on each side in an oblique direction, so that it may be stiled a penniform muscle. It is inserted tendinous into the upper edge and anterior surface of the patella, and from thence sends off a thin aponeurosis, which adheres to the superior and lateral part of the tibia. Its use is to extend the leg.

Rectus inferĭor ocŭli. *Depressor oculi. Deprimens. Humilis.*

The inferior of the ſtraight muſcles of the eye. It ariſes within the ſocket, from below the optic foramen, and paſſes forwards to be inſerted into the ſclerotic membrane of the bulb on the wider part. It pulls the eye downwards.

RECTUS INTERNUS FEMŎRIS. See *Gracilis*.

RECTUS INTERNUS OCŬLI. *Adducens oculi. Bibitorius.* The internal ſtraight muſcle of the eye. It ariſes from the inferior part of the foramen opticum, between the obliquus ſuperior, and the rectus inferior, being, from its ſituation, the ſhorteſt muſcle of the eye, and is inſerted into the ſclerotic membrane oppoſite to the inner angle. Its uſe is to turn the eye towards the noſe.

RECTUS MAJOR CAPĬTIS. See *Rectus capitis poſticus major.*

RECTUS SUPERĬOR OCŬLI. *Attollens oculi. Levator oculi. Superbus.* The uppermoſt ſtraight muſcle of the eye. It ariſes from the upper part of the foramen opticum of the ſphænoid bone below the levator palpebræ ſuperioris, and runs forward to be inſerted into the ſuperior and fore part of the ſclerotic membrane by a broad and thin tendon.

RECURRENT NERVES. Two branches of the par vagum in the cavity of the thorax. The right is given off near the ſubclavian artery, which it ſurrounds, and is reflected upwards to the thyroid gland; the left a little lower, and reflected around the aorta to the æſophagus, as far as the larynx. They are both diſtributed to the muſcles of the larynx and pharynx.

REDDLE. A ſpecies of ochre or argillaceous earth, of a dark red colour, ſometimes uſed medicinally as a tonic and antacid.

RED SAUNDERS. See *Santalum rubrum.*

REGIMEN. A term employed in medicine to expreſs the plan of diet.

REGĪNA PRATI. See *Ulmaria.*

REGULAR GOUT. See *Arthritis.*

REGŬLUS, (*Regulus, i*, m. dim. of *rex*, a king; ſo called becauſe the alchemiſts expected to find gold, the king of metals, collected at the bottom of the crucible after fuſion). A name given by the alchemiſts to metallic matters when ſeparated from other ſubſtances by fuſion; as, regulus of antimony, regulus of arſenic, &c.

REGULUS OF ANTIMONY. The pure ſemi-metal antimony. See *Antimony.*

REGULUS OF ARSENIC. Pure arſenic. See *Arſenic.*

REMEDĬUM DIVĪNUM. See *Imperatoria.*

REMITTENT FEVER. See *Febris continua.*

REMŎRA ARĂTRI, (*Remora, æ*, f. from *remoror*, to hinder, and *aratrum, i*, n. a plough; ſo called becauſe it hinders the plough). See *Ononis.*

REMOTE CAUSE. See *Exciting cauſe.*

RENAL GLANDS. *Glandulæ renales.* Renal capſules. Supra-renal glands. The ſupra-renal glands are two hollow bodies, like glands in fabric, and placed one on each ſide upon the kidney. They are covered by a double tunic, and their cavities are filled with a liquor of a browniſh red colour. Their figure is triangular; and they are larger, in the fœtus than the kidneys; but in adults they are leſs than the kidneys. The right is affixed to the liver, the left to the ſpleen and pancreas, and both to the diaphragm and kidneys. They have arteries, veins, and lymphatics and nerves; their arteries ariſe from the diaphragmatic, the aorta, and the renal arteries. The vein of the right ſupra-renal gland empties itſelf into the vena cava; that of the left into the renal vein; their lymphatic veſſels go directly to the thoracic duct; theſe are nerves common alike to theſe glands and the kidneys. They

have no excretory duct, and their uſe is at preſent unknown. It is ſuppoſed they anſwer one uſe in the fœtus, and another in the adult, but what theſe uſes are is uncertain. Boerhaave ſuppoſed their uſe to conſiſt in their furniſhing lymph to dilute the blood returned after the ſecretion of the urine in the renal vein; but this is very improbable, ſince the vein of the right ſupra-lenal gland goes to the vena cava, and the blood carried back by the renal vein wants no dilution. It has alſo been ſaid, that theſe glands not only prepare lymph, by which the blood is fitted for the nutrition of the delicate fœtus; but that in adults they ſerve to reſtore in themſelves, to the blood of the vena cava, the irritable parts which it loſes by the ſecretion of bile and urine. Some, again, have conſidered them as diverticula in the fœtus, to divert the blood from the kidneys, and leſſen the quantity of urine. The celebrated Morgagni believed their office to conſiſt in conveying ſomething to the thoracic duct. It is ſingular, that in children who are born without the cerebrum, theſe glands are extremely ſmall, and ſometimes wanting.

RENAL VESSELS. See *Emulgent veſſels.*

RENES, (*Ren, nis*, m. απο τϑ ρειν; becauſe through them the urine flows). See *Kidneys.*

RENNET. The gaſtric juice and contents of the ſtomach of calves. It is much employed in preparing cheeſe, and, in pharmacy, for making whey. To about a pound of milk, in a ſilver or earthen baſon placed on hot aſhes, add three or four grains of rennet, diluted with a little water; as it becomes cold the milk curdles, and the whey, or ſerous part, ſeparates itſelf from the caſeous part. When theſe parts appear perfectly diſtinct, pour the whole upon a ſtrainer, through which the whey will paſs, while the curds remain behind. This whey is always rendered ſomewhat whitiſh, by a very ſmall and much divided portion of the caſeous part; but it may be ſeparated in ſuch a manner, that the whey will remain limpid and colourleſs, and this is what is called clarifying it. Put into a baſon the white of an egg, a glaſs of the ſerum of milk, and a few grains of tartareous acidulum in powder; whip the mixture with an ozier twig, and, having added the remainder of the unclarified whey, place the mixture again over the fire until it begins to boil. The tartareous acidulum completes the coagulation of the white part of the milk which remains; the white of egg, as it becomes hot, coagulates and envelops the caſeous part. When the whey is clear, filter it through paper; what paſſes will be perfectly limpid, and have a greeniſh colour. This is clarified whey.

RESIN, BLACK. See *Reſina nigra.*

RESIN ELASTIC. See *Indian rubber.*

RESIN-TREE, ELASTIC. See *Indian rubber.*

RESIN, WHITE. See *Reſina flava.*

RESIN, YELLOW. See *Reſina flava.*

RESĪNA ALBA. See *Reſina flava.*

RESĪNA ELASTĬCA. See *Indian rubber.*

RESĪNA FLAVA. *Reſina alba.* Yellow reſin is what remains in the ſtill after diſtilling oil of turpentine, by adding water to the common turpentine. It is of very extenſive uſe in ſurgery as an active detergent, and forms the baſe of the *unguentum reſinæ flavæ.*

RESĪNA LUTĔA NOVI BELGĬI. Botany bay gum. All the information that has been hitherto collected reſpecting the hiſtory of the yellow gum is the following:

The plant that produces it is low and ſmall, with long graſſy leaves; but the fructification of it ſhoots out in a ſingular manner from the centre of the leaves, on a ſingle ſtraight ſtem, to the height of twelve or fourteen feet. Of this ſtem, which is ſtrong and light, like ſome of the reed claſs, the natives uſually make their ſpears. The reſin is generally dug up out of the ſoil under the tree, not collected from it, and may perhaps be that which Taſman calls 'gum lac of the ground.'

Mr. Boles, ſurgeon of the Lady Penrhyn, gives a ſomewhat different account; and as this gentleman appears to have paid conſiderable attention to the ſubject, his account may certainly be relied upon. After deſcribing the tree in preciſely the ſame manner as above, he obſerves, that at the top of the trunk of the tree, long graſſy leaves grow in great abundance. The gum is found under theſe leaves in conſiderable quantities; it commonly exudes in round tears, or drops, from the ſize of a large pea to that of a marble, and ſometimes much larger. Theſe are by the heat of the ſun frequently ſo much ſoftened, that they fall on the ground, and in this ſoft ſtate adhere to whatever they fall upon; hence the gum is frequently found mixed with dirt, wood, the bark of the tree, and various other ſubſtances: ſo that one lump has been ſeen compoſed of many ſmall pure pieces of various ſizes united together, which weighed nearly half a hundred weight. It is produced in ſuch abundance, that one man may collect thirty or forty pounds in the ſpace of a few hours. The convicts have another method of collecting it; they dig round the tree, and break off pieces of the roots which always have ſome, and frequently conſiderable quantities of the gum in them. This gum appears nearly, but not entirely, the ſame as that which exudes from the trunk of the tree; the former is often mixed with a ſtrong ſmelling reſinous ſubſtance of a black nature, and is ſo interwoven in the wood itſelf, that it is with difficulty ſeparated. The latter appears a pure unmixed reſinous ſubſtance.

Several experiments have been made principally with the view of determining what menſtruum would diſſolve the gum the moſt readily, and in the greateſt quantity.

The following table ſhews the quantity of GUM *that is diſſolved by one ounce of various menſtrua.*

	℥	ʒ	℈	gr.
Alcohol	2			
Rectified ſp.	2			
Ether	1	3		
Sp. eth. vitr.	1	3		
Sp. eth. nitr.	1	3		
Brandy		7		
Lixiv. ſapon.		1		
Cyder			1	5
Calcavalla				18
Calc. viv. et aqua				10
Port				8½
Ol. tereb.				4
Water				4²

carried over

	℥	ʒ	℈	gr.
Aq. kali - - -				3
Aq. ammon. p. - -				2
Acid. vitr. dil. - -				2
Acid. nitr. dil. - -				2
Acet. dist. - - -				2
Aq. calcis - - -				2
Ol. oliv. - - -				2

The diseases in which this resin is administered, are those of the primæ viæ, and principally such as arise from spasm, a debility, a loss of tone, or a diminished action in the muscular fibres of the stomach and bowels, such as loss of appetite, sickness, vomiting, flatulency, heart-burn, pains in the stomach, &c. when they were really idiopathic complaints, and not dependent upon any disease in the stomach, or affections of other parts of the body communicated to the stomach. In debilities and relaxations of the bowels, and the symptoms from thence arising, such as purging and flatulency, it has been found of good effect. In certain cases of diarrhæa, however, (and it seemed those in which an unusual degree of irritability prevailed), it did not answer so well, unless given in small doses, and combined with opiates, when the patient seemed to gain greater advantage than when opiates only were had recourse to. In case of amenorrhœa, depending on (what most of those cases do depend upon), a sluggishness, a debility, and flaccidity of the system, this medicine, when assisted by proper exercise and diet, has, by removing the symptoms of dyspepsia, and by restoring the tone and action of the muscular fibres, been found very serviceable. This medicine does not, in the dose of about half a drachm, appear to possess any remarkably sensible operation. It neither vomits, purges, nor binds the belly, nor does it materially increase the secretion of urine or perspiration. It has indeed sometimes been said to purge, and at others to occasion sweating, but they are not constant effects, and when they are not constant effects, and when they do occur, it generally depends on some accidental circumstance. It should seem to possess in a very extensive degree, the property of allaying morbid irritability, and of restoring tone, strength, and action, to the debilitated and relaxed fibre. When the gum itself is given, it should always be the pure unmixed part; if given in the form of a draught, it should be mixed in water with mucilage of gum arabic; if made into pills, a small portion of castile soap may be employed; it was found the lixiv. sapon. dissolved it entirely. It is commonly, however, made into a tincture by mixing equal parts of the gum and rectified spirit; one drachm of this tincture, (containing half a drachm of the pure gum), made into a draught with water and syrup, by the assistance of 15 grains of gum arabic in mucilage, forms an elegant medicine, and at the same time very palatable.

Resina nigra. *Colophonia.* What remains in the retort after distilling the balsam of turpentine from the common turpentine.

Resins, (*Resina, æ*, f. from ῥέω, to flow).

Resolvents, (*Medicamenta Resolventia*, from *resolvo*, to loosen). This term is applied by surgeons to such substances as discuss inflammatory tumours.

Resolution. A termination of inflammatory affections in which the diſeaſes diſappear without inducing any other diſeaſe.

Respiration, (*Reſpiratio, onis*, f. from *reſpiratio*, to breathe). The act of inſpiring and expiring are ſo called. In order to deliver the phyſiolygy of this function, it is neceſſary to give a brief anatomical deſcription of the ſeveral parts engaged. The bags of the pleura are filled by the lungs; by which we underſtand two viſcera, one right and another left, in figure correſponding with the bags themſelves which they fill, having a broad baſis below, and being terminated above at the firſt rib by an obtuſe cone. Anteriorly their ſurface is flat, laterally convex, and poſteriorly it is rounded; internally it is concave, eſpecially that of the left lungs, for the purpoſe of containing the heart. The right lung is the largeſt, and is moſt frequently divided into three lobes, which is ſeldom the caſe with the left. They are freely ſuſpended by the great blood-veſſels; Between the lungs and pleura is found a watery vapour, of a coagulable nature, like that of the pericardium; which tranſudes from the ſurface of the lungs and of the pleura, continually in the fœtus, and not unfrequently in the adult. In dropſy, this vapour is increaſed, or thickens to a kind of ſebaceous matter; or, laſtly, it concretes into fibres, forming adheſions of the lungs.

The external membrane of the lungs is ſimple, and thinner than the pleura, although continuous with it. It ſpreads from the adheſion of the great blood-veſſels of the heart, over the lungs in every direction, and when entire, may be eaſily inflated, even after being ſeparated from the lungs. The ſame membrane paſſes over the intervals between the lobules, like a bridge. It is joined to the lungs by cellular texture.

The lungs are made up of lobes ſeparated by intermediate intervals, in which there is looſe cellular ſubſtance. Their firſt diviſion is into two large lobes, and one middle one of a ſmaller ſize, which, however, cohere together: they are afterwards repeatedly ſubdivided into ſucceſſively ſmaller lobes, always ſurrounded by cellular membrane, till at laſt the lobules are reſolved into very ſmall membranous cells, which in adults are filled with air, are of various figures, and communicate on all ſides with each other. The elementary parts of the lungs, therefore, are not oval bags, ſurrounded by muſcular texture, with a ſingle orifice which receive the air from the windpipe, but they admit the air exhaling from the ultimate branches of the trachea, ſo that being effuſed into irregular ſpaces, it paſſes and repaſſes freely from any one portion of the lungs into all the others. This is demonſtrated by inflation, for air blown into any, even the moſt minute lobule, through its branch of the trachea, paſſes into all the reſt. In man, and in the ſmaller animals, the cellular fabric of the intervals is neither ſhut up from the veſicles of the lungs, nor are the lobes ſurrounded by any peculiar membrane; in the largeſt animals, there is no communication between the air veſicles and the cellular ſpaces which ſurround the lobules.

The air paſſes into theſe veſicles through the wind-pipe. The wind-pipe ariſes from the larynx and receives the air through it alone. Its firſt part is ſingle and ſimple, partly fleſhy and partly cartilaginous, the œſophagus lying below it and to its left, is ſupported on the broad and flat vertebræ of the neck; in other words, within the cellular ſubſtance that ſurrounds the wind-pipe, there is ſituated a canal, compoſed of alternate cartilaginous and muſcular rings. The

cartilaginous rings, thin and elaſtic, anteriorly ſomewhat flat and thick, are joined together by their poſterior extremities, which are thinner; and the circle is completed by ſtrong tranſverſe muſcular fibres, adhering to both the looſe extremities of the cartilage. The lower circles are leſs; the uppermoſt is often augmented by an appendix, that next to the diviſion is perpendicular.

The fleſhy ring, ſituated alternately with the cartilaginous ones, are compoſed of red muſcular fibres. Some of theſe are tranſverſe, connecting the detached ends of the annular cartilages; others deſcend from each upper to the next lower ring. But other muſcular fibres again, deſcend from the cricoid cartilage, and having reached below the diviſion of the bronchia, vaniſh upon the lungs. The tranſverſe fibres contract the wind-pipe; the longitudinal ones ſhorten it. Within the lungs, between the imperfect rings, there is a ſort of muſcular fabric, but leſs uniformly diſpoſed.

In the cellular coat which ſurrounds the muſcular one, but eſpecially behind, in the interval between the cartilages, are placed numberleſs ſimple glands, which, by very ſmall ducts, like pores, opening into the cavity of the wind-pipe, depoſit within that cavity a watery and pellucid mucus, not coagulable into films, and very bland, which is of the greateſt uſe in defending the exceedingly ſenſible membrane from the impurities of the air, which is loaded with particles, irritating by their mechanical figure or chemical acrimony. Numerous conglobate glands are ſituated around the trachea and its bronchia, but theſe are of the lymphatic kind, although their black fluid frequently penetrates into the trachea. Laſtly, the internal tube of the wind-pipe is lined by a membrane, covered by epidermis, continuous with the ſkin and membranes of the mouth, ſmooth, ſoft, and very irritable. It is connected with the muſcular coat by cellular ſubſtance.

The veſſels of this entire part of the wind-pipe, in the neck, come from the lower thyroids; in the thorax, from other ſmall branches of the ſubclavian trunks, or the mammaries, or the bronchials properly ſo called. Its nerves, ariſing from the recurrent and intercoſtals, are numerous.

In the upper part of the thorax, the wind-pipe is received between the laminæ of the poſterior mediaſtinum; and at the third vertebra, or a little above, is divided into two branches ſimilar to the trunk, formed in like manner of imperfect cartilages, and furniſhed with ſimilar glands; each of theſe enters the lung to which it correſponds, and the right is ſomething ſhorter and larger than the left. Having entered the lungs, the cartilaginous rings gradually degenerate into fragments, become more angular, triangular, and intermixed with a larger portion of membrane, till at length, by the diminution of the cartilages, the ultimate branches of the bronchia become membranous.

Its ultimate branches are inviſible, and exhale air into the cellular ſpaces of the lungs in adults, and from the ſame ſpaces receive the arterial expired vapour.

The veſſels of the bronchia, are the bronchial veins and arteries. The latter are generally two; one coming from the upper intercoſtal of the aorta, which is diſtributed either to the right only, or to both the lungs; the other, from the trunk of the aorta, goes to the left lung. Sometimes there are more; as when there are three, by the addition of a ſecond from the aorta. At other times, there is only one artery common to both lungs. The thoracic part of the bronchia, ſituated without the

lungs, has its proper veſſels from the aorta, or from the ſubclavian, or the mammary, or the intercoſtal. The bronchial veins are very commonly two; the right from the vena azygos, the left from a peculiar branch of the ſubclavian vein, the left ſuperior intercoſtal. Theſe blood-veſſels accompany the branches of the trachea; and deſcend into their membranes, the arteries inoſculate with the pulmonary arteries, and the veins with the veins, forming a vaſcular web in the internal cellular ſubſtance. There are ſome inſtances where the pulmonary vein itſelf has given ſmall branches to the lungs, to the wind-pipe, and to the ſurface of the lungs.

But there are other larger veſſels belonging to the lungs, the pulmonary artery, and the vein. The great artery, in the fœtus larger than the aorta, and in the adult but little leſs, has two branches; the right larger but ſhorter, the left narrower and longer. In the fœtus, the trunk itſelf is continued into the deſcending aorta, and is known by the name of ductus arterioſus. In the adult, that trunk degenerates into a ſolid ligament. The four pulmonary veins accompany the branches of the artery and of the trachea, through the lungs, ſurrounded by a good deal of cellular ſubſtance; which ſubſtance, being increaſed, at laſt compoſes the lungs themſelves. Within this cellular fabric, the air-veſſels and blood-veſſels are ſubdivided, and in the ultimate cellular ſpaces, the ultimate veins and arteries ſpread, reticularly interwoven; and here the ſmall arteries exhale a plentiful vapour into the aërial cells of the lungs, and the veins abſorb a watery vapour from them. Hence, coloured water, the whey of milk, or thin wax, being injected into the pulmonary artery, flow with froth into the wind-pipe; but, on the contrary, penetrate from the bronchia into the pulmonary artery. In like manner, injections paſs from the pulmonary vein into the bronchia; or from thence, into the veins: laſtly, they readily paſs from the arteries into the pulmonary veins; or return from the veins into the arteries.

The lymphatic veſſels, as in other parts, form a net-work upon the ſurface of the lungs, from whence branches run to the cavity of the poſterior mediaſtinum, to the glands ſeated on the œſophagus, and to the thoracic duct. The nerves are ſmall, eſpecially the anterior, the poſterior ones being ſomewhat larger: they come from a nerve of the eight pair; but they receive ſome addition, accompanying the large blood-veſſels, from the recurrent, and likewiſe from the cardiac plexus. Hence the lungs have but little ſenſation; but that of the little nerves, divided upon the ſubſtance of the bronchia, is very acute. Nor are the lungs of an irritable nature.

The quantity of blood which enters into the lungs is exceedingly great, equal to (or even perhaps greater than) that which is ſent in the ſame time throughout the reſt of the body; which, therefore, indicates this viſcus to be ſubſervient to ſome very important purpoſe. That this uſe depends manifeſtly upon the air, appears from the univerſal conſent of nature, in which we ſcarcely find an animal which does not reſpire; alſo from the ſtructure of the lungs in the fœtus, in which, being uſeleſs, on account of the abſence of air, they receive only a very ſmall portion of that blood, which the pulmonary artery conveys from the heart. We come now to ſpeak of reſpiration, or the inhalation and expulſion of air by the lungs.

Air, phyſically conſidered, is an element, fluid, inviſible, elaſtic, with an indeſtructible ſpring, and ſoniferous. But the air, which we com-

monly receive into the lungs, is impure, filled with a great quantity of watery and other vapours, alſo with ſalts, acids, &c. with the ſeeds of plants and animals, and other foreign particles; and is ponderous; weighing, however, 850 times leſs than water, a cubic foot of air being between 610 and 694 grains. This air, which ſurrounds the earth on all ſides, being compreſſed by its incumbent columns, perpendicularly and laterally, enters with great force wherever it meets with leſs reſiſtance, as appears from experiments made in vacuo, and from the phenomena of the air-pump; ſo that its preſſure on the human body is not leſs than 30,000 pounds. It is repelled chiefly by the pores of membranes, though theſe are permeable by water: it likewiſe penetrates oil or mucus with difficulty.

The ambient air is excluded from all parts of the human body, by denſe ſkin, which, even when dry, is impervious to the air; by the fat lying under it; by the narrowneſs of the abſorbent veſſels, and by the equability of the reſiſtance. We muſt inveſtigate why the air enters the lungs, which, in an adult, are always filled with air, and therefore reſiſt the preſſure of the whole atmoſphere with an equivalent force. That the lungs always contain air is evident; becauſe, however you compreſs them, they are ſtill lighter than water; and even after they have been inflated but a few times, they always ſwim; whereas, in the fœtus, before air has been admitted into them, they ſink to the bottom.

On the equilibrium being deſtroyed, the air invariably deſcends in every direction to that place where it meets with leaſt reſiſtance. But air that is denſe and heavy deſcends more eaſily than that which is light, whoſe force ſcarcely exceeds that of the air in the lungs, nor is able by the ſame force to overcome the reſiſtance of the bronchia, and of the force by which the air contained in the lungs is compreſſed. Hence an animal lives with greater eaſe in a denſe than in a light atmoſphere; although that air is always better tolerated, which is pure in proportion to its levity; ſuch as that of the higheſt mountains of the Alps. Therefore, that the air may enter the lungs, they muſt make a leſs reſiſtance to it than before; namely, the air, which is already in the cellular fabric of the lungs, muſt be rarified: but this effect will be produced, if the cavity of the breaſt, which is filled by the lungs be dilated. The air, which is always in the lungs, expands into this increaſed ſpace, by which, being weakened in its ſpring, it makes leſs reſiſtance to the external air; conſequently, a portion of external air deſcends into the lungs, ſufficient to reſtore to the air, now contained in the lungs, the ſame denſity with that of the external air.

We muſt, therefore, deſcribe the powers which dilate the breaſt. The breaſt or thorax is compoſed of bones, muſcles, and cartilages; being almoſt of the ſhape of an elliptic barrel, ſomewhat compreſſed before, but behind divided by an eminence, whoſe hoops are the ribs, and of remarkable ſtrength. In the lateral parts of this ſtructure, the lungs are ſituated; the central and lower parts contain firſt the pericardium, and then ſome of the abdominal viſcera.

The baſis of the thorax is formed by a column, a little curved, at the upper part gibbous backwards, ſo that its ſummit is ſituated moſt behind. To this twelve vertebræ are affixed. But they alſo coaleſce, by the union of their bodies into a ſingle column, which projects forwards between the two cavities of the breaſt; divides the right from the left; and

is plain in the fore part, and broad towards the ſides. A ſlight ſinuoſity receives the ribs into that place where the arch ſeparates from the body. They are bound together into one column, both by the elaſtic plate interpoſed between the bodies of every two, and coaleſcing with both; and by other ligaments and ſpines lying upon one another, and by the junction of the ribs; on which accounts they ſcarcely admit of motion amongſt themſelves. The ſides of the breaſt are formed of twelve ribs. Theſe are in general bent in the form of an irregular arch, having a conſiderable curvature laterally and backwards, but extending in their fore part towards a right line. The bony parts of the ribs are, however, parallel with each other. The greateſt part of the rib is bony; of which the poſterior portion is round and thick, and the anterior thin and flat. The anterior remaining part of the rib conſiſts of a cartilage; which in general preſerves the figure of the rib, broad, flat, adhering to an irregular hollow of the bony part; and which does not change into bone, unleſs in extreme old age.

The poſterior, bony, and thick part of each rib terminates in a head. Theſe are inſerted into pits ſcooped out of the bodies of the uppermoſt and two lowermoſt vertebræ, and in the contiguous margins of each of the other two. The vertebræ are tied to the ribs by ſtrong ligaments, of which the principal is diſtributed upon each adjacent vertebra, in a radiated manner from each rib; other ligaments tie the tranſverſe proceſs to the tubercle of the rib, and others connect the contiguous ribs, and alſo the tranſverſe proceſſes, with each other. Moreover, between the angle of incurvation and the articulation with the vertebræ, each of the ten upper ribs has a tubercle, which, being connected with the plain ſide of the tranſverſe proceſs of the correſponding vertebra, are tied by ſhort and ſtrong ligaments to that proceſs, in ſuch a manner, that, while the juncture is very ſtrong, the rib can aſcend and deſcend for a ſhort way.

Of the anterior cartilages, the ſeven uppermoſt reach to the ſternum, and ſtrengthened by ſhort ligaments, they enter with a double head into lateral depreſſions in that bone, which are incruſted with cartilage. Of the five remaining ribs, the uppermoſt is agglutinated by ſtrong cellular ſubſtance to the ſeventh, and each lower one to the one immediately above it, ſo that they form a continuous margin, which is itſelf faſtened to the ſternum. The cartilages are connected with each other, both by proper ligaments, and by cartilaginous appendages joined by cellular ſubſtance: the two lowermoſt are free, and connected only with the muſcles. Theſe inferior cartilages are united to one another, and to the ſternum, by ſtrong ligaments.

The firſt rib is the ſhorteſt and moſt ſolid. As they follow in ſucceſſion to the ſeventh and eighth, every two of them form larger and more moveable circles. The eighth is the longeſt of all; and below it, they always become ſhorter, the lower they are.

The upper rib deſcends; the ſecond joins the ſternum almoſt at a right angle, while the others aſcend both to the vertebræ and to the ſternum, but more to the latter. The bony part of the ribs is placed in ſuch a direction, that the uppermoſt have their anterior ſurface declined forwards, almoſt tranſverſely. About the third rib it is placed almoſt perpendicularly; and below the middle ones, it projects a little forwards. Beſides, the ſtrength of the ribs is very different. The uppermoſt, being ſhort, tranſverſe, rather united than articulated with the ſternum,

and, laſtly, often conſolidated, make the greateſt reſiſtance. The mobility of the lower ribs increaſes ſucceſſively to the loweſt, which adhering only to muſcles, moves moſt freely of all.

The ſternum, in general, is a thin ſpongy bone, in adults of a ſingle piece, but in the fœtus variouſly multiplicate. Its upper part is broader, octagonal, and ſupported by the clavicles, which are united with it by a triangular head, and very ſtrong articulation, and by the firſt rib on each ſide. The next part, which is longer and narrower, grows broader downwards, and its ſides receive the ribs into proper angular cavities. The lower part, which is leſs and ſhorter, is obtuſely ſhaped like a tongue. This is continued into a detached appendage, partly bony, and partly cartilaginous, which is called the enſiform cartilage; of various ſhapes, being ſometimes obtuſe like a little tongue, ſometimes pointed, ſometimes biſid, and ſometimes perforated.

In order, therefore, to dilate the ſeat of the lungs, and thus to produce that condition which cauſes the external air to deſcend into the lungs, the thorax muſt be elevated. For thus all the ſections of the thorax form right angles, and its capacity is increaſed. This motion is performed by various muſcles, which either operate conſtantly, or only at certain times. The whole of the intercoſtal muſcles always elevate the ribs. Under this name we comprehend 22 muſcles; of which 11 are external, or ſubcutaneous; and as many internal, ſeparated from the pleura only by fat and cellular ſubſtance. The origin of the external intercoſtals is at the poſterior articulation of the ribs; their anterior termination is in the bony part of each rib, at ſome diſtance from the cartilage, ſo that the remaining ſpace between the cartilages, all the way to the ſternum, in place of the muſcles, is filled with an aponeuroſis. Their direction is ſuch, that they deſcend obliquely forwards, from the lower edge of the upper rib to the upper edge of the lower rib. Almoſt all authors agree that they elevate the ribs; becauſe they deſcend from the upper and more fixed, to the lower and more moveable rib, in ſuch a manner, that their lower point lies more diſtant from the vertebral articulation, or fulcrum of the lever of the ribs.

But the internal intercoſtals ariſe at ſome diſtance from the vertebræ, near the outſide of the tubercles. From thence they proceed as far as the ſternum, into which the firſt of this kind are inſerted above. Except the anterior part of the firſt internal muſcles, their direction is contrary to that of the former; ſo that they deſcend backwards, from the lower margin of the upper rib, to the upper edge of the lower rib. Therefore their action is diſputed, becauſe their lower inſertion is made into a point of the rib, nearer its articulation with the vertebræ, which, therefore, ſeems to be the leaſt moveable; however, they elevate the ribs notwithſtanding this; for the immobility of the upper rib, ariſing from its articulation, weight, and ligaments, far exceeds the mobility produced by its greater diſtance from the fulcrum. This is proved by the diſſection of living animals; in which it appears, that the internal muſcles act during the elevation of the ribs, and reſt when they are depreſſed; by threads fixed to a flexible human ſkeleton, and drawn in the direction of the internal intercoſtal muſcles, which always and invariably raiſe the inferior rib towards the ſuperior; and by the firmneſs of the upper ribs, which ſerve as a fixed point to the lower ones: for the firſt ribs are from eight to twelve times leſs moveable than the other true ribs; while the differ-

ence of diſtance from the centre of motion, is ſcarcely the twentieth part of the whole lever. And laſtly, by experiment on the dead ſubject; for, on raiſing its thorax, the internal intercoſtals ſwell.

By the action, therefore, of theſe muſcles, the thorax is elevated, not altogether as one machine, nor would reſpiration be aſſiſted by ſuch a motion; but the ribs, turning upon their articulations, behind are but little moved, while with their anterior extremities, they deſcend and form larger angles, both with the ſternum and vertebræ; and in the middle of their arches, they aſcend and raiſe their lower edges forwards. At the ſame time, the ſternum is thruſt forward from the vertebræ and from the junctures with the ribs. Thus the ribs are both farther from the vertebræ, and the right ribs recede from the left; and both diameters, from the right to the left, and from the ſternum to the vertebræ, are increaſed by almoſt two lines each: and as this occurs in every imaginable ſection of the thorax, the cavity of the breaſt will be ſufficiently dilated. This happens eſpecially in women, and in men whoſe breathing is ſomewhat laborious. Theſe effects are produced leaſt of all by the firſt ribs, but more by the ſucceeding ones. In ſtrong inſpirations, the ribs deſcend both behind and before, and, along with theſe, the ſternum; and the ſpaces between the cartilages are leſſened. But this dilatation is neither ſufficient for healthy reſpiration, nor is it almoſt obſervable in men; although, even then, the intercoſtal muſcles, by retaining and elevating the ribs, very much aſſiſt the inſpiration in a ſecondary way, by affording a fixed point to the diaphragm, ſo that the whole force of that muſcle may be ſpent, not in depreſſing the ribs, but in lowering itſelf. The greater part, therefore, of the ſpace which the thorax gains in inſpiration, ariſes from the action of the diaphragm.

By the diaphragm we underſtand a muſcle expanded in a curvilineal plate, which, in general, ſeparates the pulmonary bags from the abdomen in ſuch a manner, that the middle and tendinous part is the higheſt, and ſupports the pericardium; that the lateral portions, which ariſe from the ſolid parts of the thorax and loins, are every where lower; and that its poſterior portions are loweſt of all. The fleſhy fibres of this muſcle ariſe from the internal or poſterior ſurface of the enſiform cartilage to the very point, and from the ſixth, ſeventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh ribs, and apex of the twelfth; after which follows an interval, in which the naked pleura is contiguous to the peritonæum. Thereafter muſcular appendages of the diaphragm, much ſtronger, collected into two, three, or four round muſcles on each ſide, ariſe fleſhy from the tranſverſe proceſs of the firſt lumbal vertebra, and from the ſide of the body of the ſecond; and tendinous from the middle of the body of the ſecond, third, and fourth, and from the cartilages placed between them, on the whole higher up in the left ſide, and lower down in the right.

All theſe fibres, becoming tendinous, form the centre of the diaphragm, which reſembles, in figure, a trefoil leaf, and ſupports the pericardium with its middle and broader angle, while the lateral wings, of which the left is narrower, deſcend backwards. This central portion is more moveable than the reſt; but in the middle tendinous part, and neighbouring muſcular ſubſtance, it is reſiſted by the heart; the lateral wings and contiguous portions are the moſt moveable. The fibres of this tendon form a moſt beautiful web, principally indeed on the upper part; which

ſtretches from each muſcular portion, to the muſcular portion oppoſite to it: and then they form remarkable inferior faſciculi, tranſverſe, right, left, and poſterior, which laſt portion is the uppermoſt.

There are two holes in the diaphragm; of which the right, in the right ſide of its tendon, is obtuſely ſquare, and circumſcribed by four ſtrong tendinous faſciculi; the left, which is elliptical, lies betwixt the right and left fleſhy portions, ariſing from the middle of the bodies of the lumbal vertebræ: under this opening they decuſſate and croſs each other once and again, but above they end in the tendon. Therefore it is probable that the latter is contracted during the action of the diaphragm, and that the former remains immoveable: for tendons are but little changed during muſcular motion.

The ſtructure of the parts, and the diſſection of living animals, demonſtrate, that the fleſhy portions of the diaphragm, by aſcending on all ſides from fixed points to middle and moveable parts, depreſs theſe, and by that means draw downward the lateral bags of the thorax, which contain the lungs; and thus augment the perpendicular diameter of the breaſt. The muſcular portions are more depreſſed; the tendon leſs, both becauſe it is fixed to the pericardium, and becauſe its own ſubſtance does not contract. The œſophagus, and even the vena cava, are compreſſed, while the diaphragm acts. The diaphragm almoſt alone performs the office of reſpiration in a healthy man who is at reſt; and alſo in thoſe whoſe ribs are fractured, or the ſternum burſt, or where the perſon will not make uſe of his ribs on account of pain. The force of the diaphragm alſo, in dilating the breaſt, is greater, according to calculation, than all the reſt of the powers which contribute to reſpiration. The extent of an inſpiration is thus far limited, becauſe, during the extreme action of the diaphragm, the lower ribs are drawn inwards, and the breaſt is ſo far ſtraitened. To oppoſe this, the intercoſtal muſcles interfere in a moderate inſpiration; in an exceſſive one they are not equal to the diaphragm. The phrenic nerve, when irritated, more evidently than in moſt other muſcles, forces the diaphragm to perform its office. The lungs themſelves are entirely governed by the air, ribs, and diaphragm; being in immediate contact with theſe, as appears through a large inciſion, or through the pleura, or pellucid part of the diaphragm, when the containing parts remain entire.

In violent inſpirations, occaſioned by an increaſed quantity of blood driven into the lungs, or by any obſtacle occurring in them, ſeveral other powers elevating the thorax, aſſiſt in dilating the breaſt, which are inſerted into the thorax, clavicles, or ſcapulæ; ſuch as the ſcaleni muſcles, maſtoidei, trapezii, cervicales deſcendentes, ſerrati ſuperiores, pectorales, and levatores parvi, for which anatomy muſt be conſulted.

Thus, there are powers which increaſe the capacity of the thorax in all its three dimenſions. By theſe the cavity of the breaſt is dilated, ſo that it compreſſes the lungs leſs than before: into that ſpace the lungs ſtrive to extend themſelves, ſince they are never deſtitute of air, which, as ſoon as the preſſure is taken off, becomes rarified, and expands itſelf. Independent of the action of the muſcles, the lungs poſſeſs no peculiar inherent power of attracting air: and, even when they are moſt full of air, on cloſing the trachea, the animal, however, attempts to inſpire, by the efforts of its intercoſtal muſcles and diaphragm. It follows, that the air gravitating, and preſſed on all ſides by the incumbent columns of the at-

moſphere, muſt enter the thorax; and with greater force the leſs air is in the lungs; and with the greateſt, if they contain no air: but air will not enter the thorax, if the air, being admitted to the lungs through a wound in the breaſt, compreſs their ſurface. In this action, therefore, which is called inſpiration, the bronchia, are every way increaſed, both in length and breadth; becauſe all the diameters of the thorax are increaſed, and the inflated lungs remain immediately contiguous to the pleura. At the ſame time, the veſſels, which are joined with the bronchia by a cellular ſheath, become longer and are extended, and the ſmall angles become larger; by which means, the circulation is facilitated. Beſides, when the veſicular ſubſtance of the lungs is filled with air, the ſpace through which the capillary veſſels of the lungs run, is increaſed, the branches of the arteries and veins are ſtretched out at greater angles, the lobes preſs leſs upon each other, the compreſſion of the neighbouring parts is leſſened, and, therefore, the blood ſent from the heart will flow with greater eaſe and celerity through the large and ſmall arteries of the lungs. Hence, by inflating the lungs, and by that means facilitating the paſſage of the blood to the left ventricle, moribund animals are reſuſcitated, and in the ſame way perſons who are taken out of the water apparently drowned. But, on account of its great levity, the preſſure of the air upon the blood does not deſerve notice, as being three hundred times leſs than the force of the heart; and inſufficient to force the air againſt the blood, which may eaſily be done by a ſyphon.

Is air contained between the lungs and the thorax? Is this air rarified in inſpiration, and afterwards becoming condenſed, and compreſſing the lungs, does it cauſe exſpiration? Is this opinion confirmed by the analogy of birds, of which it is ſtrictly true? Every thing concurs to confute this opinion: behind the pleura, in living quadrupeds, as well as in dead human bodies, the naked lungs are viſible, without any intermediate ſpace betwixt them: on perforating the pleura, the lungs retract themſelves towards the vertebræ as ſoon as the air comes in contact with them. In birds, the lungs, being pervious, admit the air through large holes into the cavity of the thorax. But in theſe there is a manifeſt ſpace betwixt the lungs and the pleura, which would be equally manifeſt in quadrupeds, if the lungs were not contiguous with the pleura. Large wounds, admitting the air into one cavity of the thorax only, diminiſh the reſpiration; but ſuch wounds, as let the air into both cavities, ſuppreſs it. When the thorax is opened under water, it emits no bubbles of air through the ſaid water; but in birds, in whoſe thorax there is air, it does. The imaginable ſpace betwixt the lungs and the thorax is filled by vapour, or a very little water. Adheſions of the lungs injure the reſpiration but in a ſmall degree; which ought entirely to ceaſe, if any intermediate air betwixt the lungs and thorax were neceſſary to reſpiration. Finally, the external air, being admitted to any of the membranes of the human body, inflames them, if they be not defended by plentiful mucus, and of this the pleura is deſtitute.

Reſpiration, whether by the admixture of a ſubputrid vapour, or in ſome other way, certainly vitiates the air, and renders it unfit either for inflating the lungs or ſupporting flame; and laſtly, it deprives that element of its elaſticity. It is probable that this happens from putrefaction, ſince, by a crowd of men the air is rendered peſtilential, and fevers of the moſt malignant kind are generated in a

few hours. In whatever way it happens, we are certain, that, in the lungs, the air is vitiated; loſes its elaſticity; and cannot keep the lungs diſtended, ſo as to tranſmit the quantity of blood now increaſed by the dilatation of the pulmonary arteries, into the veins. Nor can the will dilate the breaſt beyond certain bounds, or aſſiſt the paſſage of the blood. A ſtate therefore will take place, in which the blood cannot paſs through the lungs.

Thus a new reſiſtance to the blood continually coming from the heart is generated: and in long retentions of the breath, as in making violent efforts, the venous blood, eſpecially of the head, ſtagnates before the right ventricle of the heart, which is cloſed up, becauſe it cannot evacuate itſelf into the lungs; and tumefies the face with redneſs, and ſometimes burſts the veins of the brain, neck, inteſtines, kidneys, or lungs, and even the right auricle of the heart. This is the cauſe of exceſſive anxiety of mind; this is the cauſe of death in compreſſed air, in perſons drowned or ſtrangled, which is much more ſudden than is commonly imagined with regard to drowned people. A living perſon, therefore, that he may remove thoſe inconveniencies which ariſe from the paſſage of the blood being obſtructed, ſlackens the powers of inſpiration, and excites to action thoſe of exſpiration, in order to free the breaſt from the too greatly rarified air.

Theſe powers are, firſt, the elaſticity of the ribs, which being drawn upwards out of their natural ſituation, as ſoon as the elevating powers ceaſe to act, ſpontaneouſly replace themſelves at more acute angles with the ſternum and vertebræ. There is alſo the elaſtic force of the bronchia and veſicles diſtended with air, by which they endeavour to contract. Hence exſpiration is performed more eaſily and quickly than inſpiration; and hence it is the laſt action of dying people.

Theſe are aſſiſted by the abdominal muſcles; the oblique, ſtraight, and tranſverſe. The former of theſe are faſtened by one part to the lower ribs; and by another part they are attached to the os pubis and ilium, which are immoveable, when compared with the breaſt. Therefore the ſtraight muſcles, being contracted, flatten the arch into which the abdominal viſcera were protruded by the depreſſion of the diaphragm, reduce the convexity of the abdomen nearer to a ſtraight line: force the abdominal viſcera upwards and backwards againſt the diaphragm, which alone can give way; and preſs it up into the thorax, which is thus rendered ſhorter. The oblique muſcles, for the ſame reaſons, compreſs the lateral parts of the abdomen, carry the liver and ſtomach backwards, and preſs them towards that place where there is the leaſt reſiſtance. Laſtly, all of them draw down the ribs which were elevated by the intercoſtals. The tranſverſe muſcles, indeed, do not draw down the ribs; but they pull the cartilages of the falſe ribs a little inwards, render the whole abdomen much narrower, and force the ſame viſcera againſt the diaphragm. As acceſſory powers may be reckoned the ſternocoſtal, and the long internal intercoſtal muſcles, which are called depreſſors. By this joint force the elevated ribs deſcend; the middle ones more, the uppermoſt leſs, the loweſt moſt of all; their margins are drawn inwards: the cartilages aſcend, and return into acute angles with the ſternum; and the ſternum itſelf recedes backwards with the ribs. By theſe means the thorax, is rendered narrower in every direction and ſhorter, and expels as much air out of the

lungs as is ſufficient to remove the uneaſineſs.

In violent reſpiration, when the inſpirations are fuller, the more powerful exſpirations derive aſſiſtance from ſome other cauſes, as the ſacro-lumbalis, longiſſimus and quadratus muſcles. By this force, leaden bullets, weighing above a drachm, may be blown to the diſtance of 363 feet; which force is equal to a third part of the preſſure of the atmoſphere. But, in a healthy perſon, the muſcles of the abdomen alone ſuffice, and the lungs are not ſo much emptied as in blowing.

The effects of exſpiration are the compreſſion of the blood-veſſels of the lungs; the diminution of the angles of the bronchia; the reſting the weight of the adjacent veſſels on the reticular veſſels; the expulſion of the corrupted air from the lungs; the propulſion through the veins of that part of the blood, which is impacted in the capillary arteries, to the left ſide of the heart, and the impeding that part of the blood which is coming from the right ventricle. Exſpiration, therefore, ſtops the ready entrance of the blood into the lungs; and as the whole thorax is compreſſed at the ſame time, it repels the venous blood into the veins of the head, and fills the brain and its ſinuſes.

In this manner the neceſſity for reſpiration ariſes anew, as often as the collapſed veſſels of the lungs reſiſt the blood expelled from the right ventricle of the heart: this is one cauſe of death in thoſe animals which expire in veſſels exhauſted of air. The lungs in thoſe which have remained long in vacuo, from having the air drawn out from them, become denſe, ſolid, and heavier than water; and, therefore, impervious to the blood. Of the ſame kind is the death of thoſe who are killed by lightning, and perhaps by the noxious vapours of caverns. Therefore, in conſequence of a moſt intelligent ſtructure, at the firſt perception of the uneaſineſs ariſing from the oppoſition to the paſſage of the blood through the lungs, the exſpiring powers become relaxed, the inſpiring powers are excited into action, and the motion of the blood through the lungs is rendered free and accelerated.

Are there other cauſes of alternate reſpiration? Is any thing to be derived from the compreſſion of the vena ſine pari, of the phrenic nerve, or from the blood not being ſent to the brain? But theſe are diſproved by comparative anatomy; which, where there is no ſuch nerve or vein, finds the ſame alternation in reſpiration every where. Does it proceed from the alternate contraction of antagoniſt muſcles, among which, thoſe of exſpiration relax thoſe of inſpiration, and the reverſe? But, according to this argument, all the muſcles of the human body would be perpetually alternating in their motions.

From what has been ſaid, it ſufficiently appears, that reſpiration is abſolutely neceſſary to a healthy adult; becauſe, whether the lungs remain long in a ſtate either of exſpiration or of inſpiration, death will be the conſequence. Therefore no animal, that has lungs like ourſelves, after it has breathed for ſome time, ſo that the air ſhall have penetrated into the inmoſt parts of the lungs, and the pulmonary artery ſhall have brought a new quantity of blood to that viſcus, can ſubſiſt longer than a few minutes without the uſe of air, without periſhing, or at leaſt falling into a ſtate which differs from death only in the poſſibility of recovery. In an animal recently born, this neceſſity for air does not take place very inſtantaneouſly.

But the uſe of reſpiration is different from this neceſſity; which nature might have avoided, either by

forming no lungs at all, or by conſtructing them ſimilar to thoſe of the fœtus. The uſe, therefore, of reſpiration muſt be very conſiderable, ſince all animals are furniſhed either with lungs, or with gills, or with a wind-pipe diſtributed through all parts of the body.

To inveſtigate this utility, let us compare the blood of the adult with that of the fœtus, and with the vital fluid in fiſhes. It appears, that in the fœtus the blood is deſtitute of its florid redneſs and ſolid denſity; that the blood of fiſh is cold, and has leſs denſity, and a tender craſſamentum. It is therefore probable, that the blood acquires both theſe properties in the lungs.

Is animal heat generated principally in the lungs? Does it ariſe from the alternate extenſion and contraction, relaxation and compreſſion, of the veſſels, by which the ſolid parts of the blood are perpetually rubbed together, and ſuffer attrition from their conſtriction? The lungs, therefore, will add to the office of the reſt of the arteries, becauſe in them the blood is alternately relaxed and compreſſed more than in any other part of the body. But when the lungs are obſtructed, ulcerated, and almoſt deſtroyed, morbid heat is increaſed in the human body: and in the lungs, the cold air comes moſt nearly in contact with the blood.

The denſity is, indeed, promoted by the copious diſcharge of watery vapour from the veſſels of the lungs, by which the reſt of the maſs becomes ſpecifically heavier. In the ſame manner as in other arteries, the blood, being alternately retarded and accelerated, is figured by the moulds of the ultimate arteries, becomes ſpherical, and therefore denſer, having more ponderous globules, and leſs light fluid. The pulmonary vein alſo being ſmaller than its correſponding artery, is of conſiderable uſe in compreſſing the globules, and in increaſing their attraction. Nevertheleſs, cold animals, with very ſmall lungs, have denſe and coagulable blood; as alſo the chick in ovo. The courſe of the blood through the lungs is ſhorter: through the whole body the courſe is longer, and the artery weaker; the ventricle, by which the blood is propelled, is alſo weaker.

Is the air itſelf received into the blood in the lungs, and does it there produce neceſſary vibrations? Is this demonſtrated from the reſiſtance of the body to the weight of the external air; from the air found in the blood-veſſels, in the cellular ſubſtance, and in the cavities of the human body; from the cracking produced by extending the joint; from air being manifeſtly poured from the trachea into the hearts of many animals, as the locuſt; from the eſcape of air from the blood and animal fluids in Mr. Boyle's vacuum; from the neceſſity of a vital oſcillation in the blood; and from the increaſed redneſs of the pulmonary blood?

That no elaſtic air is here received into the blood, is demonſtrated from its not being able to enter into the blood, if it retain its elaſticity; from the inutility of its reception, if its elaſticity be loſt in the blood; from the perfect immutability of the blood by cold; from the minuteneſs of the inhaling veſſels; from the ſides of the veſicles being perpetually covered with mucus; from the elaſtic nature of air being unfit to paſs through capillary veſſels; and from its repulſion by water, that hinders it from paſſing through moiſtened paper, linen, or leather. Again, air thrown into the trachea never paſſes into the heart; or only when it is driven with exceſſive force. In the veſſels and humours of the human body, air, from a ſtate of inelaſticity, becomes elaſtic in conſequence of putrefaction, froſt, or an external vacuum. But

ſuch air exiſts in every liquid, and is taken into our bodies with the aliments, and with vapours, mixing ſlowly and difficultly. There never were any elaſtic bubbles of air obſerved in the blood of a living animal, unleſs after wounds; air being inflated into the blood-veſſels of any animal, kills it certainly and ſpeedily. Nor is there any thing ſufficiently certain in the increaſed redneſs of the blood in the pulmonary veins. Laſtly, air indeed is abſorbed by moſt fluids, and by water, but ſlowly, and only at the end of ſeveral days after the former air has been exhauſted by the pump. It then likewiſe lays aſide its elaſtic nature; and no reaſon has been advanced why the air ſhould either be more ſpeedily abſorbed by the blood, or why it ſhould retain its elaſticity after its abſorption.

Is the blood cooled in the lungs? Is this proved from the death of animals in air heated to the ſame degree with the animal, as is believed to have happened from very ſultry ſummer weather, and ſcorching eaſt winds? Are the pulmonary veins, therefore, leſs than the arteries? Does the deſire of cold in hard-working people ariſe from thence? That the blood is cooled in the lungs, is thus far true, that it warms the contiguous air, and therefore imparts to it ſomething of its own heat. But that this was not the deſign of nature, is evident; ſince no one has ſaid, that the venous blood is hotter than the arterial, although ſome aſſert that it is colder; and nobody ever obſerved the left ventricle of the heart colder than the right. But the venous blood enters the lungs. If it be cooled there, it follows that the arteries muſt receive it ſtill colder. Therefore, the blood recovers that heat which it loſt, and even more: and beſides, a perſon may live in an air much hotter that the blood itſelf, of which we have a familiar example in baths, and warm climates. The ſize of the pulmonary artery in the fœtus, which does not reſpire, is greater; and the larger area of the right auricle and ventricle of the heart, which is likewiſe much greater in the fœtus, ſeems to be a receptacle ſubſervient to frequently neceſſary retardations, and the narrowneſs of the vein contributes to the acceleration of the blood.

Does the blood derive its redneſs from the air? This is contradicted by what we ſee in cold animals, which though they make almoſt no uſe of the air, have blood equally red with that of warm animals; by the certain connection of redneſs in the blood of frogs, with their having plenty of food, and of paleneſs with want of food; and by the air, as we have juſt now ſaid, having no acceſs to the blood. Nevertheleſs, redneſs is produced, and reſtored to the blood by the contact of air, and is deſtroyed by its removal. Does ſome ſubtle element from the air penetrate the blood, and cauſe its colour, as light is required for the colours of plants?

Why do tortoiſes, frogs, lizards, ſnails, earwigs, and many other inſects, live long without air? In them, the lungs are given, not ſo much for the preparation of the blood, of which they have but a ſmall quantity, as for aſſiſting them in ſwimming; hence their lungs are ſupplied with veins from the cava, and with arteries from the aorta. Inſects inhale and exhale air, through points in the ſkin. Why do all animals, however ſmall, ſuch as little birds, periſh in air that is not renewed? Becauſe the air, which has once entered the lungs, is contaminated by inelaſtic, watery, and alkaline vapours, and therefore it becomes noxious: not becauſe it becomes lighter; for the mercury falls but little in air, which has not been renewed, and which has killed an animal. Hence, on the other hand,

animals ſurvive longer in air which is more compreſſed than that of the atmoſphere: for in that caſe, the proportion of the elaſtic element is greater, and therefore the air is more ſlowly contaminated. But, even in other caſes, confined air becomes deleterious, and filled with vapours, by ſtagnation alone. Why do animals ſwell in an exhauſted receiver? From the expanſion of the air, which exiſted in an inelaſtic ſtate in the blood?

There is a certain connection between the pulſe and reſpiration. According to the common courſe of nature, three or four pulſations are reckoned to one reſpiration. If the quantity of blood ſent to the heart be increaſed, the frequency, both of the pulſe and reſpiration, are increaſed. This is the reaſon of the panting in a perſon taking exerciſe, which accelerates the motion of the venous blood. If the blood meet with much reſiſtance in the lungs, and do not paſs freely from the right into the left ventricle of the heart; to accelerate its courſe, both the number and magnitude of the reſpirations are increaſed. This is the cauſe of ſighing, yawning, and panting; of which the firſt is a deep inſpiration; the ſecond ſlow, and very great; and the third, frequent and imperfect. The number of reſpirations, however, does not increaſe with the pulſe; of which we have an example in fevers, in which the lungs are not affected.

The mucus, which lines the ſenſible membrane of the bronchia, may become troubleſome, both by its quantity and acrimony; it has been even known to cauſe ſuffocation in a dropſy of the lungs. Therefore, its ſuperabundance, adheſion, or acrimony, is removed by coughing; namely, by irritating the reſpirative ſyſtem, the mucus or concretions are looſened and expelled by large inſpirations, and exſpirations, alternately ſucceeding each other with rapidity, and by ſtrokes of the abdominal muſcles.

Laughter differs from coughing in its cauſe, which reſides commonly in the mind, or at leaſt conſiſts in the titillation of ſome of the cutaneous nerves; and alſo, becauſe, after one deep inſpiration, there are frequent but imperfect exſpirations, through the contracted glottis, and the air is not totally evacuated from the lungs. Hence laughter, in a moderate degree, conduces to health; becauſe, in place of one full inſpiration, ſeveral inſpirations and exſpirations happen in the ſame time, and thus the concuſſion is greater. Hence its danger, from ſtagnation of the blood; becauſe the exſpiration is not full, and therefore the blood is admitted into the pulmonary artery, but is not ſuffered to paſs through it. Weeping begins with a deep inſpiration, after which follow ſhort alternate inſpirations and exſpirations; and it is finiſhed with a deep exſpiration, which is immediately followed by an inſpiration: hence it has nearly the ſame good and bad effects; and, when moderate, it relieves the diſtreſs ariſing from grief. Hiccough is a very great, ſonorous, and ſudden inſpiration. Sneezing conſiſts of one deep inſpiration, ſucceeded by a ſingle powerful exſpiration; and by the torrent excited, the acrid matter, irritating the noſtrils, is blown away.

The ſecondary uſes of reſpiration are very numerous. It exhales copiouſly, and removes from the blood ſomething highly noxious; for by remaining in the air, it will cauſe ſuffocation; and the breath of many people, crowded in a cloſe and ſmall place, impregnates the air with a ſuffocating quality. On the other hand, it abſorbs from the air a thin vapour, of which the uſe is perhaps not ſufficiently known. It is alſo a force, which perpetually compreſſes

the abdomen, and all its viſcera; it evacuates the ſtomach, inteſtines, gall-bladder, receptacle of the chyle, urinary bladder, inteſtinum rectum, and the womb; it comminutes the aliments, and forces the blood through the liver, ſpleen, and meſentery. It cauſes a kind of flux and reflux in the blood, ſo that it is alternately preſſed back towards the extremities of the veins, and a little after is propelled towards the heart by an accelerated velocity, as into an empty ſpace. Moreover, inſpiration attracts the odoriferous particles from the air, and conveys them to the ſenſorium. But even ſucking, ſo neceſſary to the new-born infant, is effected by inſpiration, and by forming a larger ſpace, in which the air contained in the mouth is rarified, ſo that the preſſure of the external air forces the milk into that part where it is leaſt reſiſted. Laſtly, the voice itſelf depends upon the air, and ſeems to be the principal manifeſt effect of reſpiration.

It has been thought proper to inſert thus much of the truly ſcientific enquiry concerning reſpiration, from the phyſiology of the immortal Haller. The induſtry of the modern phyſiologiſts, aided by the luminous diſcoveries in chemiſtry, has proved, by deciſive and beautiful experiments, that, in inſpiration, the oxygen of the inſpired air combines with the carbon diſengaged from the blood, and forms carbonic acid, which is expired together with the azotic gaz; that a certain quantity of hydrogen is likewiſe diſengaged from the venous blood, which, by uniting with the oxygen of the atmoſpherical air, forms the vapour which is exhaled with the air; that another portion of the vapour proceeding directly from the pulmonary tranſpiration, is diſſolved in the air that is expired; and that the caloric or matter of heat being ſeparated from the vital air, unites with the blood, and reſtores it to the temperature of 93 to 94. Thus, the uſe of reſpiration conſiſts in the formation of the blood, in the production of its temperature, and in the deſtruction of ſeveral ſuperfluous principles with which this fluid is loaded by the chyle, and in the courſe of the circulation.

Rest harrow. See *Ononis*.

Resta bovis. The reſt harrow is ſo called becauſe it hinders the plough; hence *reſta bovis*. See *Ononis*.

Resuscitation. The reſtoring of perſons, apparently dead, to life. Under this head, ſtrictly ſpeaking, is conſidered the reſtoring of thoſe who faint, or have breathed noxious and irreſpirable air; yet it is chiefly confined to the reſtoring of thoſe who are apparently dead from being immerſed in a fluid, or by hanging. Dr. Curry, of Guy's hoſpital, has written a very valuable book on this ſubject; and ſuch is its importance, that we have thought proper to inſert the following account:

"From conſidering," he obſerves, "that a drowned perſon is ſurrounded by water inſtead of air, and that in this ſituation he makes ſtrong and repeated efforts to breathe, we ſhould expect that the water would enter and completely fill the lungs. This opinion, indeed, was once very general, and it ſtill continues to prevail among the common people. Experience, however, has ſhewn, that unleſs the body lies ſo long in the water as to have its living principle entirely deſtroyed, the quantity of fluid preſent in the lungs is inconſiderable; and it would ſeem that ſome of this is the natural moiſture of the part accumulated; for, upon drowning kittens, puppies, &c. in ink, or other coloured liquors, and afterwards examining the lungs, it is found that very little of the coloured liquor has gained admittance to them.

—To explain the reaſon why the lungs of drowned animals are ſo free from water, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that the muſcles which form the opening into the wind-pipe are exquiſitely ſenſible, and contract violently upon the leaſt irritation, as we frequently experience when any part of the food or drink happens to touch them. In the efforts made by a drowning perſon, or animal, to draw in air, the water ruſhes into the mouth and throat, and is applied to theſe muſcles, which immediately contract in ſuch a manner as to ſhut up the paſſage into the lungs. This contracted ſtate continues as long as the muſcles retain the principle of life, upon which the power of muſcular contraction depends; when that is gone, they become relaxed, and the water enters the wind-pipe, and completely fills it. On diſſecting the body of a recently drowned animal, no particular fulneſs of the veſſels within the ſkull, nor any diſeaſe of the brain or its membranes, are viſible. The lungs alſo are found, and the branches of the wind-pipe generally contain more or leſs of a frothy matter, conſiſting chiefly of air, mixed with a ſmall quantity of colourleſs fluid. The *right* cavity of the heart, and the trunks of the large internal veins which open into it, and alſo the trunk and larger branches of the artery which carries the blood from this cavity through the lungs, are all diſtended with dark coloured blood, approaching almoſt to blackneſs. The *left* cavity of the heart, on the contrary, is nearly, or entirely empty, as are likewiſe the large veins of the lungs which ſupply it with blood, and the trunk and principal branches of the great artery which conveys the blood from hence to the various parts of the body. The external blood-veſſels are empty; and the fleſhy parts are as pale as if the animal had been bled to death. When a body has lain in the water for ſome time, other appearances will alſo be obſervable; ſuch as, the ſkin livid, the eyes bloodſhot, and the countenance bloated and ſwoln; but theſe appearances, though certainly unfavourable, do not abſolutely prove that life is irrecoverably gone. It is now known, that in the caſe of drowning, no injury is done to any of the parts eſſential to life; but that the *right* cavity of the heart, together with the veins and arteries leading to and from that cavity, are turgid with blood, whilſt every other part is almoſt drained of this fluid. The practice of holding up the bodies of drowned perſons by the heels, or rolling them over a caſk, is unneceſſary; the lungs not being filled with any thing that can be evacuated in this way. Therefore ſuch a practice is highly dangerous, as the violence attending it may readily burſt ſome of thoſe veſſels which are already overcharged with blood, and thus convert what was only ſuſpended animation, into abſolute and permanent death. The operation of inflating the lungs is a perfectly ſafe, and much more effectual method of removing any frothy matter they may contain; and whilſt it promotes the paſſage of the blood through them, alſo renders it capable of ſtimulating the *left* cavity of the heart, and exciting it to contraction. As ſoon as the body is taken out of the water, it ſhould be ſtripped of any clothes it may have on, and be immediately well dried. It ſhould then be wrapped in dry warm blankets, or in the ſpare clothes taken from ſome of the by-ſtanders, and be removed as quickly as poſſible to the neareſt houſe that can be got convenient for the purpoſe. The fitteſt will be one that has a tolerably large apartment, in which a fire is ready, or can be made. The body may be carried in men's arms, or laid upon a door; or, in caſe the houſe be at

a diſtance from the place, if a cart can be procured, let the body be placed in it, on one ſide, upon ſome ſtraw, with the head and upper parts ſomewhat raiſed; and in this poſition a briſk motion will do no harm. Whatever be the mode of conveyance adopted, particular care ſhould be taken that the head be neither ſuffered to hang backwards, nor to bend down with the chin upon the breaſt. When arrived at the houſe, lay the body on a mattreſs, or a double blanket, ſpread upon a low table, or upon a door ſupported by ſtools; the head and cheſt being elevated by pillows. As the air of a room is very ſoon rendered impure by a number of people breathing in it, for this reaſon as well as to avoid the confuſion and embarraſſment attending a crowd, no more perſons ſhould be admitted into the apartment where the body is placed, than are neceſſary to aſſiſt immediately in the recovery: in general, *ſix* will be found ſufficient for this purpoſe, and theſe ſhould be the moſt active and intelligent of the by-ſtanders. It will be found moſt convenient to divide the aſſiſtants into two ſets; one ſet being employed in reſtoring the heat of the body, while the other inſtitutes an artificial breathing in the beſt manner they are able. Every ſkilful perſon ſhould be provided with a flexible tube made of elaſtic gum, half a yard in length, to introduce into the wind-pipe, and and alſo with a ſimilar tube to which a ſyrynge can be affixed, to be put into the œſophagus. Should theſe not be at hand, air ſhould be thrown into the lungs in the beſt manner that can be ſuggeſted at the time. Should it ſtill be found that the air does not paſs readily into the lungs, immediate recourſe muſt be had to another and more effectual method for attaining that object. As this method, however, requires addreſs, and alſo ſome knowledge of the parts about the throat, we would recommend that when there is not a medical gentleman preſent, the mode already deſcribed be tried repeatedly before this be attempted. As a quantity of frothy matter occupying the branches of the wind-pipe and preventing the entrance of the air into the lungs, is generally the circumſtance which renders this mode of inflation neceſſary, the mouth ſhould be opened from time to time to remove this matter as it is diſcharged. While one ſet of the aſſiſtants are engaged in performing artificial reſpiration, the other ſhould be employed in communicating heat to the body. The warm bath has been uſually recommended for this purpoſe; but wrapping the body in blankets, or woollen cloths, ſtrongly wrung out of warm water, and renewing them as they grow cool, beſides being a ſpeedier and more practicable method of imparting heat, has this great advantage, that it admits of the operation of inflating the lungs being carried on without interruption. Until a ſufficient quantity of warm water can be got ready, other methods of reſtoring warmth may be employed; ſuch as the application of dry warm blankets round the body and limbs; bags of warm grains or ſand, bladders or bottles of hot water, or hot bricks applied to the hands, feet, and under the arm-pits, the bottles and bricks being covered with flannel: or the body may be placed before the fire, or in the ſunſhine if ſtrong at the time, and be gently rubbed by the aſſiſtants with their warm hands, or with cloths heated at the fire or by a warming pan. The reſtoration of heat ſhould always be gradual, and the warmth applied ought never to be greater than can be comfortably borne by the aſſiſtants. If the weather happen to be cold, and eſpecially if the body has been expoſed to it for ſome time,

heat ſhould be applied in a very low degree at firſt: and if the weather be under the freezing point, and the body when ſtripped, feel cold and nearly in the ſame condition with one that is frozen, it will be neceſſary at firſt to rub it well with ſnow, or waſh it with cold water; the ſudden application of heat in ſuch caſes, having been found very pernicious. In a ſhort time, however, warmth muſt be gradually applied. To aſſiſt in rouſing the activity of the vital principle, it has been cuſtomary to apply various ſtimulating matters to different parts of the body. But as ſome of theſe applications are in themſelves hurtful, and the others ſerviceable only according to the time and manner of their employment, it will be proper to conſider them particularly. The application of all ſuch matters in caſes of apparent death, is founded upon the ſuppoſition that the ſkin ſtill retains ſenſibility enough to be affected by them. It is well known, however, that even during life, the ſkin loſes ſenſibility in proportion as it is deprived of heat, and does not recover it again until the natural degree of warmth be reſtored. Previous to the reſtoration of heat, therefore, to a drowned body, all ſtimulating applications are uſeleſs, and ſo far as they interfere with the other meaſures, are alſo prejudicial. The practice of rubbing the body with ſalt or ſpirits is now juſtly condemned. The ſalt quickly frets the ſkin, and has in ſome caſes produced ſores, which were very painful and difficult to heal after recovery. Spirits of all kinds evaporate faſt, and thereby, inſtead of creating warmth, as they are expected to do, carry off a great deal of heat from the body. Spirit of hartſhorn, or of ſal volatile, are liable to the ſame objection as brandy or other diſtilled ſpirits, and are beſides very diſtreſſing to the eyes of the aſſiſtants. When there is reaſon to think the ſkin has, in any degree recovered its ſenſibility, let an aſſiſtant moiſten his hand with ſpirit of hartſhorn, or *eau de luce*, and hold it cloſely applied to one part: in this way evaporation is prevented, and the full ſtimulant effect of the application obtained. A liniment compoſed of equal parts of ſpirit of hartſhorn and ſallad oil, well ſhaken together, would appear to be ſufficiently ſtimulating for the purpoſe, and as it evaporates very ſlowly, will admit of being rubbed on without producing cold. The places to which ſuch remedies are uſually applied, are, the wriſts, ancles, temples, and the parts oppoſite the ſtomach and heart. The inteſtines, from their internal ſituation and peculiar conſtitution, retain their irritability longer than the other parts of the body, and, accordingly, various means have been propoſed for increaſing the action of their fibres, in order to reſtore the activity of the whole ſyſtem. Tobacco-ſmoke, injected by way of glyſter, is what has been generally employed with this view, and the *fumigator*, or inſtrument for adminiſtering it, makes a part of the apparatus which is at preſent diſtributed by the different ſocieties eſtabliſhed for the recovery of drowned perſons. Of late, however, the uſe of tobacco-ſmoke has been objected to, and upon very ſtrong grounds; for when we conſider that the ſame remedy is ſucceſsfully employed with the very oppoſite intention, namely, that of leſſening the power of contraction in the muſcles, and occaſioning the greateſt relaxation conſiſtent with life, it muſt be acknowledged to be a very doubtful, if not dangerous remedy, where the powers of life are already nearly exhauſted: Inſtead of tobacco-ſmoke then, we would recommend a glyſter, conſiſting of a pint or more of water, moderately warmed, with the addition of one or two table ſpoon-

fuls of ſpirit of hartſhorn, a heaped tea ſpoonful of ſtrong muſtard, or a table ſpoonful of eſſence of peppermint; in defect of one or other of theſe, half a gill or more, of rum, brandy, or gin may be added, or the warm water given alone. This ſtep, however, need not be taken, until artificial reſpiration has been begun; for it will anſwer but little purpoſe to ſtimulate the heart through the medium of the inteſtines, unleſs we, at the ſame time, ſupply the left cavity with blood fitted to act upon it; which we cannot do without firſt removing the collapſed ſtate of the lungs, and promoting the paſſage of the blood through them by a regular inflation. As the ſtomach is a highly ſenſible part, and intimately connected with the heart and brain, the introduction of ſome moderately warm and ſtimulating liquor into it, ſeems well calculated to rouſe the dormant powers of life. This is very conveniently done by means of the ſyringe and flexible tube. The quantity of fluid thrown in ought not to exceed half a pint, and may be either warm negus, or water with the addition of one or other of the ſtimulating matters recommended above, uſing, however, only half the quantities mentioned there. As ſoon as the pulſe or beating of the heart can be felt, the inſide of the noſtrils may be occaſionally touched with a feather dipt in ſpirit of hartſhorn, or ſharp muſtard; it being found by experience, that any irritation given to the noſe, has conſiderable influence in exciting the action of the muſcles concerned in reſpiration. When the natural breathing commences, the flexible tube and canula ſhould be withdrawn, and any farther inflation that may be neceſſary, performed by blowing into the noſtril. Letting blood has been generally thought requiſite in every caſe of ſuſpended animation. The practice, however, does not appear to have been founded upon any rational principle at firſt, and it has been continued from the force of cuſtom, rather than from any experience of its good effects. In the caſe of drowned perſons there is not, as in thoſe who ſuffer from hanging or apoplexy, any unuſual fulneſs of the veſſels of the brain; and the quantity of blood that can be drawn from the external veins, will not ſenſibly diminiſh the accumulation of it in thoſe near the heart. Beſides, blood-letting, which always tends to *leſſen* the action of the heart and arteries in the living body, cannot be ſuppoſed to have a directly oppoſite effect in caſes of apparent death; on the contrary, if employed here, it will hazard the entire deſtruction of thoſe feeble powers which yet remain, and to increaſe and ſupport which all our endeavours ſhould be directed. When the ſeveral meaſures recommended above, have been ſteadily purſued for an hour or more, without any appearance of returning life, electricity ſhould be tried; experience having ſhewn it to be one of the moſt powerful ſtimuli yet known, and capable of exciting contraction in the heart and other muſcles of the body, after every other ſtimulus had ceaſed to produce the leaſt effect. Moderate ſhocks are found to anſwer beſt, and theſe ſhould, at intervals, be paſſed through the cheſt in different directions, in order, if poſſible, to rouſe the heart to act. Shocks may likewiſe be ſent through the limbs, and along the ſpine; but we are doubtful how far it is ſafe or uſeful to paſs them through the brain, as ſome have recommended. The body may be conveniently inſulated, by placing it on a door, ſupported by a number of quart bottles, whoſe ſides are previouſly wiped with a towel, to remove any moiſture they may have contracted. By experiments made on different animals, it is found that

the blood paſſes through the lungs moſt readily when they are fully diſtended with air; conſequently, that if the lungs of a drowned perſon are inflated, and kept in the expanded ſtate whilſt the electric ſhock is paſſed through the cheſt, the blood accumulated in the *right* cavity of the heart and its veſſels, will move forward without any reſiſtance, ſhould the heart be brought to contract upon it. As ſoon as the ſhock is given, let the lungs be emptied of the air they contain, and filled again with freſh air; then paſs another ſhock, and repeat this until the heart is brought into action, or until it appear that all farther attempts are uſeleſs. In order more certainly to paſs the ſhock through the heart, place the knob of one diſcharging rod above the collar-bone of the right ſide, and the knob of the other above the ſhort ribs of the left: the poſition of the diſcharging rods, however, may be changed occaſionally, ſo as to vary the direction of the ſhock. Two thick braſs wires, each about eighteen inches long, paſſed through the two glaſs tubes, or wooden caſes well varniſhed, and having at one end a knob, and at the other a ring to faſten the braſs chain to, form very convenient diſcharging rods; and by means of them, the ſhock may be adminiſtered without the riſque of its being communicated to the aſſiſtants, or carried off by the ſkin being wet. When the patient is ſo far recovered as to be able to ſwallow, he ſhould be put into a warm bed, with his head and ſhoulders ſomewhat raiſed by means of pillows. Plenty of warm wine-whey, ale-poſſet, or other light and moderately nouriſhing drink, ſhould now be given, and gentle ſweating promoted, by wrapping the feet and legs in flannels well wrung out of hot water. If the ſtomach and bowels feel diſtended and uneaſy, a glyſter, conſiſting of a pint of warm water, with a table ſpoonful of common ſalt, or an ounce or more of glauber's or Epſom ſalt, diſſolved in it, may be adminiſtered. The general practice, in this caſe, is to give an emetic; but conſidering that the powers of the machine are ſtill very weak, the agitation of vomiting is certainly hazardous. The patient ſhould on no account be left alone, until the ſenſes are perfectly reſtored, and he be able to aſſiſt himſelf; ſeveral perſons having relapſed and been loſt, from want of proper attention to them, after the vital functions were, to all appearance, completely eſtabliſhed. Either from the diſtention which the arteries of the lungs have ſuffered, or from the ſudden change from great coldneſs to conſiderable warmth, it now and then happens, that the patient is attacked, ſoon after recovery, with inflammation of ſome of the parts within the cheſt. This occurrence is pointed out by pain in the breaſt or ſide, increaſed on inſpiration, and accompanied with frequent, and full or hard pulſe, and ſometimes with cough. Here the taking away ſome blood from the arm, or the application of cupping-glaſſes, leeches, or a bliſter, over the ſeat of the pain, will be very proper; but the neceſſity for theſe meaſures, as well as the time for putting them in practice, ſhould be left to the judgment and diſcretion of a medical perſon. Dull pain in the head, laſting ſometimes for two or three days, is by no means an unfrequent complaint in thoſe who are recovered from this and from the other ſtates of ſuſpended animation; and here alſo a moderate bleeding from the neck, either with the lancet or with cupping-glaſſes, may prove ſerviceable.

In hanging, the external veins of the neck are compreſſed by the cord, and the return of the blood from the head thereby impeded, from

he moment that ſuſpenſion takes place; but as the heart continues to act for a few ſeconds after the wind-pipe is cloſed, the blood which is ſent to the head during this interval, is neceſſarily accumulated there. Hence it is, that in hanged perſons the face is greatly ſwoln, and of a dark red or purple colour: the eyes are commonly ſuffuſed with blood, enlarged, and prominent. On diſſection, the blood-veſſels of the brain are found conſiderably diſtended; but, in general, no further marks of diſeaſe appear within the ſcull. The lungs are found generally quite collapſed, and free from frothy matter. The heart and the large blood-veſſels adjoining to it, exhibit the ſame appearances as in the bodies of drowned perſons. From the great accumulation of blood in the veſſels of the head, many have been of opinion, that hanging kills chiefly by inducing apoplexy; but the following experiment made at Edinburgh ſeveral years ago, by an eminent medical profeſſor there, clearly proves, that in hanging, as well as in drowning, the excluſion of air from the lungs is the immediate cauſe of death. A dog was ſuſpended by the neck with a cord, an opening having been previouſly made in the wind-pipe, below the place where the cord was applied, ſo as to admit air into the lungs. In this ſtate he was allowed to hang for three quarters of an hour, during which time the circulation and breathing went on. He was then cut down, without appearing to have ſuffered much from the experiment. The cord was now ſhifted below the opening into the wind-pipe, ſo as to prevent the ingreſs of air to the lungs; and the animal being again ſuſpended, he was completely dead in a few minutes. Upon the whole, then, it appears, that the ſame meaſures recommended for drowned perſons, are alſo neceſſary here; with this addition, that opening the jugular veins, or applying cupping-glaſſes to the neck, will tend conſiderably to facilitate the reſtoration of life, by leſſening the quantity of blood contained in the veſſels of the head, and thereby taking off the preſſure from the brain. Except in perſons who are very full of blood, the quantity taken away need ſeldom exceed an ordinary tea cupful, which will in general be ſufficient to unload the veſſels of the head, without weakening the powers of life.

RETE MUCŌSUM, (*Rete, is*, n. a net). *Corpus reticulare. Corpus mucoſum. Mucus Malphigii.* A mucous ſubſtance, depoſited, in a net-like form, between the epidermis and cutis, which covers the ſenſible cutaneous papillæ, connects the epidermis with the cutis, and gives the colour to the body: in Europeans it is of a white colour, in Ethiopians black. See *Skin.*

RETICULAR, (*Reticularis*, from *rete*, a net). Interwoven like a net.

RETIFORM, (*Retiformis*, from *rete*, a net, and *forma*, reſemblance). Net-like.

RETĬNA, (*Retina, æ*, f. from *rete*, a net). The third or innermoſt membrane of the eye expanded round the choroid coat, to the ciliary ligament. It is the true organ of viſion, and is formed by an expanſion of the pulp of the optic nerve.

RETORT, (*Retorta, æ*, f. from *retorqueo*, to bend back again; probably ſo called becauſe its neck was curved and bent back again). A chemical veſſel employed for many diſtillations, and moſt frequently for thoſe which require a degree of heat ſuperior to that of boiling water. They differ in form and materials: when pierced with a little hole in their roof, they are called tubulated retorts. They are made of common glaſs, ſtone ware, and iron.

RETRACTOR ANGŬLI ORIS. Albinus calls the buccinator thus. See *Buccinator.*

RETRAHENTES AURIS. *Posterior auris* of Winslow. Two small bundles of muscular fibres which arise from the external and posterior part of the mastoid process of the temporal bone immediately above the insertion of the sterno-cleido-mastoideus muscle. They are inserted into that part of the back of the ear which is opposite to the septum which divides the concha and scapha. Their use is to draw the ear backwards, and stretch the concha.

RETROVERSION. See *Uterus, Retroversion of.*

REVERBERATORY FURNACE. See *Furnace.*

RHABARBĂRUM, (*Rhabarbarum, i*, n. from *Rha*, and *barbarus*, wild; so called because it was brought from the banks of the Rha in Russia). *Rhabarbarum verum. Rhabarbarum tartaricum. Rheum.* Rhubarb. It was not until the year 1732 that naturalists became acquainted with any plant which seemed to afford the Rhabarbarum officinale, when some plants received from Russia by Jussieu at Paris, and Raud at Chelsea, were said to supply this important desideratum, and as such were adopted by Linnæus, in his first edition of the Species Plantarum, under the name of *Rheum rhabarbarum*. This, however, was not generally received as the genuine rhubarb plant; and with a view to ascertain this matter more completely, Kaun Boerhaave procured from a Tartarian rhubarb merchant the seeds of those plants whose roots he annually sold, and which were admitted at Petersburgh to be the true rhubarb. These seeds were soon propagated, and were discovered by De Gorter to produce two distinct species, viz. the *R. Rhabarbarum* of Linnæus, or as it has since been called, the *R. undulatum*, and another species, a specimen of which was presented to Linnæus, who declared it to be a new one, and was first mentioned in the second edition of the Sp. Plantarum, in 1762, by the name of *R. Palmatum*. Previous to this time De Gorter had repeatedly sent its seeds to Linnæus, but the young plants which they produced constantly perished; at length he obtained the fresh root, which succeeded very well at Upsall, and afterwards enabled the younger Linnæus to describe this plant, ann. 1767. But two years antecedent to this Dr. Hope's account of the Rheum palmatum, as it grew in the botanic garden near Edinburgh, had been read before the Royal Society at London; and of the great estimation in which this plant was held by him, we have the following proof; "From the perfect similarity of this root with the best foreign rhubarb, in taste, smell, colour, and purgative qualities, we cannot doubt of our being at last possessed of the plant which produces the true rhubarb, and may reasonably entertain the agreeable expectation of its proving a very important acquisition to Britain."

But from the relation we have given, it appears that both the seeds of the R. palmatum, and the R. undulatum, were transmitted to Petersburgh, as those of the true rhubarb; we are therefore to conclude, that the former species has an equal claim to this importance with the latter; and from further enquiries made in Russia, there is the best authority for believing that the R. compactum also affords this very useful drug. The seeds of the R. palmatum were first introduced into Britain in 1762, by Dr. Hounsy (who sent them from Russia), and were supposed to be a part of that already mentioned; and since their prosperous cultivation by the late professor of botany at Edinburgh, the propagation of this plant has been gradually extended to most of our English

gardens, and with a degree of ſucceſs which promiſes in time to ſuperſede the importation of the foreign root. Two ſorts of rhubarb roots are uſually imported into this country for medical uſe, viz. the Chineſe, and the Tartary rhubarb; the firſt is in oblong pieces, flattiſh on one ſide, and convex on the other; compact, hard, heavy, internally of a dull red colour, variegated with yellow and white, and when recently powdered, appears yellow, but on being kept becomes gradually redder. The ſecond is the moſt valuable, and is brought to us in roundiſh pieces, with a large hole through the middle of each; it is more ſoft and friable than the former ſort, and exhibits, when broken, many ſtreaks of a bright red colour. "The marks of the goodneſs of rhubarb are, the livelineſs of its colour when cut; its being firm and ſolid, but not flinty or hard; its being eaſily pulverable, and appearing when powdered of a fine bright yellow colour; its imparting to the ſpittle when chewed a deep ſaffron tinge, and not proving ſlimy or mucilaginous in the mouth; its taſte is ſubacrid, bitteriſh, and ſomewhat ſtyptic; the ſmell lightly aromatic."

The purgative qualities of rhubarb are extracted more perfectly by water than by rectified ſpirit: the root remaining after the action of water is almoſt if not wholly inactive; whereas after repeated digeſtion in ſpirit, it proves ſtill very conſiderably purgative. The virtue of a watery infuſion, on being inſpiſſated by a gentle heat is ſo much diminiſhed, that a dram of the extract is ſaid to have ſcarcely any greater effect than a ſcruple of the root in ſubſtance. The ſpirituous tincture loſes leſs; half a dram of this extract proving moderately purgative. The qualities of this root are that of a gentle purgative, and ſo gentle that it is often inconvenient on account of the bulk of the doſe required, which in adults muſt be from ʒſs to ʒj. When given in a large doſe it will occaſion ſome griping, as other purgatives do; but it is hardly ever heating to the ſyſtem, or ſhews the other effects of the more draſtic purgatives. The purgative quality is accompanied with a bitterneſs, which is often uſeful in reſtoring the tone of the ſtomach when it has been loſt; and, for the moſt part, its bitterneſs makes it ſit better on the ſtomach than many other purgatives do. Its operation joins well with neutral laxatives; and both together operate in a leſſer doſe than either of them would ſingly. Some degree of ſtipticity is always evident in this medicine; and as this quality acts when that of the purgative has ceaſed, ſo, in caſes of diarrhæa, when any evacuation is proper, rhubarb has been conſidered as the moſt proper remedy to be employed. It muſt, however, be remarked here, that in many caſes of diarrhæa, no further evacuation than what is occaſioned by the diſeaſe, is neceſſary or proper. The uſe of rhubarb, in ſubſtance, for keeping the belly regular, for which it is frequently employed, is by no means proper, as the aſtringent quality is ready to undo what the purgative has done; but it is found that the purpoſe mentioned may be obtained by it, if the rhubarb is chewed in the mouth, and no more is ſwallowed than what the ſaliva has diſſolved. And it muſt be remarked, that in this way employed it is very uſeful to dyſpeptic perſons. Analagous to this, is the uſe of rhubarb in ſolution, in which it appears to me, that the aſtringent quality is not ſo largely extracted as to operate ſo powerfully as when the rhubarb was employed in ſubſtance.

The officinal preparations of this drug are, a watery and a vinous infuſion, a ſimple and a compound tinc-

ture. It is alſo an ingredient in different compoſitions; as, the elixir ex aloe et rheo, pilulæ ſtomachicæ, and ſome others.

RHABARBĂRUM ALBUM. See *Mechoacanna.*

RHABARBĂRUM ANTIQUORUM. See *Rhaponticum.*

RHABARBĂRUM MONACHŌRUM. *Hippolapathum. Patientia.* Monks rhubarb. Garden patience. This root, which is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the virtues of rhubarb, but in an inferior degree, is obtained from the *Rumex patientia* of Linnæus, and, according to Profeſſor Murray, from the *Rumex alpinus* of Linnæus. It is obviouſly more adſtringent than rhubarb, but comes very far ſhort of its purgative virtue.

RHABARBĂRUM SIBIRĬCUM The plant directed for medicinal purpoſes by this name is the *Rheum undulatum*; *foliis ſubvilloſis undulatis petiolis æqualibus* of Linnæus. It poſſeſſes ſimilar virtues to thoſe of the palmate ſpecies, and is in common uſe in Ruſſia.

RHABARBĂRUM TARTARĬCUM. See *Rhabarbarum.*

RRABARBĂRUM VERUM. See *Rhabarbarum.*

RACHIS, (Ῥαχις, the ſpine of the back). See *Spine.*

RHACHĪTIS. See *Rachitis.*

RHAGĂDES, (*Rhagas, ădis,* ραγας, from ῥηγνυω, to break or bruiſe). Malignant, dry, and deep cutaneous fiſſures.

RHAMNUS, (*Rhamnus, i,* m. ραμνος, from ραιω, to deſtroy becauſe of its many thorns). Buck-thorn.

RHAMNUS CATHARTĬCUS. The ſyſtematic name of the buck-thorn. See *Spina cervina.*

RHAMNUS FRANGŬLA. The ſyſtematic name of the black alder. See *Frangula.*

RHAMNUS ZIZŸPHUS. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the jujubs. See *Jujubæ.*

RHAPONTIC, RHUBARB. See *Rhaponticum.*

RHAPONTĬCUM, (*Rhaponticum, i,* n. the Rha of Pontus, i. e. the Rha in Ruſſia, a river on whoſe bank it grew). *Rhabarbarum Dioſcoridis. Rhabarbarum antiquorum.* The roo of this plant, *Rheum rhaponticum* o Linnæus, appears to have been th true rhubarb of the antients. B ſome it is confounded with the mo dern rhubarb, though conſiderabl different from that root in appear ance, as well as in quality. Th rhapontic is of a duſky colour on it ſurface, and a looſe ſpongy texture is more adſtringent than rhubarb, an leſs purgative; in this laſt intentio two or three drachms are required fo a doſe.

RHAPONTĬCUM VULGĀRE OFFI CINĀRUM. *Centaurium majus.* Grea er centaury. The root of this plan *Centaurea centaureum* of Linnæus, w formerly uſed as an aperient and co roborant in alvine fluxes. It is no totally diſcarded from the mater medica of this country.

RHEUM, (*Rheum, i,* n. ρεον, fro *Rha,* a river in Ruſſia). See *Rh barbarum.*

RHEUM PALMĀTUM. The ſy tematic name of the officinal rh barb. See *Rhabarbarum.*

RHEUM RHAPONTĬCUM. T ſyſtematic name of the rhapon rhubarb. See *Rhaponticum.*

RHEUM UNDULĀTUM. The ſ tematic name of the officinal rh barbarum ſibericum. See *Rhabar rum ſibiricum.*

RHEUMA, (*Rheuma, ătis,* n. ρευμ from ῥεω, to flow). The diſchar from the noſtrils or lungs ariſi from cold; hence the following li of the ſchool of Salernum:

Si fluit ad pectus, dicatur rheu catarrhus,
Ad fauces branchus, ad nares coryza.

RHEUMATISM, (*Rheumatiſmus, i,* n. ῥευματισμος; from ῥευματιζω, to be afflicted with defluxions). This term is ſo called from its being formerly uſed in the ſame ſenſe as *rheuma*; but, in the preſent day, the meaning of this word is applied to a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen; characterized by pyrexia, pains in the joints, increaſed by the action of the muſcles belonging to the joint, and heat on the part. The blood, after venæſection, exhibits an inflammatory ſurface. Rheumatiſm terminates in arthrodynia, lumbago, and iſchias. Rheumatiſm is diſtinguiſhed into *acute* and *chronic*. The acute is preceded by ſhivering, heat, thirſt, and frequent pulſe; after which the pain commences, and ſoon fixes on the joints. The chronic rheumatiſm is diſtinguiſhed by pain in the joints, without pyrexia, and is divided into three ſpecies; *Lumbago*, affecting the loins; and *Iſchias*, or *ſchiatica*, affecting the hip, and *arthrodynia*, or pains in the joints. The acute ſpecies moſtly terminates in one of theſe ſpecies.

RHIBESIA, (*Rhibeſia, æ,* f. from *Ribes*, a currant). See *Ribes nigrum*, *Ribes rubrum*, and *Fruits ſummer*.

RHINÆUS, (*Rhinæus, ſc. muſculus*; from ῥις, the noſe). See *Compreſſor naris*.

RHODIA, (*Rhodia, æ,* f. ῥοδια; from ῥοδον, a roſe; ſo called becauſe its root ſmells like the damaſk roſe). The radix rhodiæ of ſome pharmacopœias, is the produce of the *Rhodiola roſea* of Linnæus, called roſe-wort. When dry, it has a very pleaſant ſmell, reſembling that of the damaſk roſe. In this odorous matter the medical virtue of the root reſides. Poultices in which this root enters as a chief ingredient, are ſaid to allay violent pains of the head.

RHODIUM LIGNUM, (*Rhodium, i,* n. ῥοδιον; from ῥοδον, a roſe, a wood which ſmells like roſes). Rhodium, or roſe wood. The wood or root of a tree ſuppoſed to be the *Geniſta canarienſis; foliis ternatis, utrinque pubeſcentibus; ramis angulatis* of Linnæus. It is brought from the Canary iſlands in long crooked pieces, full of knots, externally of a whitiſh colour, internally of a deep yellow, with a red caſt. The largeſt, ſmootheſt, heavieſt, and deepeſt coloured pieces, ſhould be choſen. Roſe wood has a ſlightly bitteriſh, ſomewhat pungent, balſamic taſte, and a fragrant ſmell, eſpecially when ſcraped or rubbed, reſembling that of roſes. An eſſential oil is obtained from it, which is uſed principally as a perfume, but poſſeſſes cordial and corroborant virtues.

RHODOLA ROSEA. The ſyſtematic name of the roſe wort. See *Rhodia*.

RHODODENDRON, (*Rhododendron, dri,* n. ῥοδοδενδρον; from ῥοδον, a roſe, and δενδρον, a tree; ſo called becauſe its flowers reſemble the roſe). The oleander, or roſe bay. *Rhododendron chryſanthemum Linnæi. Rhododendron foliis oblongis impunctis ſupra ſcabris venoſiſſimis, corolla rotata irregulari, gemma florifera ferrugineo-tomentoſa.* Suppl. Plant. Claſs *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*. It was firſt recommended by Koelpin as an efficacious medicine, not only in rheumatiſm and gout, but even in venereal caſes; and it is now very generally employed in chronic rheumatiſms. The leaves, which are the part directed for medicinal uſe, have a bitteriſh ſubadſtringent taſte. Taken in a large doſe, they prove a narcotic poiſon; and, in moderate doſes, they are ſaid to occaſion heat, thirſt, a degree of delirium, and a peculiar ſenſation of the parts affected.

RHODODENDRON CHRYSANTHEMUM. The ſyſtematic name of the oleander, or roſe-bay. See *Rhododendron*.

RHŒAS, (*Rhœas, rhœadis*, f. ροιας; from ρεω, to flow). The wild poppy is ſometimes ſo called. See *Papaver erraticum.*

RHOMBOIDĒUS, (from ῥομβος, a geometrical figure whoſe ſides are equal, but not right-angled, and ειδος, reſemblance). *Rhomboidēus major* and *minor.* This muſcle, which is ſo named from its ſhape, is ſituated immediately under the trapezius.—We find it uſually, though not always, divided into two portions, which Albinus deſcribes as two diſtinct muſcles. The uppermoſt of theſe, or *rhomboideus minor*, ariſes tendinous from the ſpinous proceſs of the three inferior vertebræ of the neck, and from the ligamentum colli; the lowermoſt, or *rhomboideus major*, ariſes tendinous from the ſpinous proceſſes of the back: the former is inſerted into the baſis of the ſcapula, oppoſite to its ſpine; the latter into all the baſis of the ſcapula, below its ſpine. Its uſe is to draw the ſcapula obliquely upwards, and directly backwards.

RHUBARB. See *Rhabarbarum.*

RHUBARB, MONKS. See *Rhabarbarum monachorum.*

RHUBARB, RHAPONTIC. See *Rhaponticum.*

RHUS, (*Rhus, i*, n. ῥυς; from ῥεω, to flow; ſo called becauſe it ſtops fluxes). The ſumach tree.

RHUS BELGĬCA. The Dutch myrtle is ſometimes ſo termed. See *Myrtus brabantica.*

RHUS CORIARĬA. See *Sumach.*

RHUS RADICANS. A poiſonous plant, *Rhus vernix* of Linnæus, the efficacy of which Dr. Freſnoi has endeavoured to prove, in the diſeaſe called paralyſis, and herpetic affections. He, in order that others ſhould not ſuffer by his experiments, began by taking an infuſion of one of the three folioli, of which each leaf of this plant conſiſts; and as this doſe produced no ſenſible effect, he increaſed the number to twelve. His urine and perſpiration were increaſed in quantity, and he had ſome pains in his belly. He relates ſeven caſes, in which he thinks he can remove all doubt of the efficacy of this infuſion, in herpetic affections. From theſe the following are ſelected:

"A country woman, (ſays Dr. Freſnoi), came to me in the month of July 1780, to conſult me about the herpes farinoſa, with which her face had been covered for more than a year. She was ordered to make an infuſion of this plant; and in ſix weeks was entirely free from the diſeaſe."

He likewiſe relates five caſes of paralyſis, which were cured by the uſe of this plant.

The leaves of this plant are to be cut when in the greateſt vigour, about the month of June. "Thoſe who cut this plant (ſays Dr. F.), wear leathern gloves, on account of its poiſonous qualities." The ſame gentleman obſerves, he ſaw one caſe in which inflammation of the eye-lids was produced by the vapour from the plant. Four pounds of the leaves being diſtilled with thirty-two pounds of water, gives it a ſlight odour, although the plant is entirely free from it. Its taſte is pungent, and inflames the mouth. The decoction which remains in the ſtill is brown, and is generally covered with a light brown pellicle. When ſtrained and evaporated, it gives a ſhining black extract. The leaves inflame and ſwell the hands and arms of thoſe who take them out of the ſtill, and brings on an itching, which remains for ſeveral days. Forty-two pounds of the leaves afford twenty ounces of extract, of a proper conſiſtence for pills.

"A girl, in Flanders, (ſays Dr. Freſnoi), already ſubject to fits, laid down ſome flowers in her bed-room. Next day ſhe told me, that ſhe had undergone a great change; that ſhe

ad had no fits, and ſlept much bet-
r. "It occurred to to me, (ſays
)r. F.) that the flowers occaſioned
is change. Next day, the flowers
eing removed, and the window
pened, the convulſions reappeared;
n their being again introduced, the
ts diſappeared; which proved
lainly it was the effect of the
owers. The ſucceſs of the extract
i tuſſis convulſiva exceeded my
opes; forty-two children being cur-
l of this diſorder in Valenciennes
uring the end of the year 1786.
our grains of extract diſſolved in
our ounces of ſyrup, of which one
ible ſpoonful given to the child
very third hour, generally abates the
ough, and moſtly leaves them.

Rhus tiphinum. The ſyſte-
atic name of the Virginian ſu-
ach, whoſe ſeeds are ſaid to be uſe-
l in ſtopping hæmorrhages.

Rhus vernix. The ſyſtematic
ame of a ſpecies of ſumach which
ludes a poiſonous reſin. See *Rhus
dicans*.

Rhyas, (*Rhyas, ădis*, f. ῥοιὰς or
ᾶς, a diſeaſe of the eye). A de-
eaſe or defect of the lachrymal ca-
ncle. The proximate cauſe is a
ative defect; or it may originate
om exciſion, eroſion, or acrimony.
his diſorder is commonly incurable,
id it induces an incurable *ephiphora*,
r a continual weeping.

Rhytidosis. See *Rutidoſis*.

Ribes nigrum, (*Ribes, is*, pl.
bes, ium, black currants). This in-
ginous plant, *Ribes nigrum* of Lin-
æus, (*Ribes inerme, racemis piloſis,
ribus oblongis*. Claſs *Pentandria*.
rder *Monogynia*), affords larger
rries than thoſe of the red, which
e ſaid to be peculiarly uſeful in
re throats, and to poſſeſs a diuretic
wer in a very conſiderable degree.
he leaves of the black currant are
xtremely fragrant, and have been
kewiſe recommended for their me-
cinal virtue. The officinal prepa-
rations of the berries in the London
pharmacopœias are the *ſyrupus ribis
nigri*, and the *ſuccus ribis nigri inſpiſ-
ſatus*.

Ribes rubrum. The red cur-
rant. *Ribes rubrum* of Linnæus. *Ribes
inerme, racemis glabris pendulis, flori-
bus planiuſculis*. Claſs *Pentandria*.
Order *Monogynia*. The white cur-
rant tree is merely a variety of the
red, the fruit of both is perfectly
analogous; therefore what is ſaid of
the one, applies to the other. The
red currant is abundantly cultivated
in gardens, and from its grateful
acidity is univerſally accepted, either
as nature preſents it, or variouſly
prepared by art with the addition of
ſugar. Conſidered medicinally, it is
eſteemed to be moderately refrige-
rant, antiſeptic, attenuant, and ape-
rient. It may be uſed with conſi-
derable advantage to allay thirſt in
moſt febrile complaints, to leſſen an
increaſed ſecretion of bile, and to
correct a putrid and ſcorbutic ſtate
of the fluids, eſpecially in ſanguine
temperaments; but, in conſtitutions
of a contrary kind, it is apt to occa-
ſion flatulency and indigeſtion.

Ribs, (*Coſta, æ*, f. *a coſtodiendo*,
becauſe they guard the vital viſcera).
The ribs are the long curved bones
which are placed in an oblique direc-
tion at the ſides of the cheſt. Their
number is generally twelve on each
ſide; but, in ſome ſubjects, it has
been found to be thirteen, and in
others, though more rarely, only
eleven. They are diſtinguiſhed into
true and falſe ribs. The ſeven upper
ribs, which are articulated to the
ſternum, are called *true* ribs; and the
five lower ones, which are not im-
mediately attached to that bone, are
called *falſe* ribs. At the poſterior
extremity of each rib we obſerve a
ſmall head, divided by a middle ridge
into two articulating ſurfaces, cover-
ed with cartilage, which are received
into two cavities contiguous to each

other, and formed in the upper and lower part of each dorſal vertebra, as we have already obſerved in our deſcription of the ſpine. This articulation, which is ſecured by a capſular ligament, is a ſpecies of ginglimus, and allows only of motion upwards and downwards. The head of each rib is ſupported by a ſhort neck, and immediately beyond this we find a flattened tubercle, affording an oblong and ſlightly convex ſurface, which is articulated with the tranſverſe proceſs of the loweſt of the two dorſal vertebræ, with which its head is articulated. At ſome little diſtance from this tuberoſity, the rib makes a conſiderable curve, which is uſually called its angle. From the tubercle to the angle the ribs are of conſiderable thickneſs, and approaching to a cylindrical ſhape; but, from the angle to their anterior extremity, they become thinner and flatter. To this anterior extremity is fixed a long, broad, and ſtrong cartilage, which, in each of the true ribs, reaches to the ſternum, where its articulation is ſecured by a capſular ligament, and by other ligamentous fibres. The cartilages of the ſixth and ſeventh ribs being longer than the reſt, are extended upwards, in order to reach the ſternum, the inferior portion of which is about on a level with the fifth rib. The cartilages of theſe two ribs are uſually united into one, ſo as to leave no ſpace between them. The falſe ribs are ſupported in a different manner; their cartilages terminate in an acute point before they reach the ſternum, the eighth rib being attached by its cartilage to the lower edge of the cartilage of the ſeventh, or laſt of the true ribs; the ninth in the ſame manner to the eighth; and the tenth to the ninth; the carlilages of each rib being ſhorter than that of the rib above it. The eleventh and twelfth, which are the two lowermoſt ribs, are not fixed at their anterior extremities like the other ribs, but hang looſe, and are ſupported only by their ligamentous fibres, and by muſcles and other ſoft parts.

The external ſurface of each rib is ſomewhat convex, and its internal ſurface ſlightly concave. On the inferior and interior ſurface of theſe bones we obſerve a long foſſa, for the lodgment of the intercoſtal veſſels and nerves. This channel, however, does not extend through the whole length of the rib, being obſervable neither at the poſterior extremity, where the veſſels have not yet reached the bone, nor at the fore end, where they are diſtributed to the parts between the ribs. We ſeldom ſee any marks of it in the ſhort ribs, as in the firſt, ſecond, eleventh, and twelfth.

Thus far we have given a deſcription, which is applicable to the ribs in general; but, as we find them differing from each other in ſhape, length, ſituation, and other reſpects, it will be right to ſpeak of each rib in particular.

The *firſt* rib, which is the ſhorteſt of any, is likewiſe the moſt curved. It is broader than the other ribs, and, inſtead of being placed, as they are, obliquely, and with its edges upwards and downwards, it is ſituated nearly in a tranſverſe direction, one of its edges being placed inwards, or nearly ſo. Of theſe edges, the inner one is ſharp, and the outer one ſomewhat rounded. Its inner ſurface is ſmooth, and its ſuperior ſurface is ſometimes ſlightly depreſſed anteriorly by the clavicle. The head of this rib, inſtead of being angular, is flattened, and ſlightly convex, being received into a cavity, which is formed wholly in the firſt vertebra, and not by two vertebræ, as is the caſe with the other ribs.

The *ſecond* rib is longer than the

firſt, but ſhorter than the ribs below it. Its angle is placed at a ſmall diſtance from its tuberoſity, and its head is articulated with two vertebræ, like the other ribs. The other ten ribs, the two laſt only excepted, differ from the general deſcription we have given, chiefly in the difference of their length, which goes on gradually increaſing, from the firſt or uppermoſt, to the ſeventh or laſt of the true ribs, and as gradually diminiſhing from that to the twelfth. Their obliquity, in reſpect to the ſpine, likewiſe increaſes as they deſcend, as does the diſtance between the head and angle of each rib, from the firſt rib to the ninth. The two loweſt ribs differ from all the reſt in the following particulars: Their heads, like that of the firſt rib, are rounded, and received into a cavity formed entirely in the body of one vertebra; they have no tubercle for their articulation with the tranſverſe proceſſes, to which they are only looſely fixed by ligaments, and in this reſpect the tenth rib is ſometimes found to agree with them: they are much ſhorter than the reſt of the falſe ribs, and the twelfth is ſtill ſhorter than the eleventh. The length of the latter, however, is different in different ſubjects, and is not always found to be the ſame on both ſides in the ſame ſkeleton. Anteriorly, as we have already obſerved, their cartilages are ſhort and looſe, not being attached to the cartilages of the other ribs; and this ſeems to be, becauſe the moſt conſiderable motions of the trunk are not performed on the lumbar vertebræ alone, but likewiſe on the lower vertebræ of the back; ſo that if theſe two ribs had been confined anteriorly, like the reſt, and likewiſe united to the bodies of two vertebræ, and to the tranſverſe proceſs, this diſpoſition would have impeded the motion of the two laſt vertebræ of the back, and conſequently would have affected the motion of the trunk in general.

RIBWORT. The *Plantago lanceolata* of Linnæus, or narrow-leaved plantain is ſometimes ſo termed.

RICE. See *Oryza*.

RĬCĬNUS, (*Ricinus*, *i*, m. *quaſi* κυνος, a dog's noſe, becauſe they ſtick to the noſes of dogs). *Cataputia major*. *Ricinus vulgaris*. *Palma chriſti*. Mexico ſeed. *Ricinus communis; foliis peltatis ſubpalmatis ſerratis*. Claſs *Monoecia*. Order *Monadelphia*. This plant appears to be the Κικι or Κροτων of Dioſcorides, who obſerves, that the ſeeds are powerfully cathartic; it is alſo mentioned by Ætius, Paulus Ægineta, and Pliny. The ricinus was firſt cultivated in England, in the time of Turner, and is now annually reared in many gardens in the neighbourhood of London; and in that of Dr. Saunders, at Highbury, the plant grew to a ſtate of great perfection. An oil extracted from the ſeeds of this plant, and known by the name of oleum ricini, palma chriſti, or caſtor oil, is the drug to which the pharmacopœias refer, and which has lately come into frequent uſe, as a quick but gentle purgative.

The London College directs this oil to be expreſſed from the ſeeds in the ſame way as that of the oil of almonds, and without the aſſiſtance of heat, by which the oil would ſeem to be obtained in the pureſt ſtate. However, we have ſome reaſon to believe that this method is ſeldom practiſed, and that the oil uſually employed here is imported from the Weſt Indies, where it is commonly prepared in the following manner: "The ſeeds being freed from the huſks or pods, which are gathered upon their turning brown, and when beginning to burſt open, are firſt bruiſed in a mortar, afterwards tied up in a linen bag, and then thrown

into a large pot, with a ſufficient quantity of water (about eight gallons to one gallon of the ſeeds), and boiled till the oil is riſen to the ſurface, when it is carefully ſkimmed off, ſtrained, and kept for uſe. Thus prepared, the oil is entirely free from acrimony, and will ſtay upon the ſtomach when it rejects all other medicines." Mr. Long remarks, that the oil intended for medicinal uſe is more frequently cold drawn, or extracted from the bruiſed ſeeds by means of a hand-preſs. But this is thought more acrimonious than that prepared by coction. Dr. Browne is alſo of this opinion, and prefers the oil procured by coction to that by expreſſion; he attributes its greater mildneſs to the action of the fire, obſerving, that the expreſſed oil, as well as the mixed juices of the ſeeds, are far more active and violent in their operation.

Dr. Cullen obſerves, that "this oil, when the ſtomach can be reconciled to it, is one of the moſt agreeable purgatives we can employ. It has this particular advantage, that it operates ſooner after its exhibition than any other purgative I know of, as it commonly operates in two or three hours. It ſeldom gives any griping, and its operation is generally moderate, to one, two, or three ſtools only. It is particulary ſuited to caſes of coſtiveneſs, and even to caſes of ſpaſmodic cholic.

In the Weſt Indies it is found to be one of the moſt certain remedies in the dry belly-ach, or colica pictonum. It is ſeldom found heating or irritating to the rectum; and therefore is ſufficiently well ſuited to hæmorrhoidal perſons.

The only inconvenience attending the uſe of this medicine is, that as an oil it is nauſeous to ſome perſons; and that, when the doſe is large, it occaſions ſickneſs at the ſtomach for ſome time after it is taken. To obviate theſe inconveniencies, ſeveral means have been tried; and it is found that the moſt effectual means is the addition of a little ardent ſpirit.

For this, in the Weſt Indies, they employ rum; but that I might not withdraw any part of the purgative, I employ the *Tinct ſennæ comp.* This added in the proportion of one to three parts of the oil, and very intimately mixed, by being ſhaken together in a phial, both makes the oil leſs nauſeous to the taſte, and makes it ſit more eaſy on the ſtomach. The common doſe of this oil is a table ſpoonful, or half an ounce; but many perſons require a double quantity.

RICĬNUS COMMŪNIS. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the caſtor oil. See *Ricinus.*

RICĬNUS MAJOR. *Ricinoides. Pineus purgans. Pinhones indici. Faba cathartica. Nux cathartica americana. Nux barbadenſis.* An oblong black ſeed, the produce of the *Jatropha curcas; foliis cordatis angulatis* of Linnæus. It affords a quantity of oil, which is given in many places as the caſtor oil is in this country, to which it is very nearly allied. The ſeeds of the *Jatropha multifida* are of an oval and triangular ſhape, of a pale brown colour, are called purging nuts, and give out a ſimilar oil.

RICĬNUS VULGĀRIS. See *Ricinus.*

RICKETS. See *Rachitis.*

RIGOR. A coldneſs, attended by a ſhivering, more or leſs perfect.

RĪMA, (*Rima, æ*, f.). A fiſſure or opening; as the *rima laryngis, rima vulvæ.*

RIMA GLOTTĬDIS. The opening of the glottis, through which the air paſſes in and out of the lungs.

RIMŬLA, (*Rimula, æ*, f. dim. of *rima*, a fiſſure). A ſmall fiſſure.

RINÆUS. See *Compreſſor naris.*

Ring-worm. A ſpecies of herpes. See *Herpes*.

Risagon. See *Caſſumuniar*.

Roasting. A chemical proceſs, generally performed in crucibles, by which mineral ſubſtances are divided, ſome of their principles being volatilized and others changed, ſo as to prepare them for other operations.

Rob. An old term for an inſpiſſated juice.

Roborants. (*Medicamenta Roborantia*, from *roboro*, to ſtrengthen). Strengthening medicines. See *Stimulants*.

Roccella. The principal uſe of this plant, *Lichen roccella* of Linnæus, is as a blue dye. It has been employed medicinally with ſucceſs in allaying the cough attendant on phthiſis, and in hyſterical coughs.

Rochelle salt. See *Tartris ſodæ*.

Rockambole. The *Allium ſcorodophraſum* of Linnæus. The root is uſed for pickles and high ſeaſoned diſhes.

Rock-oil. See *Petroleum*.

Rock samphire. See *Samphire*.

Rocket, garden. See *Eruca*.

Rocket, roman. See *Eruca*.

Rocket, wild. See *Eruca ſylveſtris*.

Rorella. See *Ros ſolis*.

Ros calabrinus. The officinal manna is ſometimes ſo termed.

Ros solis, (*Ros, roris*, m. dew). *Rorella*. Sun dew. This elegant little plant, *Droſera rotundifolia ſcapis radicatis*; *foliis orbiculatis* of Linnæus, is ſaid to be ſo acrid as to ulcerate the ſkin, and remove warts and corns, and to excite a fatal coughing and delirium in ſheep who eat it. It is ſeldom given medicinally in this country but by the lower orders, who eſteem a decoction of it as ſerviceable in aſthmas and coughs.

Rosa alba. The white roſe. The flowers of this ſpecies poſſeſs ſimilar but inferior virtues to thoſe of the damaſk. They are directed in ſome officinal preparations.

Rosa canina. The ſyſtematic name of the dog roſe. See *Cynoſbatus*.

Rosa centifolia. The ſyſtematic name of the damaſk roſe. See *Roſa damaſcena*.

Rosa damascena, (*Roſa, æ*, f.). *Roſa pallida*. The damaſk roſe. The pharmacopœias direct a ſyrup to be prepared from the petals of this roſe, *Roſa centifolia* of Linnæus (*Roſa germinibus ovatis pedunculiſque hiſpidis, caule hiſpido aculeato, petiolis inermibus*. Claſs *Icoſandria*. Order *Polygynia*), which is found to be a pleaſant and uſeful laxative for children, or to obviate coſtiveneſs in adults. Moſt of the roſes, though much cultivated in our gardens, are far from being diſtinctly characterized. Thoſe denominated varieties are extremely numerous, and often permanently uniform; and the ſpecific differences, as hitherto pointed out, are in many reſpects ſo adequate to the purpoſe of ſatisfactory diſcrimination, that it becomes a difficult matter to diſtinguiſh which are ſpecies, and which are varieties only. The London College, following Gerard and Parkinſon, has ſtill retained the name roſa damaſcena; but the damaſk roſe is another ſpecies, widely different from the centifolia, as appears from the deſcription given of it by Du Roi and Miller.

The petals are directed for medicinal uſe: they are of a pale red colour, and of a very fragrant odour, which to moſt people is extremely agreeable; and therefore this and moſt of the other roſes are much uſed as noſegays. We may remark, however, that in ſome inſtances they have, under certain circumſtances, produced alarming ſymptoms. The petals "impart their odorous matter to watery liquors, both by infuſion and diſtillation. Six pounds of freſh roſes impregnate, by diſtillation, a

gallon, or more, of water, ſtrongly with their fine flavour. On diſtilling large quantities, there ſeparates from the watery fluid a ſmall portion of a fragrant butyraceous oil, which liquifies by heat, and appears yellow, but concretes in the cold into a white maſs. An hundred pounds of the flowers, according to the experiments of Tachenius and Hoffman, afforded ſcarcely half an ounce of oil." The ſmell of the oil exactly reſembles that of roſes, and is therefore much uſed as a perfume. It poſſeſſes very little pungency, and has been highly recommended for its cordial and analeptic qualities. Theſe flowers alſo contain a bitteriſh ſubſtance, which is extracted by water along with the odorous principle, and remains entire in the decoction after the latter has been ſeparated by diſtillation or evaporation.

This fixed ſapid matter of the petals manifeſts a purgative quality; and it is on this account that the flowers are received in the Materia Medica.

ROSA GALLĬCA. The ſyſtematic name of the red officinal roſe. See *Roſa rubra.*

ROSA PALLĬDA. See *Roſa damaſcena.*

ROSA RUBRA. Red officinal roſe. The flowers of this ſpecies, *Roſa gallica* of Linnæus (*Roſa germinibus ovatis pedunculiſque hiſpidis, caule petioliſque hiſpido aculeatis.* Claſs *Icoſandria.* Order *Polyginia*), are valued for their adſtringent qualities, which are moſt conſiderable before the petals expand; and therefore in this ſtate they are choſen for medicinal uſe, and ordered by the pharmacopœias in different preparations, as thoſe of a conſerve, a honey, an infuſion, and a ſyrup. The infuſion of roſes is a grateful cooling ſubadſtringent, and uſeful in hæmoptyſis, and other hæmorrhagic complaints; its efficacy, however, depends chiefly on the acid.

ROSA SYLVESTRIS. The dog roſe, or *Roſa canina* of Linnæus. See *Cynoſbatus.*

ROSACĔA. The term *gutta roſacea* is applied to little roſy coloured ſpots upon the face and noſe.

ROSE. A vulgar name for an eryſipelas. See *Eryſipelas.*

ROSE, DAMASK. See *Roſa damaſcena.*

ROSE, DOG. See *Cynoſbatus.*

ROSE, RED. See *Roſa rubra.*

ROSE ROOT. See *Rhodia.*

ROSE, WHITE. See *Roſa alba.*

ROSEA RĂDIX. See *Rhodia.*

ROSEBAY WILLOW HERB. This is the *Epilobium anguſtifolium* of Linnæus, common in our woods in moiſt ſituations. The young ſhoots are ſaid to be little inferior to aſparagus when boiled.

ROSEMARY. See *Roſmarinus.*

ROSEWOOD. See *Rhodium lignum.*

ROSEWORT. See *Rhodia.*

ROSIN. The ſame as reſin. See *Reſina.*

ROSMARĪNUS, (*Roſmarinus, i,* m. *quaſi roſa,* ῥμυρινη, becauſe it ſmells like myrrh). *Roſmarinus hortenſis.* Common roſemary. *Roſmarinus officinalis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Diandria.* Order *Monogynia.* The leaves and tops of this plant have a fragrant aromatic ſmell, and a bitteriſh pungent taſte. Roſemary is reckoned one of the moſt powerful of thoſe plants which ſtimulate and corroborate the nervous ſyſtem; it has therefore been recommended in various affections ſuppoſed to proceed from debility or defective excitement of the brain and nerves, as in certain head-achs, deafneſs, giddineſſes, and in ſome hyſterical and dyſpeptic ſymptoms.

ROSMARĪNUS HORTENSIS. See *Roſmarinus.*

ROSMARĪNUS OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the common roſemary. See *Roſmarinus.*

ROSMARĪNUS SYLVESTRIS. The

plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Ledum paluſtre* of Linnæus. It has a bitter ſubaſtringent taſte, and was formerly uſed in Switzerland in the place of hops. Its medicinal uſe is confined to the continent, where it is occaſionally given in the cure of hooping cough, ſore throat, dyſentery, and exanthematous diſeaſes.

ROTANG CANE. See *Sanguis draconis*.

ROTŬLA, (*Rotula, æ*, f. dim. of *rota*, a wheel; ſo called from its ſhape). See *Patella*.

ROUNDLEAVED SORREL. See *Rumex ſcutatus*.

ROŬND LIGAMENTS. *Ligamenta rotunda*. A bundle of veſſels and fibres contained in a duplicature of the peritonæum, that proceed from the ſides of the uterus, through the abdominal ring, and diſappear in the pudenda.

RUBĒDO, (*Rubedo, ĭnis*, f.). A diffuſed, but not ſpotted, redneſs in any part of the ſkin; ſuch as that which ariſes from bluſhing.

RUBEFACIENTS, (*Rubefacientia*; from *rubefacio*, to make red). Thoſe ſubſtances which, when applied a certain time to the ſkin, induce a redneſs without bliſtering.

RUBEŎLA, (*Rubeola, æ*, f. from *ruber*, red; from *rubeo*, to become red). *Morbilli*. The meaſles. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen; known by ſynocha, hoarſeneſs, dry cough, ſneezing, drowſineſs; about the fourth day, eruption of ſmall red points, diſcernible by the touch, which after three days end in mealy deſquamation. The blood after venæſection exhibits an inflammatory cruſt. In addition to the ſymptoms already related, it is remarkable, that the eyes and eye-lids always ſhew the preſence of this diſeaſe, being ſomewhat inflamed and ſuffuſed with tears. The ſynocha continues during the whole progreſs of the diſeaſe.

RUBĬA, (*Rubia, æ*, f. from *ruber*, red; ſo called from its red roots). *Erythrodanum*. *Radix rubra*. Madder. *Rubia tinctorum; foliis annuis, caule aculeato* of Linnæus. Claſs *Tetandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The roots of this plant have a bitteriſh, ſomewhat auſtere taſte, and a ſlight ſmell, not of the agreeable kind. It was formerly conſidered as a deobſtruent, detergent, and diuretic, but it is now very ſeldom uſed.

RUBĬA TINCTŌRUM. The ſyſtematic name of the madder plant. See *Rubia*.

RUBĪGO FERRI. *Chalybis rubigo præparata*. Ruſt of iron. This is a yellow oxyd of iron, and therefore termed *oxydum ferri luteum* in the chemical nomenclature. It poſſeſſes corroborant and ſtimulating properties, and is exhibited with ſucceſs in leucorrhæa, ataxia, aſthenia, chloroſis, pyroſis, dyſpepſia, rachitis, &c.

RUBUS ARCTĬCUS. The ſyſtematic name of the ſhruby ſtrawberry. See *Baccæ norlandicæ*.

RUBUS CÆSIUS. The ſyſtematic name of the dewberry plant, whoſe fruit reſemble the blackberry in appearance and qualities.

RUBUS CHAMÆMŌRUS. The ſyſtematic name of the cloudberry tree. See *Chamæmorus*.

RUBUS FRUCTICŌSUS. The ſyſtematic name of the common bramble, which affords blackberries. See *Blackberry*.

RUBUS IDÆUS, (*Rubus, i*, m. from *ruber*; ſo named from its red fruit). *Rubus idæus* of Linnæus. *Rubus foliis quinato-pinnatis ternatiſque, caule aculeato, petiolis canaliculatis*. Claſs *Icoſandria*. Order *Polygynia*. The raſpberry. The fruit of this plant has a pleaſant ſweet taſte, accompanied with a peculiar grateful fla-

vour, on account of which it is chiefly valued. Its virtues conſiſt in allaying heat and thirſt, and promoting the natural excretions. A grateful ſyrup prepared from the juice is directed for officinal uſe by the London pharmacopœia.

RUCTUS. An eructation.

RUE. See *Ruta*.

RUE, GOATS. See *Galiga*.

RUMEX ACETŌSA. The ſyſtematic name of the common ſorrel. See *Acetoſa*.

RUMEX ACŪTUS. The ſyſtematic name of the ſharp pointed wild-dock. See *Oxylapathum*.

RUMEX ALPĪNUS. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the monks rhubarb. See *Rhabarbarum monachorum*.

RUMEX AQUATĬCUS. The water dock. See *Hydrolapathum*.

RUMEX CRISPUS. The ſyſtematic name of the criſp-leaved dock. See *Oxylapathum*.

RUMEX HYDROLAPATHUM. The ſyſtematic name of the water dock. See *Hydrolapathum*.

RUMEX PATIENTĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the garden patience. See *Rhabarbarum monachorum*.

RUMEX SANGUINĔUS. The ſyſtematic name of the bloody dock, whoſe root has an auſtere and adſtringent taſte, and is ſometimes given by the vulgar in the cure of dyſentery.

RUMEX SCUTĀTUS. The ſyſtematic name of the French ſorrel, ſometimes called *acetoſa rotundifolia* in the ſhops. Its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of common ſorrel. See *Acetoſa*.

RUPTURA. See *Hernia*.

RUPTURE. See *Hernia*.

RUPTURE WORT. See *Herniaria*.

RUSCUS, (*Ruſcus, i*, m. *a ruſſo colore*; from the carnation colour of its berries). Μυρσινη αγρια, *Dios*. Butchers broom. Knee holly. A ſmall evergreen ſhrub, the *Ruſcus aculeatus; foliis ſupra floriferis nudis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Dioecia*. Order *Syngeneſia*. It grows in woods and thickets in this country. The root, which is ſomewhat thick, knotty, and furniſhed with long fibres, externally brown, internally white, and of a bitteriſh taſte, has been recommended as an aperient and diuretic in dropſies, urinary obſtructions, and nephritic caſes. It is ſeldom uſed in this country.

RUSCUS ACULĔĀTUS. The ſyſtematic name of butchers broom. See *Ruſcus*.

RUSCUS HYPOGLOSSUM. The ſyſtematic name of the uvularia. See *Uvularia*.

RUSH-NUT. The root of the *Cyperus eſculentus* of Linnæus, a native of Italy, where it is collected and eaten, being more delicately and pleaſantly taſted than our cheſnuts.

RUSH, SWEET. See *Juncus odoratus*.

RUSSIA ASHES. The impure potaſh, as imported from *Ruſſia*.

RUTA, (*Ruta, æ*, f. ρυτη; from ρυω, to preſerve, becauſe it preſerves health). Common rue. *Ruta graveolens* of Linnæus. *Ruta foliis decompoſitis, floribus lateralibus quadrifidis*. Claſs *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*. Rue has a ſtrong and grateful ſmell, and a bitter, hot, penetrating taſte; the leaves are ſo acrid, that by much handling they have been known to irritate and inflame the ſkin; and the plant, in its natural or uncultivated ſtate, is ſaid to poſſeſs theſe ſenſible qualities ſtill more powerfully. The imaginary quality of the rue, in reſiſting and expelling contagion, is now laid aſide. It is doubtleſs a powerful ſtimulant, and is conſidered, like other medicines of the fetid kind, as poſſeſſing attenuating, deobſtruent, and antiſpaſmodic powers. In the London pharmacopœia

it is directed in the form of an extract; and it is alſo an ingredient in the *pulvis e myrrha comp.*

RUTA GRAVEŎLENS. The ſyſtematic name of the common rue. See *Ruta.*

RUTA MURARĬA. The plant to which this name is given in the pharmacopœias, is the *Aſplenium ruta muraria* of Linnæus. It is ſuppoſed by ſome to poſſeſs ſpecific virtues in the cure of ulcers of the lungs, and is exhibited in the form of decoction.

RUTIDOSIS. A corrugation and ſubſiding of the cornea of the eye. The ſpecies are, 1. *Rutidoſis*, from a wound or puncture penetrating the cornea. 2. *Rutidoſis*, from a fiſtula penetrating the cornea. 3. *Rutidoſis*, from a deficiency of the aqueous humour, which happens from old age, fevers, great and continued evacuations, and in extreme dryneſs of the air. 4. *Rutidoſis* of dead perſons, when the aqueous humour exhales through the cornea, and no freſh humour is ſecreted; ſo that the cornea becomes obſcure and collapſed: this is a moſt certain ſign of death.

RUYSCHĬANA TUNĬCA. The internal ſurface of the choroid membrane of the human eye, which this celebrated anatomiſt imagined was a diſtinct lamina from the external ſurface.

RYE, COMMON. See *Secale.*

S.

S. A. The contraction of *ſecundum artem.*

S, or *ſs.* Immediately following any quantity, imports *ſemis* half.

SABADILLA. See *Cavadilla.*

SABĪNA, (*Sabina, æ,* f. named from the Sabines, whoſe prieſts uſed it in their religious ceremonies). Savine. *Juniperus ſabina* of Linnæus. *Juniperus foliis oppoſitis erectis decurrentibus, oppoſitionibus pyxidatis.* Claſs *Dioecia.* Order *Monadelphia.* The leaves and tops of this plant have a moderately ſtrong ſmell of the diſagreeable kind, and a hot, bitteriſh, acrid taſte; it is a powerful and active medicine, and has been long reputed the moſt efficacious in the materia medica, for producing a determination to the uterus, and thereby proving emmenagogue; it heats and ſtimulates the whole ſyſtem very conſiderably, and is ſaid to promote the fluid ſecretions. Externally ſavine is recommended as an eſcharotic to foul ulcers, ſyphilitic warts, &c. A ſtrong decoction of the plant in lard forms an uſeful ointment to keep up a conſtant diſcharge from bliſters, &c.

SABULOUS. Gritty, ſandy. A term often applied to the calcareous matter in urine.

SACCHĂRI ACĬDUM. Acid of ſugar. If one part of ſugar be diſtilled with three parts of nitric acid, till nitrous gas ceaſes to be developed, and then re-diſtilled with three parts of the ſame acid, a white cryſtallized ſalt is found in the liquid reſidue, which is the acid of ſugar.

SACCHĂRUM, (*Saccharum, i,* n.

σακχαρον, from *ſacchar*, Arab.). Sugar. The cane from which the ſugar is obtained in the Weſt and Eaſt Indies, is the *Arundo ſaccharifera* of Linnæus. Claſs *Triandria*. Order *Digynia*. It is prepared from the expreſſed juice boiled with the addition of quick lime or common vegetable alkali. It may be extracted alſo from a number of plants, as the maple, birch, wheat, corn, beat-root, ſkirret, parſnips, and dried grapes, &c. by digeſting in alcohol. The alcohol diſſolves the ſugar, and leaves the extractive matter untouched, which falls to the bottom. It may be taken into the ſtomach in very large quantities, without producing any bad conſequences, although proofs are not wanting of its miſchievous effects, by relaxing the ſtomach, and thus inducing diſeaſe. It is much uſed in pharmacy, as it forms the baſis of ſyrups, lozenges, and other preparations. It is very uſeful as a medicine to favour the ſolution or ſuſpenſion of reſins, oils, &c. in water, and is given as a purgative for infants. Sugar is every where the baſis of that which is called ſweetneſs. Its preſence is previouſly neceſſary in order to the taking place of vinous fermentation. Its extraction from plants which afford it in the greateſt abundance, and its refinement for the common uſes of life, in a pure and ſeparate ſtate, are among the moſt important of the chemical manufactures. The ſugar cane, however, yields ſugar, in a proportion ſo much larger than that in which the ſame matter is to be obtained from any other, that only this cane has been as yet cultivated expreſsly for the purpoſe of affording ſugar to the extraction of the manufacturer. This cane has been from the moſt ancient times known in Aſia. Of its produce ſome ſmall proportion appears to have been, during the greatneſs of ancient Rome, imported by circuitous channels, into Europe. In the progreſs of the ſubſequent ages, the plant itſelf became known in Europe, and was introduced into cultivation. Before the data of the diſcovery of America, it was no uncommon cultivation in Spain. The Spaniards carried out plants of the ſugar cane to America; but the plant had been, even before, propagated in this hemiſphere. They had not been long ſeated in their new colonial ſeats, till they made ſugar a principal article in their manufacture and agriculture. It has continued ever ſince to be the principal produce of the European colonial territories in the Weſt India iſles. It is produced alſo in very large quantities in the Eaſt. The Anglo-Americans extract it from the maple-tree. The cane is a produce of all the South Sea iſles of late diſcovery. In Pruſſia, and other parts of Germany, it has begun to be extracted from a particular ſort of beet. The following is the mode of its manufacture in the Weſt Indies: The plants are cultivated in rows, on fields enriched by ſuch manures as can moſt eaſily be procured, and tilled with the plough. They are annually cut. The cuttings are carried to the mill. They are cut into ſhort pieces, and arranged in ſmall bundles. The mill is wrought by water, wind, or cattle. The parts which act on the canes are upright cylinders. Between theſe the canes are inſerted, compreſſed, ſqueezed till all their juice is obtained from them, and are themſelves, ſometimes, even reduced to powder. One of theſe mills of the beſt conſtruction, bruiſes canes to ſuch a quantity as to afford, in one day, 10,000 gallons of juice, when wrought with only ten mules. The expreſſed juice is received into a leaden bed. It is thence conveyed into a veſſel called the receiver. The juice is found to conſiſt of eight parts of pure water,

one part of ſugar, one part of oil and gummy mucilage. From the greener parts of the canes there is apt to be at times derived, an acid juice, which tends to bring the whole unſeaſonably into a ſtate of acid fermentation. Fragments of the ligneous part of the cane, ſome portions of mud or dirt which unavoidably remain on the canes, and a blackiſh ſubſtance called the cruſt, which coated the canes at the joints, are alſo apt to enter into contaminating mixture with the juice. From the receiver the juice is conducted along a wooden gutter lined with lead, to the boiling houſe. In the boiling houſe it is received into copper pans or cauldrons, which have the name of clarifiers. Of theſe clarifiers the number and the capacity muſt be in proportion to the quantity of canes, and the extent of the ſugar plantation on which the work is carried on. Each clarifier has a ſyphon or cock, by which the liquor is to be drawn off. Each hangs over a ſeparate fire; and this fire muſt be ſo confined, that by the drawing of an iron ſlider fitted to the chimney, the fire may be at any time put out. In the progreſs of the operations, the ſtream of juice from the receiver fills the clarifier with freſh liquor. Lime in powder is added in order to take up the oxalic acid, and the carbonaceous matters which are mingled with the juice. The lime alſo in the new ſalts, into the compoſition of which it now enters, adds itſelf to the ſugar, as a part of that which is to be obtained from the proceſs. The lime is to be put in in the proportion of ſomewhat leſs than a pint of lime to every hundred gallons of liquor. When it is in too great quantities, however, it is apt to deſtroy a part of the pure ſaccharine matter. Some perſons employ alkaline aſhes, as preferable to lime, for the purpoſe of extracting the extraneous matter; but it is highly probable, that lime judiciouſly uſed might anſwer better than any other ſubſtance whatſoever. The liquor is now to be heated almoſt to ebullition. The heat diſſolves the mechanical union, and thus favors the chemical changes, in its different parts. When the proper heat appears, from a riſing ſcum on the ſurface of the liquor, to have been produced, the fire is then extinguiſhed by the application of the damper. In this ſtate of the liquor, the greater part of the impurities, being different in ſpecific gravity from the pure ſaccharine ſolution, and being alſo of ſuch a nature as to yield more readily to the chemical action of heat, are brought up to the ſurface in a ſcum. After this ſcum has been ſufficiently formed on the cooling liquor, this liquor is carefully drawn off, either by a ſyphon, which raiſes a pure ſtream through the ſcum, or by a cock drawing the liquor at the bottom from under the ſcum. The ſcum in either caſe ſinks down unbroken, as the liquor flows; and is now, by cooling, of ſuch tenacity, as not to ſend to any intermixture with the liquor. The liquor drawn, after this purification, from the boiler, is received into a gutter or channel, by which it is conveyed to the grand copper, or evaporating boiler. If made from good canes, and properly clarified, it will now appear almoſt tranſparent. In this copper, the liquor is heated to actual ebullition. The ſcum raiſed to the ſurface by the boiling is ſkimmed off as its riſes. The ebullition is continued till there be a conſiderable diminution in the quantity of the liquor. The liquor now appears nearly of the colour of Madeira wine. It is at laſt tranſferred into a ſecond and ſmaller copper. An addition of lime-water is here made, both to dilute the thickening liquor, to detach ſuperabundant acid, and to favour the forma-

tion of the ſugar. If the liquor be now in its proper ſtate, the ſcum riſes in large bubbles, with very little diſcoloration. The ſkimming and the evaporation together produce a conſiderable diminution in the quantity of the liquor. It is then transferred into another ſmaller boiler. In this laſt boiler, the evaporation is renewed, and continued till the liquor is brought to that degree of thickneſs at which it appears fit to be finally cooled. In the cooler, a ſhallow wooden veſſel of conſiderable length and wideneſs, commonly of ſuch a ſize as to contain a hogſhead of ſugar; the ſugar, as it cools, granulates, or runs into an imperfect cryſtallization, by which it is ſeparated from the melaſſes, a mixed ſaccharine matter too impure to be capable even of this imperfect cryſtallization. To determine whether the liquor be fit to be taken from the laſt boiler to be finally cooled, it is neceſſary to take out a portion from the boiler, and try ſeparately, whether it does not ſeparate into granulated ſugar and melaſſes. From the cooler the ſugar is removed to the curing houſe. This is a ſpacious airy building. It is provided with a capacious ciſtern for the reception of melaſſes, and over the ciſtern is erected a frame of ſtrong joiſtwork, unfilled and uncovered. Empty hogſheads, open at the head, bored at the bottom with a few holes, and having a ſtalk of plantain leaf thruſt through each of the holes, while it riſes at the ſame time through the inſide of the hogſhead, are diſpoſed upon the frames. The maſs of ſaccharine matter from the coolers is put into theſe hogſheads. The melaſſes drip into the ciſtern through the ſpongy plantain ſtalks in the holes. Within the ſpace of three weeks the melaſſes are ſufficiently drained off, and the ſugar remains dry. By this proceſs it is at laſt brought into the ſtate of what is called muſcovado or raw ſugar. This is the general proceſs in the Britiſh Weſt Indies. In this ſtate our Weſt India ſugar is imported into Britain. The formation of loaves of white ſugar is a ſubſequent proceſs. In the French Weſt India Iſles it has long been cuſtomary to perform the laſt part of this train of proceſſes in a manner ſomewhat different, and which affords the ſugar in a ſtate of greater purity. This preparation, taking the ſugar from the cooler, then puts it, not into hogſheads with holes in the bottom as above, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch in diameter, that is in the commencement of the proceſs, ſtopped with a plug. After remaining ſome time in the pot, the ſugar becomes perfectly cool and fixed. The ſugar is then removed out of the hole; the pot is placed over a large jar, and the melaſſes are ſuffered to drip away from it. After as much of the melaſſes as will eaſily run off has been thus drained away, the ſurface of the ſugar in the jar is covered with a ſtratum of fine clay, and water is poured upon the clay. The water oozing gently through the pores of the clay, pervades the whole maſs of ſugar, rediſſolves the melaſſes ſtill remaining in it, with ſome parts of the ſugar itſelf, and carrying theſe off by the holes in the bottom of the pot, renders that which reſiſts the ſolution much purer than the muſcovado ſugar made in the Engliſh way. The ſugar prepared in this manner is called clayed ſugar. It is ſold for a higher price in the European markets than the muſcovado ſugar; but there is a loſs of ſugar in the proceſs by claying, which deters the Britiſh planters from adopting this practice ſo generally as do the French.

The raw ſugars are ſtill contaminated and debaſed by a mixture of acid, carbonaceous matter, oil, and

coloring reſin. To free them from theſe is the buſineſs of the European ſugar bakers. A new ſolution; clarification with alkaline ſubſtances fitted to attract away the oil, acid, and other contaminating matters; ſlow evaporation; and a final cooling in ſuitable moulds; are the proceſſes which at laſt produce loaves of white ſugar.

The melaſſes being nothing elſe but a very impure refuſe of the ſugar from which they drip, are ſuſceptible of being employed in a new ebullition, by which a ſecond quantity of ſugar may be obtained from them. The remainder of the melaſſes is employed to yield rum by diſtillation.

In rum, alkohol is mixed with oil, water, oxalic acid, and a mixture of empyreumatic matter. The French prepare, from the mixture of melaſſes with water, a ſpecies of wine of good quality. In its preparation, the ſolution is brought into fermentation, then paſſed through ſtrainers to purify it, then put in caſks; after clearing itſelf in theſe, transferred into others, in which it is to be preſerved for uſe. The ratio of theſe proceſſes is extremely beautiful; they are all directed to purify the ſugar from contaminating mixtures, and to reduce it into that ſtate of dryneſs or cryſtalization, in which it is ſuſceptible of being the moſt conveniently preſerved for agreeable uſe. The heat in general acts both mechanically to effect a ſufficient diſſolution of the aggregation of the parts of the cane juice, and chemically, to produce in it new combinations into which caloric muſt enter as an ingredient. The firſt gentle heat is intended chiefly to operate with the mechanical influence, raiſing to the ſurface impurities which are more eaſily removed by ſkimming, than by any other means; a gentle, not a violent heat, is in this inſtance employed, becauſe a violent heat would produce empyreumatic ſalts, the production of which is to be carefully avoided. A boiling heat is, in the continuation of the proceſſes, made uſe of, becauſe, after the firſt impurities have been ſkimmed off, contaminating empyreumatic ſalts are leſs readily formed, becauſe a boiling heat is neceſſary to effect a complete developement of the ſaccharine matter, and becauſe the gradual concentration of the ſugar is, by ſuch a heat, to be beſt accompliſhed. Lime is employed, becauſe it has a ſtronger affinity than ſugar with all the contaminating matters, and particularly becauſe it attracts into a neutral combination that exceſs of oxalic acid which is apt to exiſt in the ſaccharine ſolution. Skimming removes the new ſalts which the moſt eaſily aſſume a ſolid form. The dripping carries away a mixture of water, oil, earth, ſugar, from the cryſtalized ſugar: for, in all our cryſtalizations we can never perform the proceſs in the great way, with ſuch nicety as to preſerve it free from an equality of proportions, that muſt neceſſarily occaſion a reſidue. Repeated ſolution, clarification, evaporation, are requiſite to produce pure white ſugar from the brown and raw ſugars; becauſe the complete purification of this matter from acid and coloring matter, is an operation of great difficulty, and not to be finally completed without proceſſes which are longer than can be conveniently performed, at the firſt, upon the ſugar plantation. From vegetables of European growth, ſugar is not to be eaſily obtained, unleſs the proceſs of germination be firſt produced in them; or unleſs they have been penetrated by intenſe froſt. Germination, or thorough freezing developes ſugar into all vegetables in which its

principles of hydrogen and carbon, with a ſmall proportion of oxygen, exiſt in any conſiderable plenty. It is not improbable, but that if penetration by a freezing cold could be commanded at pleaſure, with ſufficient cheapneſs, it would enable us to obtain ſaccharine matter in a large proportion, from a variety of ſubſtances, from which even germination does not yield a ſufficient quantity. In the ſugar beet, and ſome other European vegetables, ſugar is naturally formed by the functions of vegetation to perfect combination. From theſe the ſugar is obtained by raſping down the vegetable, extracting by water its ſaccharine juice, evaporating the water charged with the juice to the conſiſtency of ſyrup, clarifying, purifying, and cryſtalizing it, juſt in the ſame manner as ſugar from the ſugar cane.

SACCHARUM CANĂDENSE. The ſugar obtained from a ſpecies of maple-tree, the *Acer pſeudo-platanus* of Linnæus, in Canada, and imported into ſome parts of Europe. It is ſuppoſed to be efficacious in diſorders of the breaſt. Every part of the plant contains a ſweet ſaccharine juice. The trunk, root, or branches, wounded early in the ſpring, bleed a large quantity of clear liquor, which in its dilute ſtate taſtes ſomewhat ſweetiſh, and being inſpiſſated, yields the concrete ſugar, with a ſyrupy matter reſembling melaſſes. The unboiled juice has been drank as an antiſcorbutic. The Canada ſugar is much eſteemed in France in diſorders of the breaſt.

SACCHĂRUM NON PURIFICATUM. Brown ſugar. It is often exhibited as a lăxative in glyſters, and internally, to children.

SACCHĂRUM OFFICINĂRUM. The ſyſtematic name of the ſugar cane. See *Saccharum*.

SACCHĂRUM PURIFICĀTUM. Refined or loaf ſugar. See *Saccharum*.

SACCHĂRUM SATURNI. See *Ceruſa acetata*.

SACCHO-LACTIC ACID. The ſugar of milk in combination with oxygen.

SACCHOLATS, (*Saccholas, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the combination of the ſaccholactic acid with different baſes, as ſaccholat of iron, ſaccholat of ammoniac, &c. &c.

SACCUS LACHRŸMĀLIS, (*Saccus, i*, m.). The lachrymal ſac is ſituated in the internal canthus of the eye, behind the lachymal caruncle, in a cavity formed by the os unguis. It receives the tears from the puncta lachrymalia, and conveys them into the ductus lachrymalis.

SACRO-LUMBĀLIS. A long muſcle, thicker and broader below than above, and extending from the os ſacrum to the lower part of the neck, under the ſerrati poſtici, rhomboideus, trapezius, and latiſſimus dorſi. It ariſes in common with the longiſſimus dorſi, tendinous without, and fleſhy within, from the poſterior part of the os ſacrum; from the poſterior edge of the ſpine of the ilium; from all the ſpinous proceſſes, and from near the roots of the tranſverſe proceſſes of the lumbar vertebræ. At the bottom of the back it ſeparates from the longiſſimus dorſi, with which it had before formed, as it were, only one muſcle, and aſcending obliquely outwards; gradually diminiſhes in thickneſs, and terminates above in a very narrow point. From the place where it quits the longiſſimus dorſi, to that of its termination, we find it fleſhy at its poſterior, and tendinous at its anterior edge. This tendinous ſide ſends off as many long and thin tendons as there are ribs. The lowermoſt of theſe tendons are broader, thicker, and ſhorter than thoſe above; they are inſerted into

the inferior edge of each rib, where it begins to be curved forwards towards the ſternum, excepting only the uppermoſt and laſt tendon, which ends in the poſterior and inferior part of the tranſverſe proceſs of the laſt vertebra of the neck. From the upper part of the five, ſix, ſeven, eight, nine, ten, or eleven lower ribs, (for the number, though moſt commonly ſeven or eight, varies in different ſubjects), ariſe as many thin bundles of fleſhy fibres, which after a very ſhort progreſs, terminate in the inner ſide of this muſcle, and have been named by Steno, *muſculi ad ſacro lumbalem acceſſorii.* Beſides theſe, we find the muſcle ſending off a fleſhy ſlip from its upper part, which is inſerted into the poſterior and inferior part of the tranſverſe proceſſes of the five inferior vertebræ of the neck, by as many diſtinct tendons. This is generally deſcribed as a diſtinct muſcle. Diemerbroeck, and Douglas and Albinus after him, call it *cervicalis deſcendens.* Winſlow names it *tranſverſalis collateralis colli.* Morgagni conſiders it as an appendage to the ſacro lumbalis. The uſes of this muſcle are to aſſiſt in erecting the trunk of the body, in turning it upon its axis or to one ſide, and in drawing the ribs downwards. By means of its upper ſlip, it ſerves to turn the neck obliquely backwards, or to one ſide.

Sacrum, (*Sacrum, i,* n. ſo called from *ſacer,* ſacred). *Os ſacrum. Os baſilare.* The os ſacrum derives its name from its being offered in ſacrifice by the ancients, or perhaps from its ſupporting the organs of generation, which they conſidered as ſacred. In young ſubjects it is compoſed of five or ſix pieces, united by cartilage; but in more advanced age it becomes one bone, in which, however, we may ſtill eaſily diſtinguiſh the marks of the former ſeparation. Its ſhape has ſometimes been compared to an irregular triangle; and ſometimes, and perhaps more properly, to a pyramid, flattened before and behind, with its baſis placed towards the lumbar vertebræ, and its point terminating in the coccyx. We find it convex behind, and ſlightly concave before, with its inferior portion bent a little forwards. Its anterior ſurface is ſmooth, and affords four, and ſometimes five tranſverſe lines, of a colour different from the reſt of the bone. Theſe are the remains of the intermediate cartilages by which its ſeveral pieces were united in infancy. Its poſterior convex ſurface has ſeveral prominences, the moſt remarkable of which are its ſpinous proceſſes; theſe are uſually three in number, and gradually become ſhorter, ſo that the third is not ſo long as the ſecond, nor the ſecond as the firſt. This arrangement enables us to ſit with eaſe. Its tranſverſe proceſſes are formed into one oblong proceſs, which becomes gradually ſmaller as it deſcends. At the ſuperior part of the bone we obſerve two oblique proceſſes, of a cylindrical ſhape, and ſomewhat concave, which are articulated with the laſt of the lumbar vertebræ. At the baſe of each of theſe oblique proceſſes is a notch, which, with ſuch another in the vertebræ above it, forms a paſſage for the twenty-fourth ſpinal nerve. In viewing this bone, either before or behind, we obſerve four, and ſometimes five holes on each ſide, ſituate at each extremity of the tranſverſe lines we deſcribed as marking the diviſions of the bone. Of theſe holes, the anterior ones, and of theſe again, the uppermoſt, are the largeſt, and afford a paſſage to the nerves. The poſterior holes are ſmaller, covered with membranes, and deſtined for the ſame purpoſe as the former. Sometimes at the bot-

tom of the bone there is only a notch, and ſometimes there is a hole common to it and the os coccygis. The cavity between the body of this bone and its proceſſes, for the lodgment of the ſpinal marrow, is triangular, and becomes ſmaller as it deſcends, till at length it terminates obliquely on each ſide at the lower part of the bone. Below the third diviſion of the bone, however, the cavity is no longer completely bony, as in the reſt of the ſpine, but is defended poſteriorly only by a very ſtrong membrane; hence a wound in this part may be attended with the moſt dangerous conſequences. This bone is articulated above, with the laſt lumbar vertebra: laterally, it is firmly united, by a broad irregular ſurface, to the oſſa innominata, or hip bone: and below it is joined to the os coccygis. In women the os ſacrum is uſually ſhorter, broader, and more curved, than in men, by which means the cavity of the pelvis is more enlarged.

SAFFLOWER. See *Carthamus.*

SAFFRON. See *Crocus.*

SAFFRON, BASTARD. The ſafflower is ſometimes ſo called. See *Carthamus.*

SAFFRON, MEADOW. See *Colchicum.*

SAGAPĒNUM, (*Sagapenum, i,* n. σαγαπηνον. The name is derived from ſome eaſtern dialect). *Serapinum.* It is conjectured that this concrete gummi-reſinous juice is the production of an oriental umbelliferous plant. Sagapenum is brought from Perſia and Alexandria in large maſſes, externally yellowiſh, internally paler, and of an horny clearneſs. Its taſte is hot and biting, its ſmell of the alliaceous and fetid kind, and its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe which have been aſcribed to aſſafœtida, but weaker, and conſequently it is leſs powerful in its effects.

SAGE. See *Saliva.*

SAGE OF BETHLEHEM. See *Pulmonaria.*

SAGE OF JERUSALEM. See *Pulmonaria maculata.*

SAGE OF VIRTUE. See *Salvia hortenſis minor.*

SAGITTAL SUTURE, (*Sutura ſagittalis,* from *ſagitta,* an arrow). The ſuture which unites the two parietal bones. It has been named *ſagittal,* from its lying between the coronal and lamdoidal ſutures, as an arrow betwixt the ſtring and the bow.

SAGITTARĬA SAGITTĬFOLĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the common arrow-head, whoſe roots are eſculent but not very nutritious.

SAGO. *Sagus. Sagu.* A dry fecula, obtained from the pith of a ſpecies of palm, the *Cycas circualis* of Linnæus, in the iſlands of Java, Molucca, and the Philippines. Sago becomes ſoft and tranſparent by boiling in water, and forms a light and agreeable liquid, much recommended in febrile, phthiſical, and calculous diſorders, &c.

SAGU. See *Sago.*

SAINT ANTONY'S FIRE. See *Eryſipelas.*

SAINT IGNATIUS'S BEAN. See *Faba indica.*

SAINT JAMES'S WORT. The common ragwort is ſometimes ſo called. See *Jacobæa.*

SAINT JOHN'S WORT. See *Hypericum.*

SAINT VITUS'S DANCE. See *Chorea ſancti Viti.*

SAL ABSYNTHĬI. Salt of wormwood. This ſalt is preciſely the ſame as all the carbonats of potaſh. See *Kali preparatum.*

SAL ACETOCELLÆ. The ſalt of wood ſorrel, uſually vended for ſalt of lemons, is an acidulated oxylat of potaſh and called in the new chemical nomenclature *oxylas potaſſæ acidulus.*

SAL ALKALĪNUS FIXUS. See *Alkali, fixed.*

SAL ALKALĪNUS VOLATĬLIS. See *Ammoniac.*

Sal ammoniac. A ſaline concrete formed by the combination of the muriatic acid with ammoniac. This ſalt is found in places adjacent to volcanoes. It appears in the form of an efflorescence, or groups of needles, ſeparate or compacted together, generally of a yellow or red colour, and mixed with arſenic and orpiment; but no uſe is made of that which is procured in this way. The ſal ammoniac employed in the arts is prepared by a proceſs we ſhall ſoon deſcribe. The real origin of this factitious ſalt was unknown, till the beginning of the preſent century, though it had been made uſe of, in many of the arts, from time immemorial. M. Lemere, conſul at Cairo, in a letter to the royal academy of Paris, dated 24th June 1719, firſt informed us how ſal ammoniac is obtained from the ſoot of camel's dung, which is burnt at Cairo inſtead of wood. This ſoot is put into large round bottles, a foot and a half in diameter, and terminating in a neck two inches long. The bottles are filled up with this matter to within four inches of the neck. Each bottle holds about forty pounds of ſoot, and affords nearly ſix pounds of ſalt. The veſſels are put into a furnace in the form of an oven, ſo that only the necks appear above. A fire of camel's dung is kindled beneath it, and continued for three days and three nights. On the ſecond and the third day the ſalt is ſublimated. The bottles are then broken, and the ſalt is taken out in cakes. Theſe cakes, which are ſent us juſt as they have been taken out of the bottles in Egypt, are convex, and unequal on the one ſide; on the middle of this ſide they exhibit each a tubercle, correſponding to the neck of the bottle in which it was prepared. The lower ſide is concave, and both are ſooty. Pomet makes mention of a ſal ammoniac procured by the way of Holland, in truncated cakes reſembling ſugar loaves. Geoffroy, who was the firſt in France that diſcovered from what materials this ſalt is obtained, and who even gueſſed ſucceſsfully at the proceſs employed at Cairo for preparing it; found out that this ſecond ſpecies of ſal ammoniac comes from the Indies, where it is prepared in much greater quantities than in Egypt, by the ſame proceſs of ſublimation, but in a different form. Theſe Indian loaves conſiſt of fourteen or fifteen pounds each, are hollow at the bottom, and formed of various layers. The cone is truncated, becauſe its extremity being impure is always broken off. M. Baume has eſtabliſhed, in the neighbourhood of Paris, a manufactory of ammoniacal ſalt, in which this ſalt is compoſed, not extracted as in Egypt. M. Baume's ſalt is likewiſe purer than the Egyptian. In this country ſal ammoniac is likewiſe prepared in great quantities. The volatile alkali is obtained from ſoot, bones, and other ſubſtances known to contain it. To this the vitriolic acid is added, and this vitriolic ammoniac is decompoſed by common ſalt by a double affinity. The liquor obtained in conſequence of this decompoſition contains ſulphate of ſoda and ſal ammoniac. The firſt is cryſtalized, and the ſecond ſublimated ſo as to form cakes, which are then expoſed to ſale. Lord Dundonald, by an ingenious proceſs, extracted ammoniac from pit-coal. Ammoniacal muriate has a poignant, acrid, and urinous taſte. Its cryſtals are in the form of long hexahædral pyramids, a number of them are ſometimes united together in an acute angular direction, ſo as to exhibit the form of feathers. M. Rome de Lille thinks the cryſtals of ammoniacal muriate to be octohædrons bundled together. This ſalt is ſometimes, but not frequently, found in cubic

cryſtals in the middle of the concave hollow part of the ſublimated cakes. This ſalt poſſeſſes one pretty ſingular phyſical property, a kind of ductility or elaſticity, which cauſes it to yield under the hammer, or even the fingers, and makes it difficult to reduce it to a powder. Ammoniacal muriate is totally volatile, but a very ſtrong fire is requiſite to ſublime it. This method is applied when it is wanted very pure, and entirely free of water; it is reduced to powder, put into a matras, and the veſſel is then immerſed half way into a ſand bath, where it is gradually heated for ſeveral hours. By this means we obtain a maſs conſiſting of ſtriated needles, joined to each other longitudinally; when this operation is properly conducted, very regular cubic cryſtals are often found in the midſt of the loaves. But if too ſtrong a heat has been applied, the produce is only a ſhapeleſs, thick, and ſemi-tranſparent maſs, with the appearance of having been melted. M. Baumé has obſerved, that by repeating ſublimation of this ſalt, a ſmall quantity both of ammoniac and muriatic acid is at length diſengaged, ſo that according to that chemiſt ammoniacal muriate might perhaps be decompoſed by continued ſublimation. This fact requires confirmation. Ammoniacal muriate is liable to no alteration from air; it may be kept for a long time without ſuffering any change; it diſſolves very readily in water. Six parts of cold water are ſufficient to diſſolve one of the ſalt. A conſiderable cold is produced as the ſolution takes place, and this cold is ſtill keener when the ſalt is mixed with ice. This artificial cold is happily applied to produce ſeveral phenomena which could not otherwiſe take place, ſuch as the congelation of water on certain occaſions, the cryſtalization of certain ſalts, the fixation and preſervation of certain liquids, naturally very ſubject to evaporation, &c.

SAL AMMŌNIĂCUM ACETŌSUM. The ſpirit of myndererus is occaſionally ſo called. See *Aqua ammoniæ acetata.*

SAL AMMŌNIĂCUM LIQUĬDUM. The liquid acetite of ammoniac is ſometimes ſo termed. See *Aqua ammoniæ acetatæ.*

SAL AMMŌNIĂCUM MARTĬALE. See *Ferrum ammoniacale.*

SAL AMMŌNIĂCUM SECRĒTUM GLAUBĒRI. See *Sulphas ammoniacæ.*

SAL AMMŌNIĂCUM TARTARĔUM. See *Tartris ammoniacæ.*

SAL AMMŌNIĂCUM VEGETABĬLE. The liquid acetite of ammoniac. See *Aqua ammoniæ acetata.*

SAL AMMONIĂCUS FIXUS. The muriate of lime was formerly ſo termed. See *Lime* and *Murias calcis.*

SAL AMMŌNIĂCUS NITRŌSUS. See *Nitras ammoniacæ.*

SAL CATHARTĬCUS AMĀRUS. See *Magneſia vitriolata.*

SAL CATHARTĬCUS ANGLICĀNUS. See *Magneſia vitriolata.*

SAL CATHARTĬCUS GLAUBĒRI. See *Natron vitriolatum.*

SAL COMMŪNIS. A muriat of ſoda. See *Murias ſodæ.*

SAL CORNU CERVI SUCCO CITRI SATURĀTUM. Similar in virtues to the kali citratum. See *Kali citratum.*

SAL CORNU CERVI VOLATĬLE. See *Ammonia preparata.*

SAL CULINĀRIS. See *Murias ſodæ.*

SAL DE DUOBUS. The ſulphat of potaſh was ſo called. See *Kali vitriolatum.*

SAL DIURETĬCUM VEGETABĬLE CRYSTALLIZĀTUM. This ſalt is merely an acetite of ſoda, and poſſeſſes antiſcrophulous and aperient virtues.

SAL DIURETĬCUS. See *Kali acetatum.*

SAL DIGESTĪVUS SYLVĬI. A natural ſalt, formed of muriatic acid and potaſh. See *Murias potaſſæ*.

SAL EPSŎMENSIS. See *Magneſia vitriolata*.

SAL ESSENTĬALIS TARTĀRI. See *Tartar, acid of*.

SAL FEBRIFŬGUS SYLVĬI. See *Murias potaſſæ*.

SAL FONTĬUM. See *Murias ſodæ*.

SAL FOSSĬLIS. See *Murias ſodæ*.

SAL GEMĬNÆ. See *Murias ſodæ*.

SAL HERBĀRUM. This ſalt is a carbonate of potaſh. See *Kali preparatum*.

SAL MARĪNUS. See *Murias ſodæ*.

SAL MARTIS. See *Ferrum vitriolatum*.

SAL MARTIS MURĬATĬCUM SUBLĬMĀTUM. See *Murias ferri ammoniacalis*.

SAL MICROCOSMĬCUS. The compound ſaline matter obtained by inſpiſſating human urine.

SAL MIRABĬLIS GLAUBĒRI. See *Natron vitriolatum*.

SAL MURIATĬCUS. See *Murias ſodæ*.

SAL PLANTĀRUM. This ſalt is a carbonate of potaſh. See *Kali preparatum*.

SAL POLYCHRESTUS. See *Kali vitriolatum*.

SAL POLYCHRESTUS GLASĒRI. A combination of ſulphuric acid with potaſh. See *Kali vitriolatum*.

SAL POLYCHRESTUS SEIGNETTI. See *Tartris ſodæ* and *Seignet ſalt*.

SAL PRUNELLÆ. See *Nitras potaſſæ fuſus*.

SAL RUPELLENSIS. See *Tartris ſodæ*.

SAL SATURNI. See *Ceruſſa acetata*.

SAL SEDATĪVUS. See *Boracic acid*.

SAL SEDATĪVUS HOMBERGĬI. See *Boracic acid*.

SAL SEDLICENSIS. The ſame as Epſom ſalt. See *Magneſia vitriolata*.

SAL SEIDCHŬLZENSIS. A ſulphate of magneſia. See *Magneſia vitriolata*.

SAL SEIGNETTI. See *Tartris ſodæ* and *Seignet ſalt*.

SAL SUCCĬNI. The ſuccinic acid. See *Succinic acid*.

SAL TARTĀRI. Salt of tartar. See *Carbonas potaſſæ*.

SAL THERMĀRUM CAROLINĀRUM. A union of ſulphuric acid with magneſia. See *Magneſia vitriolata*.

SAL VEGETABĬLIS. See *Kali tartariſatum*.

SAL-VOLATĬLE. See *Spiritus ammoniæ compoſitus* and *Ammonia preparata*.

SAL VOLATĬLIS SALIS AMMONIĀCI. See *Ammonia preparata*.

SALEP. *Salep. Salab.* The root of the *Orchis morio* of Linnæus. *Orchis bulbis indiviſis, nectarii labio quadrilobo crenulato, cornu obtuſo, petalis dorſalibus reflexis*. Claſs *Gynandria*. Order *Diandria*. This farinaceous powder is imported from Turkey. It may be obtained from ſeveral other ſpecies of the ſame genus of plants. It is an inſipid ſubſtance, of which a ſmall quantity, by a proper management, converts a large portion of water into a jelly, the nutritive powers of which have been greatly over rated. Salep forms a conſiderable part of the diet of the inhabitants of Turkey, Perſia, and Syria. The method of preparing the ſalep is as follows: The new root is to be waſhed in water, and the fine brown ſkin which covers it is to be ſeparated by means of a ſmall bruſh, or by dipping the root in warm water, and rubbing it with a coarſe linen cloth. The roots, thus cleaned, are to be ſpread on a tin plate, and placed in an oven, heated to the uſual degree, where they are to remain ſix or ten minutes. In this time they will have loſt their milky whiteneſs, and acquired a tranſparency like horn, without any

diminution of bulk. Being arrived at this ſtate, they are to be removed in order to dry and harden in the air, which will require ſeveral days to effect; or they may be dried in a few hours, by uſing a very gentle heat. Salep, thus prepared, contains a great quantity of vegetable aliment; as a wholeſome nouriſhment it is much ſuperior to rice; and has the ſingular property of concealing the taſte of ſalt water. Hence, to prevent the dreadful calamity of famine at ſea, it has been propoſed, that the powder of it ſhould conſtitute part of the proviſions of every ſhip's company. With regard to its medical properties, it may be obſerved, that its reſtorative, mucilaginous, and demulcent qualities, render it of conſiderable uſe in various diſeaſes, when employed as aliment, particularly in ſea-ſcurvy, diarrhæa, dyſentery, ſymptomatic fever, ariſing from the abſorption of pus, and the ſtone or gravel.

SALICORNĬA EUROPÆA. The ſyſtematic name of the jointed glaſswort, which is gathered by the country people and ſold for ſamphire. It forms a good pickle with vinegar, and is little inferior to the ſamphire.

SALINE SUBSTANCES. The number of ſaline ſubſtances is very conſiderable; and they poſſeſs peculiar characters, by which they are diſtinguiſhed from other ſubſtances. Theſe characters are founded on certain properties, which it muſt be confeſſed, are not accurately diſtinctive of their true nature. By this means ſalts have been extended too much, their general properties being common to a great number of bodies. Taſte and ſolubility in water, which have always been given as the characters of ſaline ſubſtances, are properties of many bodies which are not ſaline: as, for example, all mucilages, whether of the vegetable or animal kingdoms; and, on the contary, theſe two properties are ſcarcely perceptible in ſeveral ſaline ſubſtances. Naturaliſts have not ſucceeded better in their definition of ſalts. The cryſtaline form and tranſparency which ſeveral authors have aſſumed as characteriſtic of ſaline ſubſtances, belong likewiſe to many other matters, more eſpecially earths, and are, beſides, wanting in ſome of the ſalts.

It was, therefore, with great reaſon that Macquer aſſerted, that the limit between ſaline matters and ſuch as are not ſaline is unknown. All ſuch ſubſtance, however, as poſſeſs ſeveral of the four following properties are conſidered as ſaline: 1. A ſtrong tendency to combination, or a very ſtrong affinity of compoſition; 2. A greater or leſſer degree of ſapidity; 3. A greater or leſſer degree of ſolubility in water; 4. Perfect incombuſtibility.

Before each of theſe properties is examined ſingly, it muſt be obſerved, that the ſaline quality of any given body is greater, the more of theſe properties it poſſeſſes, and the greater their intenſity. It muſt not, however, be concluded, that ſubſtances are not of a ſaline nature becauſe theſe properties are ſcarcely evident in them; as it may often happen, that two ſpecies, which poſſeſs them in a very ſmall degree, exhibit them ſtill leſs when they come to be united; and there are likewiſe inſtances of the contrary effect taking place. But in theſe caſes, a more varied application of the chemical analyſis, or ſyntheſis, may ſerve to exhibit the ſaline properties more evidently.

1. *Concerning the tendency to combination, as a character of ſaline ſubſtances.* The greater number of ſalts have a tendency to combine with many different ſubſtances. It is among the ſalts that the moſt active

bodies, with reſpect to combination, are found. For this reaſon the chemiſts have at all times made great uſe of them, and have dignified certain ſalts with the names of ſolvents and menſtrua. This tendency to combination differs greatly in the ſeveral ſpecies of ſalts. Some poſſeſs it in ſo intenſe a degree, that they corrode, diſſolve, or deſtroy every thing they touch, and that even the vitrifiable and quartzoſe ſtones cannot withſtand their action. Such are ſeveral of the pure ſalts called acids and alkalis. Others, though they do not ſo ſtrongly tend to combination, nevertheleſs unite with great readineſs to ſeveral ſubſtances. And, laſtly, there are ſalts which do not poſſeſs this property in any ſenſible degree, as is often obſervable in compound ſalts, whoſe principles have a ſtrong affinity with each other, and are mutually ſaturated. It is not to be wondered that ſalts are ſeldom found in nature in a ſtate of purity, when we attend to the effects of this property, of combining with various ſubſtances.

2. *Of taſte, as a character of ſaline ſubſtances.* Sapidity has hitherto been conſidered as being ſo far peculiar to ſaline ſubſtances, that many philoſophers have concluded theſe bodies to poſſeſs it excluſively, and that they are the principle of ſapidity in all other bodies. Though this opinion is not yet clearly proved, becauſe there are many bodies not at all ſaline, as, for example, the metals, which have a very ſenſible taſte. But though inſtances may be urged of certain ſaline matters which have ſcarcely any taſte, yet it cannot be denied, that the moſt eminently ſapid bodies belong to this claſs: for which reaſon we have aſſumed this property as one of the leading characters of ſalts. The ſapidity of ſaline matters varies, like their other properties, in the different ſpecies. In order to determine its origin, and more eſpecially the cauſe of the differences of its energy, it will be neceſſary to ſhew in what it conſiſts. By ſapidity is commonly underſtood an impreſſion made on the organs of taſte, by which we determine the good or bad qualities of any ſubſtance with regard to ſalubrity; it is therefore a peculiar action of the ſapid body on the nerves of the tongue and palate of animals. But it may be aſked, whether this property of bodies enables them to act ſenſibly on the nerves of the tongue; and whether it may not be equally exerted on all thoſe parts of an animal which contain nerves? They who are acquainted with the animal economy cannot deny, that the action which excites the ſenſation of taſte muſt produce its effects on any nerves, whereſoever ſituated; and that it muſt be proportioned to the ſenſibility of the ſubject, and the organs to which it is applied.

In this way of conſidering ſapidity, we are naturally led to conclude, 1ſt, That its impreſſion will be ſcarcely ſenſible on ſuch parts of bodies as contain few nerves, or whoſe nerves do not poſſeſs a conſidereble degree of ſenſibility on account of their being covered, as on the ſkin, where they are defended by the reticular membrane and epidermis. It follows, therefore, that the taſte of any ſalt muſt be very ſtrong and active before it can act ſenſibly upon the ſkin. 2d, That the impreſſion will be made with much more efficacy on theſe organs whoſe nerves are large, numerous, and of a form proper to admit an extended contact, or more violent agitation, and whoſe epidermis is very thin, ſo as to leave the nerves almoſt uncovered.

The ſuperior part of the tongue, the palate, and the whole internal ſurface of the mouth, are capable of perceiving the taſte of a great number of bodies, which make no impreſſion

on the leſs ſenſible organs of the ſkin. 3d, That bodies which have no taſte and no action when applied to the ſkin, may nevertheleſs pruduce a conſiderable effect on parts more delicately organized, or whoſe nerves poſſeſs a greater degree of ſenſibility, as is the caſe of the ſtomach and inteſtines. Theſe conſiderations being admitted, we may diſtinguiſh three claſſes of taſtes, and of ſapid bodies, to which all ſaline matters may be referred. The firſt claſs comprehends ſalts of the ſtrongeſt taſte, capable of acting on the ſkin. The impreſſion of this taſte is ſo ſtrong as to cauſe very acute pain; and if its action be continued for a certain time, the organization of the ſkin is entirely deſtroyed. This taſte is cauſticity; and the ſalts which poſſeſs it are called cauſtic. The ſecond claſs comprehends thoſe whoſe ſapidity is of a mean degree of intenſity, and is not to be perceived but by the organs of taſte. Theſe are commonly diſtinguiſhed by different names; as, bitter, adſtringent, acid, acrid urinous, &c. In the third claſs are arranged ſaline ſubſtances whoſe taſte is ſenſible only in the ſtomach and inteſtines. Theſe are not numerous. It is of importance to make ſome obſervations on the relations of theſe ſeveral claſſes of taſtes. And, firſt, it muſt be obſerved, that there are many degrees in each of theſe claſſes, by which bodies differ from each other in intenſity of taſte.

Thus, among cauſtic ſalts, ſome act much more ſtrongly than others; the former immediately deſtroying the organization of bodies, while the latter require a more conſiderable ſpace of time to produce the ſame effect. This obſervation applies likewiſe to the bitter, adſtringent, and urinous ſalts, as well as to thoſe which have no ſenſible action but on the nerves of the ſtomach. In the ſecond place, in conſidering the diverſities of the taſtes, we are naturally led to the concluſion, that the ſeveral taſtes are degrees of the ſame property, from the moſt cauſtic ſalt, to that whoſe action is too feeble to be perceived, but on the highly ſenſible organs of the ſtomach; and this reflexion ſeems to ſhew, that all taſtes owe their origin to one and the ſame cauſe.

To determine the cauſe of ſapidity, it will be proper to conſider its ſtrongeſt degree, that we may better diſtinguiſh the phenomena, and deduce its mode of action. The inquiry, therefore, relates to the cauſe of cauſticity; a property which has always been a ſubject of conjecture among chemiſts. Lemery, obſerving that very hot bodies are exceſſively cauſtic, and likewiſe that ſuch ſalts as poſſeſs this property have been ſubjected to a ſtrong degree of heat in their preparation, attributed the property of cauſticity to the particles of fire, which he ſuppoſed to be depoſited among the particles of bodies. Mr. Baumé eſpouſed this opinion. Meyer, an apothecary of Oſnaburgh, after making a ſeries of inquiries into the nature of cauſtic ſalts, conſtructed an ingenious ſyſtem, or hypotheſis, to which many chemiſts have been much attached, though at preſent it is held in no eſteem.

This philoſopher attributed cauſticity to a principle which he conſidered as a compound of fire and a peculiar acid; this he denominated *cauſticum*, or *acidum pingue*, after the ancient miſts. He purſued this principle through its tranſitions and combinations, as Stahl had done before with his phlogiſton; but his ſyſtem was defective in the ſame manner as that of Stahl, as he did not ſucceed better in proving the exiſtence of his cauſticum, than Stahl did that of his phlogiſton. Dr. Black, whoſe reſearches were directed to the ſame ſubjects as thoſe of Meyer, gave the finiſhing

ſtroke to his doctrine, by clearly ſhowing, that the cauſticity of lime and alkalis, far from being owing to the addition of any principle, *acidum pingue*, as Meyer thought, ariſes, on the contrary, from the ſubtraction of an elaſtic fluid. Macquer is, beyond controverſy, the chemiſt whoſe inquiries into the cauſe of cauſticity have been attended with the greateſt ſucceſs. The doctrine explained by him on this ſubject, in his Chemical Dictionary, is ſo clear, and eſtabliſhed on ſuch concluſive facts, that it is impoſſible to forbear aſſenting to his opinion. After obſerving that cauſtic bodies corrode and deſtroy our organs, by combining with their conſtituent principles, he remarks, that, in proportion as the combination proceeds, the cauſtic body by degrees loſes its force; and that it ceaſes to be ſuch, as ſoon as it has diſſolved as much of the animal matter as it is capable of uniting with. Thus it is, that the pure fixed alkali, or lapis cauſticus, corrodes the ſkin on which it is applied, and, after a certain time, becomes ſaturated, and ceaſes to act. This ſalt really acts by a chemical force, ſince it produces its effects on the inſenſible ſkin of dead bodies, as M. Poulletier has proved by accurate experiments; and, in general, on all animal ſubſtances, which it diſſolves. Cauſticity, therefore, depends on the tendency to combination; and the effect of this force on our organs, is merely the reſult of a combination of the cauſtic matter with the matter of which the organs are formed, in the ſame manner as cauſtic bodies loſe their efficacy, when combined with any other ſubſtance with which they have a tendency to unite; and, in a word, cauſticity is always in proportion to the tendency to combination. Hence it is, that the moſt taſteleſs ſalt owes its want of cauſticity to its being already ſaturated with ſome other ſubſtance; and its taſte will be rendered ſtronger, in proportion to the more or leſs complete ſeparation of that ſubſtance. All the phenomena of ſaline bodies are in proof of this aſſertion.

3. *Concerning ſolubility as a character of ſaline bodies.* Solubility in water has been aſſumed by all chemiſts as one of the leading properties of ſalts. Yet this property, like that of taſte, or the tendency to combination, is ſubject to great varieties. In ſome ſalts it is ſo powerful, that they cannot be deprived of the leaſt portion of water they contain, but by elaborate proceſſes long continued. Others have only a mean degree of ſolubility, which may be aſcertained with conſiderable accuracy, as is the caſe with the neutral ſalts. And laſtly, there are certain ſaline matters which are ſo little ſoluble, that they even ſeem in this reſpect to belong to the claſs of earths, and have in fact been conſidered as ſuch by naturaliſts. The limits between thoſe two claſſes of mineral bodies are very difficult to be determined, and chemiſts are not agreed on this head. Mr. Kirwan, in his mineralogy, appears to have adopted the opinion of Bergman, who thinks that all ſubſtances which require more than one thouſand parts of water for their ſolution ought to be ranked among earths; and that all which are more ſoluble ought to be eſteemed as ſalts. If this proportion ſhould be received among chemiſts, as it deſerves to be, we ſhall avoid the diverſity of opinions and of language which has hitherto prevailed, to the diſcouragement and hindrance of ſuch as enter into the ſtudy of chemiſtry. There is the ſame correſpondence between the taſte and ſolubility of ſalts, as there is between this laſt property and the tendency

to combination; for the ſolubility in water is an immediate conſequence of that tendency to combination, and muſt therefore follow the ſame laws. It is found that the more taſte and activity any ſalt poſſeſſes, the more ſoluble it is in water; and this general fact depends on their reſpective nature and properties.

4. *Of incombuſtibility as a character of ſaline bodies.* It is more difficult to acquire a clear idea of this property of ſaline bodies, than the others we have been ſpeaking of. They have not yet been conſidered by any chemiſt in this point of view, and many writers have aſſerted that ſome ſalts, and among them nitre, are truly combuſtible. To ſhew the fallacy of this opinion, and to prove that all mineral ſalts are perfectly incombuſtible, would require a very intimate knowledge of the properties of theſe ſubſtances. The valuable experiments of M. Lavoiſer ſhow, that ſeveral combuſtible bodies form, by their combuſtion, acids of a particular nature, according to the ſubſtance burned.

Combuſtion is nothing more than a combination of the baſe of vital air, or oxygen, with combuſtible bodies. All bodies which have been completely burned, that is to ſay, which have combined with oxygen in a ſufficient quantity to be ſaturated, enter into the claſs of incombuſtible bodies; or, which is the ſame thing, their tendency to combine with oxygen being ſatisfied, they are no longer capable of uniting with or abſorbing more. Theſe principles being once proved, if, on the one part, it be found that many ſalts are the reſidues of various combuſtible matters which have been burned; and if on the other part, an entire claſs of theſe ſalts be found to contain oxygen, and to exhibit the characters of ſubſtances which have paſſed through the proceſs of combuſtion; it will be eaſily conceived that they cannot continue to be combuſtible. Theſe aſſertions are founded on a great number of facts; they prove that ſalts are compounded ſubſtances, moſt of them being formed by the union of certain combuſtible bodies with oxygen; and it will be underſtood with equal facility, that this character of incombuſtibility may be conſidered as the moſt certain and invariable property of ſaline matters. The proof of theſe important aſſertions will appear complete with regard to the claſs of acid ſalts, in the details which will conſtitute the particular hiſtory of thoſe ſubſtances. There exiſts, nevertheleſs, a claſs of ſalts which appear evidently to be compounded, and do not contain oxygen. Such are the alkalies in general: but they are either compoſed of matters which are themſelves incombuſtible; or if they contain any combuſtible ſubſtance, as is ſeen in ammoniac or volatile alkali, it is united to a ſubſtance evidently incombuſtible, which abſolutely prevents this property from being ſenſible in the other ſubſtance.

5. *Concerning the nature and compoſition of ſaline ſubſtances in general.* Stahl, who paid great attention to the nature of ſaline bodies, was of opinion, that they are formed of water and earth. He collected every fact which was known in his time, and applied them to the illuſtration of his ſublime theory. But that period of improvement has been ſucceeded by another, in which, by the multiplicity of experiments, and the magnitude of the diſcoveries concerning the influence of air in chemical phenomena, the theory of ſalts as invented by Stahl, and explained with great perſpicuity by Macquer, is no longer found adequate to the explanation of the nature and compoſitions of thoſe bodies. We are no longer contented with thoſe diſtant

analogies, by which the moſt diſcordant facts are united, and which ſerve only to deceive by their illuſive light. It is better to acknowledge our ignorance, than to advance extravagant theories, that muſt ſooner or later be refuted by experiment.

Though the chemical nature of ſalts is not yet perfectly underſtood, and the general facts will not permit us to aſſert, that one ſingle principle is the cauſe and origin of all ſaline bodies, as many eminent philoſophers have thought; yet it muſt be admitted, that we are better acquainted with their compoſition than formerly. It is known that they, for the moſt part, contain a very great quantity of oxygen; and that this fluid is fixed, in combination with combuſtible matter, of a different nature in the different kinds of ſalts. There are ſufficient proofs that many acids are thus compoſed; and it may be ſtrongly preſumed by analogy, that moſt of this claſs of ſalts are compounded in the ſame manner. Water, without being one of the immediate principles of ſalts, is often united, and adheres to them by a very ſtrong attraction. As to the matter of fire, conſidered as phlogiſton, which very great chemiſts have admitted in ſalts, there is too much uncertainty at preſent reſpecting the nature and even the exiſtence of this matter, to juſtify the adoption of any decided opinion. It is not the ſame with caloric, which appears to form one of the principles of ſalts, or rather, to exiſt in a greater quantity in ſome than in others: ſuch is the general cauſe of the fluidity, fuſibility, and volatility of a great number of ſaline matters.

The preſence of earth in moſt ſalts is not ſhown by any direct experiment; it is only known, that all native ſalts are mixed with a greater or leſs quantity of various earthy ſubſtances. But theſe do not belong to them; they do not, properly ſpeaking, enter into their compoſition, but are, as it were, acceſſaries. We do not, therefore, at preſent, know any other principles of ſaline ſubſtances, except ſeveral combuſtible matters, oxygen, ſome incombuſtible ſubſtances, and caloric. It is known, that moſt acids are the reſidues of burned bodies, and that they can contain different proportions of combuſtible matter and oxygen, ſo that they exiſt in very different ſtates, according to the quantity of theſe conſtituent matters. Every thing more which has been ſaid, in treatiſes of chemiſtry, upon the compoſition of ſalts in general, amounts to nothing more than hypotheſes, more or leſs ingenious, but, at the ſame time, more or leſs remote from truth.

Concerning the Diſtribution, or methodical Diviſion of Mineral Salts.

Thoſe ſalts, which belong to the mineral kingdom are very numerous, many of them are the products of nature, and are formed by the action of fire, water, and air, and by the deſtruction of organized bodies; the greater number, however, are formed by art, or, at leaſt, have not yet been found among natural products. The methodical treatment of theſe ſubſtances requires that they ſhould be divided into orders, genera, and ſpecies.

The firſt order contains ſuch ſaline ſubſtances as ſerve to compoſe the ſecond order, and are therefore called primitive.

The ſecond order contains ſecondary, compound, or neutral ſalts, which are formed by the mutual combination of the ſimple ſalts, and are conſequently much leſs ſimple than them.

Each of theſe orders is divided into ſeveral genera, and theſe again into ſpecies.

ORDER I.

Simple or primitive Salts.

Under this order is comprehended thoſe ſalts which were formerly thought to be ſimple or primitive, and which are occaſionally called ſimple ſalts. The accurate experiments of the moderns have proved that theſe are for the moſt part compounded; but the term is retained with greater propriety when it is obſerved, that theſe ſalts compoſe, when united, the ſalts which are termed ſecondary. Theſe ſalts are never met with perfectly pure in nature, but require artificial proceſſes to render them ſo. This order is divided into three genera, comprehending ſaline terreſtrial ſubſtances, alkalis, and acids.

GENUS I.

Saline terreſtrial Subſtances.

The three ſubſtances which compoſe this genus have hitherto been conſidered as earths whoſe characters manifeſtly reſemble thoſe of ſalts.

This genus contains three ſpecies; 1. Barytes. 2. Magneſia. 3. Quicklime.

GENUS II.

Alkaline Salts.

Theſe poſſeſs a urinous, burning, and cauſtic taſte, turn the ſyrop of violets to a green, have a ſtrong affinity for acids, diſſolve animal ſubſtances, unite readily with water, combine with oils and fat, and render them miſcible with water, diſſolve ſulphur, and are cryſtallizable. The ſpecies of this genus are,

1. Potaſh. 2. Soda. 3. Ammoniac.

GENUS III.

Acids.

Theſe are diſtinguiſhed by their ſour taſte when diluted with water; they redden blue vegetable colours. Many exiſt in an aerial form; they unite with great rapidity to alkalis; their action on inflammable ſubſtances is much ſtronger than that of the laſt-mentioned ſalts, and moſt commonly reduces them to the ſtate of bodies which have been burnt. The following ſpecies enter this genus:

Mineral Acids.

1. Carbonic.
2. Muriatic.
3. Fluoric.
4. Nitric.
5. Sulphuric.
6. Boracic.
7. Molybdic.
8. Tungſtic.
9. Arſenic.
10. Succinic.

Vegetable Acids.

11. Acetic.
12. Citric.
13. Gallic.
14. Malic.
15. Benzoic.
16. Tartareous.
17. Oxalic.

Acids formed by the Action of Fire.

18. Pyro-tartarous.
19. Pyro-mucous.
20. Pyro-lignous.

Acids formed by the Nitric Acid.

21. Camphoric.
22. Suberic.
23. Ciceric.

Animal Acids.

24. Phoſphoric.
25. Lithic.
26. Formic.
27. Bombic.
28. Zoonic.

ORDER II.

Secondary or Neutral Salts.

Under the name of ſecondary ſalts are comprehended ſuch matters as

are compoſed of two primitive ſaline ſubſtances combined together. Theſe ſalts are called neutral, becauſe they do not poſſeſs the characters of primitive ſalts; that is to ſay, they are neither acid nor alkaline. There are, however, many ſalts, ſuch as borax, chalk, and alkalis, when united with the carbonic acid, which exhibit ſome of the properties of primitive ſalts, though in a leſs eminent degree. Theſe ſecondary ſalts have not ſo ſtrong a taſte as moſt of the primitive, their tendency to combination, and their ſolubility, being leſs conſiderable; but the criterion which diſtinguiſhes them more eſpecially from the former is, that they cannot, like the primitive ſalts, communicate the ſaline properties to other bodies; their cryſtalline form is likewiſe a character much attended to by naturaliſts, and ſometimes indicates their nature, though it may be productive of error when too much depended on.

The term baſe, is commonly applied to the more fixed matter which enters into the compoſition of neutral ſalts. As this baſe, which is ſometimes volatile, communicates ſeveral general characters, ſufficiently uniform in the ſeveral combinations it makes with acids, the name of the baſe is aſſumed to diſtinguiſh the genera of ſecondary ſalts. Theſe ſalts are therefore divided into as many genera as there are ſaline or alkaline baſes capable of being united with acids.

The firſt genus comprehends ſuch as are formed by the union of fixed alkalis with acids. Theſe are called perfect neutral ſalts, becauſe the union of their component parts is very intimate.

The ſecond genus includes ſuch as are formed by the combination of the volatile alkali or ammoniac with acids. They are diſtinguiſhed by the name of ammoniacal ſalts from that which has been given to their baſe by later chemiſts. They may likewiſe be called imperfect ſalts, becauſe they are much more eaſily decompoſed than ſalts of the firſt genus.

The third genus embraces thoſe which have lime for their baſis. Theſe are in general leſs perfect than thoſe of the ſecond genus, though lime has a ſtronger affinity to acids than ammoniac. Theſe ſalts are denominated neutral calcareous ſalts.

Magneſia, combined with various acids, conſtitutes the fourth genus. They are more decompoſable than thoſe of the laſt mentioned genus, becauſe lime and alkalis have a ſtronger affinity with acids than magneſia. They are diſtinguiſhed by the name of magneſian neutral ſalts.

The fifth genus comprehends ſuch as have pure argillaceous earth or alumine for their baſe. As alum is the principal of theſe combinations, the generic name of aluminous ſalts is given to them. Alkalis, lime, and magneſia, in moſt inſtances, decompoſe ſalts with an aluminous baſe.

The ſixth genus comprehends neutral ſalts with a baſe of barytes or ponderous earth. Theſe ſalts, as well as the two preceding genera, are but little known.

It may eaſily be imagined, that theſe baſes, combined with the acids, muſt afford a great number of neutral ſalts; and that this number would be ſtill more conſiderable, were we to admit, as peculiar ſalts, the union of the ſame ſubſtances with the acids.

In the ſubſequent arrangement of the various neutral ſalts, the order of the affinities of the acids is followed; that is to ſay, we begin with ſulphuric ſalts, after which we place nitric ſalts, and after them, the ſalts into which the muriatic, the boracic, and the floric acids enter; and laſtly, finiſh with the ſalts which contain carbonic acid, becauſe that acid is the

weakeſt of them all. To denote all theſe ſalts, names compoſed of the acids and their baſes are adopted, in order that this nomenclature may expreſs the nature of each; and that there no longer may be any error on this point, the different names which each neutral ſalt has received at different times, are exhibited.

GENUS I.

Neutral ſalts with baſis of fixed alkali.

SPECIES.	ANTIENT NAMES.
1. SULPHAT OF POTASH. The ſulphuric acid with potaſh.	*Vitriolated tartar.* *Sal de duobus.* *Arcanum duplicatum.* *Vitriol of potaſh.*
2. SULPHAT OF SODA. The ſulphuric acid with ſoda.	*Glaubers ſalt.* *Vitriol of ſoda.*
3. NITRAT OF POTASH. Nitric acid with potaſh.	*Common nitre.* *Saltpetre.*
4. NITRAT OF SODA. Nitric acid with ſoda.	*Cubic nitre.* *Rhomboidal nitre.*
5. MURIAT OF POTASH. The muriatic acid with potaſh.	*Digeſtive ſalt.* *Febrifuge ſalt of ſylvius.* *Regenerated marine ſalt.*
6. MURIAT OF SODA. The muriatic acid with ſoda.	*Marine ſalt.* *Sea ſalt.* *Common ſalt.* *Kitchen ſalt.*
7. BORAT OF POTASH. The boracic acid with potaſh.	*Vegetable borax.*
8. BORAX, or ſuperſaturated borate of ſoda. The boracic acid with ſoda.	*Common borax.* *Tincal.*
9. FLUAT OF POTASH. The fluoric acid with potaſh.	*Spathoſe tartar.* *Spar of tartar.*
10. FLUAT OF SODA. The fluoric acid with ſoda.	*Sparry ſoda.*
11. CARBONAT OF POTASH. The carbonic acid with potaſh.	*Cretaceous tartar.* *Chalk of potaſh.*
12. CARBONAT OF SODA. The carbonic acid with ſoda.	*Cretaceous ſoda.* *Chalk of ſoda.*

GENUS II.

Ammoniacal neutral ſalts.

SPECIES.	ANTIENT NAMES.
1. AMMONIACAL SULPHAT. The ſulphuric acid with ammoniac.	*Glaubers ſecret ammoniacal ſalt.* *Ammoniacal vitriol.*
2. AMMONIACAL NITRAT. The nitric acid with ammoniac.	*Ammoniacal nitre.*

3. AMMONIACAL MURIAT. The muriatic acid with ammoniac.	*Sal ammoniac.*
4. AMMONIACAL FLUAT. The fluoric acid with ammoniac.	
5. AMMONIACAL BORAT. The boracic acid with ammoniac.	
6. AMMONIACAL CARBONAT. The carbonic acid with ammoniac.	*Sal volatile.* *Concrete volatile alkali.* *Ammoniacal chalk.*

GENUS III.

Calcareous neutral ſalts.

SPECIES.	ANTIENT NAMES.
1. CALCAREOUS SULPHAT. The ſulphuric acid with lime.	*Plaſter of Paris.* *Gypſum.* *Selenite.* *Calcareous vitriol.*
2. CALCAREOUS NITRAT. The nitric acid with lime.	*Calcareous nitre.*
3. CALCAREOUS MURIAT. The muriatic acid with lime.	*Fixed ſal ammoniac.* *Oil of lime.* *Calcareous marine ſalt.*
4. CALCAREOUS FLUAT. The fluoric acid with lime.	*Cubic ſpar.* *Vitreous ſpar.* *Fuſible ſpar.* *Sparry fluor.* *Fluorated lime.*
5. CALCAREOUS BORAT. The boracic acid with lime.	
6. CARBONAT OF LIME. The carbonic acid with lime.	*Chalk.* *Calcareous ſpar.* *Calcareous earth.*

GENUS IV.

Magneſian neutral ſalts.

SPECIES.	ANTIENT NAMES.
1. MAGNESIAN SULPHAT. The ſulphuric acid with magneſia.	*Epſom ſalt.* *Salt of Sedlitz.* *Bitter cathartic ſalt.* *Vitriolated magneſia.*
2. MAGNESIAN NITRAT. The nitric acid with magneſia.	
3. MAGNESIAN MURIAT. The muriatic acid with magneſia.	*Marine ſalt with the baſe of magneſia.*
4. FLUAT OF MAGNESIA. The fluoric acid with magneſia.	

5. BORAT OF MAGNESIA. The boracic acid with magnesia.

6. MAGNESIAN CARBONAT. The carbonic acid with magnesia.
- *Effervescent magnesia.*
- *Mild magnesia.*
- *Aerated magnesia.*
- *Magnesian salt.*

GENUS V.

Aluminous neutral salts.

SPECIES.	ANTIENT NAMES.
1. ALUMINOUS SULPHAT. The sulphuric acid with aluminous earth.	*Alum.* / *Vitriol of clay.*
2. ALUMINOUS NITRAT. The nitric acid with aluminous acid.	*Argillaceous nitre.* / *Nitrous alum.*
3. ALUMINOUS MURIAT. The muriatic acid with aluminous earth.	*Argillaceous marine salt.* / *Marine alum.*
4. ALUMINOUS FLUAT. The fluoric acid with aluminous earth.	*Sparry clay.* / *Argillaceous fluor.*
5. ALUMINOUS BORAT. The boracic acid with aluminous earth.	*Argillaceous borax.*
6. ALUMINOUS CARBONAT. The carbonic acid with aluminous earth.	*Effervescent clay.* / *Argillaceous chalk.*

GENUS VI.

Neutral salts with a base of barytes, or barytic neutral salts.

SPECIES.	ANTIENT NAMES.
1. BARYTIC SULPHAT. The sulphuric acid with barytes.	*Ponderous spar.* / *Barotic vitriol.*
2. BARYTIC NITRAT. The nitric acid with barytes	*Ponderous nitre.* / *Barytic nitre.*
3. BARYTIC MURIAT. The muriatic acid with barytes.	*Ponderous marine salt.*
4. BARYTIC FLUAT. The fluoric acid with barytes.	
5. BARYTIC BORAT. The boracic acid with barytes.	
6. BARYTIC CARBONAT. The carbonic acid with barytes.	*Aerated ponderous earth.* / *Cretaceous ponderous earth.* / *Barotic earth.*

To theſe ſalts may be added ſuch as are formed by the arſenic, molybdic, tungſtenic, and ſuccinic acids: the former of which may be diſtinguiſhed by the terms *arſeneats of potaſh, ſoda*, &c. the ſecond *molybdats of potaſh, ſoda*, and ſo on.

Concerning vegetable ſalts.

The ſaline ſubſtances held in ſolution in the juices of plants or the water wherein they are infuſed are generally known by the name of *eſſential ſalts*. They are diſtinguiſhed into ſix genera. The firſt contains vegetable ſalts analagous to thoſe of the mineral kingdom. The ſecond contains the pure acids of plants. In the third are placed ſuch acid ſalts as are combined with a certain quantity of potaſh: theſe are called *acidules*. The fourth genus includes thoſe which are formed by the action of the nitric acid upon certain vegetable matters. The fifth is compoſed of thoſe which owe their formation to heat. The ſixth genus is appropriated to ſuch acids as are developed by a peculiar fermentation.

GENUS I.

The principal ſpecies contained in this genus are:

1. *Fixed alkalis combined with carbonic acid.* Theſe are obtained from almoſt all plants by macerating them with acids. Potaſh is the moſt common, but ſoda exiſts in marine plants.
2. *Sulphat of potaſh.* This neutral ſalt is found in milfoil, in adſtringent and aromatic plants, in ſpurge, flax, &c.
3. *Sulphat of ſoda*, which exiſts in tamariſk and rotten wood.
4. *Nitre*, obtained from borage, turnſole, and tobacco.
5. *Muriat of potaſh and ſoda*, from marine plants.
6. *Sulphat of lime*, ſaid to exiſt in rhubarb.

GENUS II.

1. *The citric acid.*
2. *The gallic acid.*
3. *The malic acid.*
4. *The benzoic acid.*

GENUS III.

1. *The tartarous acid.*
2. *The oxalic acid.*

GENUS IV.

1. *The pyro-tartarous acid.*
2. *The pyromucous acid.*
3. *The pyroligneous acid.*

GENUS V.

1. *The acid of ſugar.*
2. *The camphoric acid.*
3. *The ſuberic acid.*
4. *The aceric acid.*

GENUS VI.

1. *The acetic acid.*

Concerning ſaline ſubſtances from the animal kingdom.

The animal kingdom abounds with many of the ſaline ſubſtances common to vegetables, ſuch as lime, ſoda, the muriatic, oxalic, malic, benzoic, ſebacic, and phoſphoric acids. Beſides theſe, animals afford

1. *The lactic acid.*
2. *The ſaccho-lactic acid.*
3. *The lithic acid.*
4. *The foracic acid.*
5. *The bombic acid.*

The nature of theſe animal acids is not yet well known.

In the hiſtory of ſaline ſubſtances it is only farther neceſſary to remark, that they poſſeſs generally the properties of cryſtallization, fuſibility, efflorescence, and ſolubility.

SALIUNCA. See *Nardus celtica.*

SALĪVA, (*Saliva, æ*, f. ſo called, *a ſalino ſapore*, from its ſalt taſte, or from σιαλος, ſpittle). The fluid which is ſecreted by the ſalivary glands into the cavity of the mouth. The *ſecretory organ* is compoſed of

three pair of salivary glands. 1. The *parotid glands*, which evacuate their saliva by means of the *Stenonian duct* behind the middle dens molaris of the upper jaw. 2. The *submaxillary glands*, which pour out their saliva through the *Warthonian ducts* on each side of the frenulum of the tongue by a narrow oculum. 3. The *sublingular glands*, situated between the internal surface of the maxilla and the tongue, and pour out their saliva through numerous *Riverian ducts* at the apex of the tongue.

The saliva in the cavity of the mouth has mixed with it, 1. The *mucus of the mouth*, which exhales from the labial and genal glands. 2. A *roscid vapour*, from the whole surface of the cavity of the mouth. The saliva is continually swallowed with, or without masticated food, and some is also spit out. It has no *colour* nor *smell*; it is *tasteless*, although it contains a little salt, to which the nerves of the tongue are accustomed. Its *specific gravity* is somewhat greater than water. Its *consistence* is rather plastic and spumous, from the entangled atmospheric air. The *quantity* of twelve pounds is supposed to be secreted in twelve hours. During mastication and speaking the secretion is augmented, from the mechanical pressure of the muscles upon the salivary glands. Those who are hungry secrete a great quantity, from the sight of agreeable food. It is imperfectly dissolved by water; somewhat coagulated by alkohol of wine; and is congealed with more difficulty than water. It is inspissated by a small dose, and dissolved in a large dose, of mineral acids. It is also soluble in aerated alkali. Caustic alkali and quick lime extract volatile alkali from saliva. It corrodes copper and iron, and precipitates silver and lead in the form of corneous luna. It assists the spirituous fermentation of farinaceous substances; hence barbarous nations prepare an inebriating drink from the chewed roots of the *Jatropha Manihot* and *Piper Methisticum*. It possesses an antiseptic virtue, according to the experiments of the celebrated Pringle. It easily becomes putrid in warm air, and gives off volatile alkali.

Constituent Principles. Saliva appears to consist of water, albumen, ammoniacal salt, and animal earth. Of water, there is $\frac{4}{5}$ given out by distillation. The albumen is detected by alkohol of wine. Th eammoniacal salt is demonstrated by triturating quick lime with saliva; and the animal earth from salival calculus, and the products of fire.

The use of the saliva is, 1. It augments the taste of the food, by the evolution of sapid matter. 2. During mastication, it mixes with, dissolves, and resolves into its principles, the food; and changes it into a pultaceous mass, fit to be swallowed: hence it commences chymification. 3. It moderates thirst, by moistening the cavity of the mouth and fauces.

SALIVAL DUCTS. The excretory ducts of the salival glands. That of the parotid gland is called the *Stenonian* duct; those of the submaxillary glands, the *Warthonian* ducts; and those of the sublingual, the *Reverian* duct.

SALIVAL GLANDS. Those glands which secrete the saliva are so termed. See *Saliva*.

SALIVĀRIS HERBA.

SALIVATION. An increased secretion of saliva. See *Ptyalismus*.

SALIX, (*Salix, icis*, f. from *sala*, Heb.). *Salix alba*. The willow. The bark of the branches of the *Salix fragilis* of Linnæus, the crack willow. *Salix foliis serratis glabris ovato-lanceolatis, petiolis dentato-glandulosis*. Class *Dioecia*. Order *Di-*

andria. It manifeſts a conſiderable degree of bitterneſs to the taſte, and is very adſtringent. It is recommended as a good ſubſtitute for Peruvian bark, and is ſaid to cure intermittents and other diſeaſes requiring tonic and adſtringent remedies.

SALIX ALBA. See *Salix.*

SALIX CAPREA. The ſyſtematic name of a ſpecies of willow, the bark of whoſe branches poſſeſs the ſame virtues with that of the fragilis. See *Salix.*

SALIX FRAGĬLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the common crack willow. See *Salix.*

SALIX PENTANDRĬA. The bark of the branches of this ſpecies of willow poſſeſſes the ſame virtues as that of the fragilis. See *Salix.*

SALIX VITULĪNA. The bark of the branches of this ſpecies of willow may be ſubſtituted for the fragilis. See *Salix.*

SALPINGO-PHARYNGĒUS. This muſcle is compoſed of a few fibres of the palato-pharyngeus, which it aſſiſts in dilating the mouth of the Euſtachian tube.

SALPINGO-STATHILĪNUS. See *Levator palati.*

SALPINGO-STAPHILĪNUS INTERNUS. See *Levator palati.*

SALSAFY. The root of the purple goats beard. See *Tragopogon pratenſe.*

SALSŌLA KALI. Snail-ſeeded glaſs-wort or ſalt-wort. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the mineral alkali. See *Soda* and *Barilla.*

SALSŌLA SATĪVA. The ſyſtematic name of a plant, which affords the mineral alkali. See *Soda* and *Barilla.*

SALSŌLA SODA. The ſyſtematic name of a plant which affords mineral alkali. See *Barilla*, and *Soda.*

SALT, CATHARTIC. See *Magneſia vitriolata* and *Natron vitriolatum.*

SALT, COMMON. See *Murias ſodæ.*

SALT, EPSOM. See *Magneſia vitriolata.*

SALT-PETRE. See *Nitras potaſſæ impurus* and *Nitre.*

SALT, ROCHELLE. See *Tartris ſodæ.*

SALT, SEA. See *Murias ſodæ.*

SALTS. See *Saline ſubſtances.* Salts, with reſpect to their chemical properties, are divided into two claſſes; into acid ſalts or acids, and into alkaline ſalts or alkalies; and from the mutual combination of theſe two ariſes a third claſs, viz. that of neutral ſalts. See *Acid* and *Neutral ſalts.*

SALTWORT. See *Salſola kali.*

SALVATELLA, (*Salvatella*, ſc. *vena*, from *ſalus*, health, becauſe the opening of it was formerly thought to be of ſingular uſe in melancholy). This vein runs along the little finger, unites upon the back of the hand with the cephalic of the thumb, and empties its blood into the internal and external cubital veins.

SALVĬA, (*Salvia, æ*, f. *a ſalvendo*). Sage. *Salvia officinalis* of Linnæus. *Salvia foliis lanceolato-ovatis integris crenulatis, floribus ſpicatis, calycibus acutis.* Claſs *Diandria.* Order *Monogynia.* In ancient times ſage was celebrated as a remedy of great efficacy, as would appear from the following lines of the ſchool of Salernita;

Cur moriatur homo, cui ſalvia creſcit in horto?
Contra vim mortis, non eſt medicamen in hortis.
Salvia ſalvatrix, naturæ conciliatrix.
Salvia cum ruta faciunt tibi pocula tuta.

But at preſent it is not conſidered as an article of much importance. It has a fragrant ſtrong ſmell; and a warm, bitteriſh, aromatic taſte, like other plants containing an eſſential

oil. It has a remarkable property in reſiſting the putrefaction of animal ſubſtances, and is in frequent uſe among the Chineſe as a tonic, in the form of tea, in debility of the ſtomach and nervous ſyſtem.

SALVĬA HORTENSIS MINOR. The ſmall ſage, or ſage of virtue. A variety of the officinal ſage, poſſeſſing ſimilar virtues.

SALVĬA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the garden ſage. See *Salvia*.

SALVĬA SCLARĔA. The ſyſtematic name of the garden clary, called *horminum* in the pharmacopœias. The leaves and ſeeds are recommended as corroborants and antiſpaſmodics, particularly in leucorrhœas and hyſterical weakneſſes. They have a bitteriſh warm taſte, and a ſtrong ſmell, of the aromatic kind.

SAMBŪCUS, (*Sambucus, i*, f. from *ſabucca*, Heb. a muſical inſtrument, formerly made of this tree). The elder tree. *Sambucus nigra* of Linnæus. *Sambucus cymis quinque partitis, foliis pinnatis, caule arboreo.* Claſs *Pentandria*. Order *Trigynia*. This indigenous plant has an unpleaſant narcotic ſmell, and ſome authors have reported its exhalations to be ſo noxious, as to render it unſafe to ſleep under its ſhade. The parts of this tree that are propoſed for medinical uſe in the pharmacopœias are the inner bark, the flowers, and the berries. The firſt has ſcarcely any ſmell, and very little taſte; on firſt chewing, it impreſſes a degree of ſweetneſs, which is followed by a very ſlight but durable acrimony, in which its powers ſeem to reſide. From its cathartic property it is recommended as an effectual hydragogue by Sydenham and Boerhaave. In ſmall doſes it is ſaid to be an uſeful aperient and deobſtruent in various chronic diſorders. The flowers have an agreeable flavour; and infuſions of them, when freſh, are gently laxative and aperient. When dry, they are ſaid to promote chiefly the cuticular excretion, and to be particularly ſerviceable in eryſipelatous and eruptive diſorders. Externally they are uſed in fomentations, &c. and in the London pharmacopœia are directed in the form of an ointment. The berries in taſte are ſomewhat ſweetiſh, and not unpleaſant; on expreſſion they yield a fine purple juice, which proves an uſeful aperient and reſolvent in ſundry chronic diſeaſes, gently looſening the belly, and promoting the urine and perſpiration. The officinal preparation of theſe berries, in the London pharmacopœia, is the *ſuccus bacchæ ſambuci ſpiſſatus*.

SAMBŪCUS EBŬLUS. The ſyſtematic name of the dwarf elder. See *Ebulus*.

SAMBŪCUS NIGRA. The ſyſtematic name of the elder tree. See *Sambucus*.

SAMPHIRE. The *Crithmum maritimum* of Linnæus. It is a low perennial plant, and grows about the ſea-coaſt in ſeveral parts of the iſland. It has a ſpicy aromatic flavour, which induces the common people to uſe it as a pot-herb. Pickled with vinegar and ſpice it makes a wholeſome and elegant condiment which is in much eſteem.

SAMPSUCHUS. See *Sambucus*.

SANDARACHA, (*Sandaracha, æ*, f. σανδαραχα, a gummy reſin; alſo a ſort of arſenic from ſaghad narak, Arab.). See *Sandrack*.

SANDARACHA ARĂBUM. This reſinous juice appears to have been the produce of a large ſpecies of juniper tree.

SANDRACK, (*Sandrack*, n. ind. an Arabian word). *Sandaracha*. Gum juniper. A concrete reſin which exudes in white tears, more tranſparent than maſtich, from the bark of the *Juniperus communis* of

Linnæus. See *Juniperus*. Sandrack is almoſt totally ſoluble in alkohol, with which it forms a white varniſh that dries ſpeedily. Reduced to powder it is called *pounce*, which prevents ink from ſinking into paper, from which the exterior coating of ſize has been ſcraped away.

SANGUIFICATION, (*Sanguificatio, onis*, f. from *ſanguis*, blood). A natural function of the body, by which the chyle is changed into blood. The uſes of ſanguification are the generation of blood, which ſerves to fill the blood-veſſels, to irritate and ſtimulate the heart and arteries, to generate or cauſe heat, to ſecrete the humours, and to excite the vital action.

SANGUINĀLIS, (*Sanguinalis, is*, f. from *ſanguis*, blood; ſo named from its uſes in ſtopping bleedings). The *Polygonum aviculare* or knot-graſs is ſometimes ſo called. See *Centumnodia*.

SANGUINĀRĬA, (*Sanguinaria, æ*, f. from *ſanguis*, blood; ſo named from its uſe in ſtopping bleedings). The *Polygonum aviculare* or knot-graſs is ſometimes ſo termed. See *Centumnodia*.

SANGUINEOUS APOPLEXY. See *Apoplexia*.

SANGUIS DRACŌNIS. Dragon's blood. The red reſinous juice which is obtained by wounding the bark of the *Calamus rotang, caudice denſiſſime aculeato, aculeis erectis, ſpadice erecto* of Wildenow. Claſs *Hexandria*. Order *Monogynia*. It is chiefly obtained from the Molucca iſlands, Java, and other parts of the Eaſt Indies. It is generally much adulterated, and varied in goodneſs and purity. The beſt kind is of a dark red colour, which, when powdered, changes to crimſon; it readily melts and catches flame; has no ſmell, but to the taſte diſcovers ſome degree of warmth and pungency. The ancient Greeks were well acquainted with the adſtringent power of this drug; in which character it has ſince been much employed in hæmorrhages, in alvine fluxes. At preſent, however, it is ſeldom uſed internally, being ſuperſeded by more certain and effectual remedies of this numerous claſs; and it enters no officinal compoſition but that of the *emplaſtrum thuris* of the London pharmacopœia.

SANGUĬSORBA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the Italian pimpinel. See *Pimpinella Italica*.

SANGUĬSŪGA, (*Sanguiſuga, æ*, f. from *ſanguis*, blood, and *ſugo*, to ſuck). The leech, or blood-ſucker.

SANICLE. See *Sanicula*.

SANICLE, YORKSHIRE. See *Pinguicula*.

SANICŬLA, (*Sanicula, æ*, f. from *ſano* to heal; ſo called from its virtues in healing). Sanicle. This herb, *Sanicula europea* of Linnæus, was formerly recommended as a mild adſtringent, and is ſuppoſed to have received its name from its ſanative power. Its ſenſible qualities are a bitteriſh and ſomewhat auſtere taſte, followed by an acrimony which chiefly affects the throat. It is only in uſe in the preſent day amongſt the country people.

SANICŬLA EBORĀCENSIS. The Yorkſhire ſanicle or butter-wort. See *Pinguicula*.

SANICŬLA EUROPĒA. The ſyſtematic name of the ſanicle. See *Sanicula*.

SANIES, (*Sanies, ei*, f.). *Ichor*. This term is ſometimes applied to a thin, limpid, and greeniſh diſcharge; at other times to a thick and bloody kind of pus.

SANTALUM, (*Santalum, i*, n. σανδαλον, from *zandal*, Arab.). Saunders.

SANTĂLUM ALBUM. The ſyſtematic name of the yellow ſaunders. See *Santalum citrinum*.

SANTĂLUM ALBUM. The white ſaunders of the ſhop is ſaid to be the

alburnum of the tree whose medullary part is called *Santalum citrinum*.

SANTĂLUM CITRĬNUM. Yellow saunders. *Santalum album* of Linnæus. White saunders wood is of a pale white colour, often with a yellowish tinge, and, being destitute of taste or odour, it is superseded by the santalum citrinum, which is of a browniſh yellow colour, of a bitteriſh aromatic taste, and of a pleasant smell, approaching to that of the rose. Both kinds are brought from the East Indies in billets, consisting of large thick pieces, which, according to Rumphius, are sometimes taken from the same, and sometimes from different trees. For though the white and yellow saunders are the wood of the same species of tree, yet the latter, which forms the central part of the tree, is not always to be found in sufficient quantity to repay the trouble and expence of procuring it especially, unless the trees be old; while the white, which is the exterior part of the wood, is always more abundant, and is consequently much cheaper.

Yellow saunders, distilled with water, yields a fragrant essential oil, which thickens in the cold into the consistence of a balsam, approaching in smell to ambergris, or a mixture of ambergris and roses; the remaining decoction, inspissated to the consistence of an extract, is bitteriſh and slightly pungent. Rectified spirit extracts, by digestion, considerably more than water; the colour of the tincture is a rich yellow. The spirit distilled off is slightly impregnated with the fine flavour of the wood; the remaining browniſh extract has a weak smell, and a moderate balsamic pungency.

The wood is valued highly on account of its fragrance, hence the Chinese are said to fumigate their clothes with it, and to burn it in their temples in honour of their gods. Though still retained in the materia medica of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia, it cannot be thought to possess any considerable share of medicinal power. Hoffman considers its virtues as similar to those of ambergris; and some others have esteemed it in the character of a corroborand and restorative.

SANTĂLUM RUBRUM. Red saunders. *Pterocarpus santalinus* of Linnæus. There is some reason to believe that several red woods, capable of communicating this colour to spirituous liquors, are sold as red saunders; but the true officinal kind appears, on the best authority, to be of this tree, which is extremely hard, of a bright garnet red colour, and bears a fine polish. It is only the inner substance of the wood that is used as a colouring matter, and the more florid red is mostly esteemed. On being cut it is said to manifest a fragrant odour, which is more especially in old trees. According to Lewis, this wood "is of a dull red, almost blackish colour on the outside, and a deep brighter red within; its fibres are now and then curled, as in knots. It has no manifest smell, and little or no taste; even of extracts made from it with water, or with spirit, the taste is considerable.

To watery liquors it communicates only a yellowish tinge, but to rectified spirit a fine deep red. A small quantity of an extract made with this menstruum, tinges a large one of fresh spirit of the same colour; though it does not, like most other resinous bodies, dissolve in expressed oils. Of distilled oils, there are some, as that of lavender, which receive a red tincture from the wood itself, and from its resinous extract, but the greater number do not. Red saunders has been esteemed as a medicine; but its only use attaches to its colouring property. The juice of this tree, like that of some others,

affords a ſpecies of ſanguis draconis.

SANTOLĪNA, (*Santolina*, *æ*, .f from *ſantalum*, ſaunders, becauſe it ſmells like the ſaunders wood). See *Abrotanum fœmina*.

SANTOLĪNA CHAMÆ-CYPARISSUS. The ſyſtematic name of the lavender cotton. See *Abrotanum fœmina*.

SANTONĪCUM, (*Santonicum*, *i*, n. σαντονικον; from *Santonia*, its native place). *Cina*. *Semen contra*. *Semen ſanctum*. Tartarean ſouthernwood or wormſeed. *Artemiſia ſantonica*; *foliis caulinis linearibus pinnato-multifidis*, *ramis indiviſis*, *ſpicis ſecundis reflexis*, *floribus quinquefloris*, of Linnæus. Claſs *Syngeneſia*. Order *Polygamia ſuperflua*. The ſeeds of this plant are ſmall, light, and oval, compoſed of a number of thin membranous coats of a yellowiſh green colour, with a caſt of brown, eaſily friable upon being rubbed between the fingers into a fine chaffy kind of ſubſtance. They are brought from the Levant; have a moderately ſtrong and not agreeable ſmell, ſomewhat of the wormwood kind, and a very bitter ſubacrid taſte. They are eſteemed to be ſtomachic, emmenagogue, and anthelmintic; but it is eſpecially for the laſt mentioned powers that they are now adminiſtered, and from their efficacy in this way they have obtained the name of wormſeed.

SAPHĒNA, (*Vena ſaphena*, from σαφης, viſible). The large vein of the leg, which aſcends along the little toe over the external ankle, and evacuates part of the blood from the foot into the popliteal veins.

SAPIENTĬÆ-DENTES, (*Sapientia*, *æ*, f.). The four laſt grinders are ſo called, becauſe they appear when the perſon is ſuppoſed to be at years of diſcretion. See *Teeth*.

SAPINDUS SAPONARĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords ſoap nuts. See *Saponariæ muculæ*.

SAPO, (*Sapo*, *onis*, m.). Soap. A compoſition of oils or fats with alkaline ſalts. The medicinal ſoap, *ſapo durus*, *ſapo amygdalinus*, is made with oil of ſweet almonds, and half its weight of potaſh or cauſtic alkali. Common or ſoft ſoap, *ſapo mollis*, is made of tallow; Spaniſh, or Caſtile ſoap, of oil of almonds and the alkaline ſalt called ſoda or barilla. Black ſoap is a compoſition of train oil and an alkaline ſalt; and green ſoap, of hemp, linſeed, or rape oil. Soap is a ſubſtance much uſed in ſurgery and medicine, and enters into various preparations of pills, plaſters, and liniments. See *Soda*.

SAPONARĬA, (*Saponaria*, *æ*, f. from *ſapo*, ſoap; ſo called becauſe its juice, like ſoap, cleans cloaths). Soap-wort. Buiſe-wort. This root is employed medicinally; it has no peculiar ſmell; its taſte is ſweetiſh, glutinous, and ſomewhat bitter. On being chewed for ſome time, it is ſaid to diſcover a degree of acrimony, which continues to affect the mouth a conſiderable time. According to Neuman, two ounces of the root yielded eleven drachms of watery extract; but Cartheuſer, from a like quantity, only obtained ſix drachms and twenty-four grains. This extract manifeſted a ſweetiſh taſte, followed by an acrid quality. The ſpirituous extract is leſs in quality, but of a more penetrating acrid taſte. Decoctions of the root, on being ſufficiently agitated produce a ſaponaceous froth; a ſimilar ſoapy quality is obſervable alſo in the extract, and ſtill more manifeſtly in the leaves, inſomuch that they have been uſed by the mendicant monks as a ſubſtitute for ſoap in waſhing of their cloaths; and Bergius, who made ſeveral experiments with the ſaponaria, declares, that it had all the effects of ſoap itſelf.

From theſe peculiar qualities of the ſaponaria, there can be little doubt of its poſſeſſing a conſiderable

ſhare of medical efficacy, which we could wiſh to find faithfully aſcertained.

The diſeaſes for which the ſaponaria is recommended, as ſyphilis, gout, rheumatiſm, and jaundice, are not, perhaps, the complaints in which its uſe is moſt availing; for a fancied reſemblance of the roots of ſaponaria with thoſe of ſarſaparilla, ſeems to have led phyſicians to think them ſimilar in their effects; and hence they have both been adminiſtered with the ſame intentions, particularly in fixed pains, and venereal affections. Bergius ſays, "in arthritide, cura mercuriale, &c. nullum aptiorem potum novi." However, according to ſeveral writers, the moſt inveterable caſes of ſyphilis were cured by a decoction of this plant, without the uſe of mercury.

Haller informs us, that Boerhaave entertained an high opinion of its efficacy in jaundice, and other viſceral obſtructions.

SAPONARĬA CUCŬLA. *Baccæ bermudenſes.* Soap berries. A ſpherical fruit, about the ſize of a cherry, whoſe cortical part is yellow, gloſſy, and ſo tranſparent, as to ſhew the ſpherical black nut which rattles within, and which includes a white kernel. It is the produce of the *Sapindus ſaponaria* of Linnæus, which grows in Jamaica. It is ſaid that the cortical part of this fruit has a bitter taſte, and no ſmell, that it raiſes a ſoapy froth with water, and has ſimilar effects with ſoap in waſhing; that it is a medicine of ſingular and ſpecific virtue in chloroſis. They are not known in the ſhops of this country.

SAPONARĬA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the ſoap-wort. See *Saponaria.*

SAPONULES. *Saponuli.* Combinations of the volatile or eſſential oils with different baſes; as, *ſaponule of alumine.*

SAPONULES ACID. Combinations of the volatile or eſſential oils with different acids.

SAPOTA. The oval fruited ſapota, whoſe ſeeds are ſometimes given in form of emulſion in calculous complaints, is the *Acras ſapota* of Linnæus. It is a native of South America, and bears a fruit like an apple, which has, when ripe, a luſcious taſte, reſembling that of the marmalade of quinces, whence it is called natural marmalade.

SAPPAN LIGNUM. Logwood has been ſo called. See *Lignum campechenſe.*

SAPPHIRE. A gem of a ſky-blue colour.

SARACENS CONSOUND. The golden rod is ſometimes ſo termed. See *Virga aurea.*

SARCOCĒLE, (*Sarcocele, is,* f. σαρκοκηλη; from σαρξ, fleſh, and κηλη, a tumour). Diſeaſed teſticle. This is a diſeaſe of the body of the teſticle, and, as the term implies, conſiſts, in general, in ſuch an alteration made in the ſtructure of it, as produces a reſemblance to a hard fleſhy ſubſtance, inſtead of that fine, ſoft, vaſcular texture, of which it is, in a natural and healthy ſtate, compoſed.

The ancient writers have made a great number of diſtinctions of the different kinds of this diſeaſe, according to its different appearances, and according to the mildneſs or malignity of the ſymptoms with which it may chance to be attended. Thus, the *ſarcocele*, the *hydro-ſarcocele*, the *ſcirrhus*, the *cancer*, the *caro adnata ad teſtem*, and the *caro adnata ad vaſa*, which are really little more than deſcriptions of different ſtates and circumſtances of the ſame diſeaſe, are reckoned as ſo many different complaints, requiring a variety of treatment, and deriving their origin from a variety of different humours.

Every ſpecies of ſarcocele conſiſts

primarily in an enlargement, induration, and obſtruction of the vaſcular part of the teſticle; but this alteration is, in different people, attended with ſuch a variety of circumſtances, as to produce ſeveral different appearances, and to occaſion the many diſtinctions which have been made.

If the body of the teſticle, though enlarged, and indurated to ſome degree, be perfectly equal in its ſurface, void of pain, has no appearance of fluid in its tunica vaginalis, and produces very little uneaſineſs, except what is occaſioned by its mere weight, it is uſually called a ſimple ſarcocele, or an indolent ſcirrhus; if, at the ſame time that the teſtis is enlarged and hardened, there be a palpable accumulation of fluid in the vaginal coat, the diſeaſe has by many been named a *hydro-ſarcocele*; if the lower part of the ſpermatic veſſels, and the epidydimis were enlarged, hard, and knotty, they ſuppoſed it to be a fungous or morbid accretion, and called it the *caro adnata ad vaſa*; if the teſticle itſelf was unequal in its ſurface, but at the ſame time not painful, they diſtinguiſh it by the title of *caro adnata ad teſtem*; if it was tolerably equal, not very painful, nor frequently ſo, but at the ſame time hard and large, they gave it the appellation of an occult or benign cancer; if it was ulcerated, ſubject to frequent acute pain, to hæmorrhage, &c. it was known by that of a malignant or confirmed cancer. Theſe different appearances, though diſtinguiſhed by different titles, are really no more than ſo many ſtages (as it were) of the ſame kind of diſeaſe, and depend a great deal on ſeveral accidental circumſtances, ſuch as age, habit, manner of living, &c. It is true, that many people paſs ſeveral years with this diſeaſe, under its moſt favourable appearances, and without encountering any of its worſt; but, on the other hand, there are many, who, in a very ſhort ſpace of time, run through all its ſtages. They who are moſt converſant with it know, how very convertible its mildeſt ſymptoms are into its moſt dreadful ones, and how very ſhort a ſpace of time often intervenes between the one and the other.

There is hardly any diſeaſe affecting the human body which is ſubject to more variety than this is, both with regard to its firſt manner of appearance, and the changes which it may undergo.

Sometimes the firſt appearance is a mere ſimple enlargement and induration of the body of the teſticle; void of pain, without inequality of ſurface, and producing no uneaſineſs or inconvenience, except what is occaſioned by its mere weight. And ſome few people are ſo fortunate to have it remain in this ſtate for a very conſiderable length of time without viſible or material alteration. On the other hand, it ſometimes happens, that very ſoon after its appearance in this mild manner, it ſuddenly becomes unequal and knotty, and is attended with very acute pains darting up to the loins and back, but ſtill remaining entire, that is, not burſting through the integuments. Sometimes the fury of the diſeaſe brooks no reſtraint; but, making its way through all the membranes which invelope the teſticle, it either produces a large, foul, ſkinking, phagedenic ulcer, with hard edges, or it thruſts forth a painful gleeting fungus, ſubject to frequent hæmorrhage.

Sometimes an accumulation of water is made in the tunica vaginalis, producing that mixed appearance, called the *hydro-ſarcocele*.

Sometimes there is no fluid at all in the cavity of the tunica vaginalis; but the body of the teſticle itſelf is formed into cells, containing either a turbid kind of water, a bloody

ſanies, or a purulent fœtid matter. Sometimes the diſorder ſeems to be merely local, that is, confined to the teſticle, not proceeding from a tainted habit, nor accompanied with diſeaſed viſcera, the patient having all the general appearances and circumſtances of health, and deriving his local miſchief from an external injury. At other times, a pallid, leaden countenance, indigeſtion, frequent nauſea, cholic pains, ſudden purgings, &c. ſufficiently indicate a vitiated habit, and diſeaſed viſcera, which diſeaſed viſcera may alſo ſometimes be diſcovered and felt.

The progreſs, alſo, which it makes from the teſtis upward, toward the proceſs, is very uncertain; the diſeaſe occupying the teſticle only, without affecting the ſpermatic proceſs, in ſome ſubjects, for a great length of time; while, in others, it totally ſpoils the teſticle very ſoon, and, almoſt as ſoon, ſeizes on the ſpermatic chord.

SARCŎCOLLA, (*Sarcocolla, æ,* f. σαρκοκολλα, fleſh glue; from σαρξ, fleſh, and κολλα, glue, becauſe of its ſuppoſed power of glueing together wounds). A concrete gummi-reſinous juice, ſuppoſed to be the produce of the *Penæa mucronata* of Linnæus. It is brought from Perſia and Arabia in ſmall grains of a pale yellow colour, having alſo ſometimes mixed with them a few of a deep red colour. Its taſte is bitter, but followed with ſome degree of ſweetneſs. It has been chiefly uſed for external purpoſes, and, as its name imports, has been thought to agglutinate wounds and ulcers; but this opinion now no longer exiſts. It is an ingredient in the *pulvis e ceruſſa.*

SARCOLOGY, (*Sarcologia, æ,* f. σαρκολογια; from σαρξ, fleſh, and λογος, a diſcourſe). The doctrine of the muſcles and ſoft parts.

SARCŌMA, (*Sarcoma, atis,* n. σαρκωμα; from σαρξ, fleſh). *Sarcoſis.* A fleſhy excreſcence. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *tumores* of Cullen.

SARCOMPHĂLUS, (*Sarcomphalus, i,* m. σαρκομφαλος; from σαρξ, fleſh, and ομφαλος, the navel). A fleſhy excreſcence about the navel.

SARCŌSIS. See *Sarcoma.*

SARDONIC LAUGH, (*Riſus ſardonicus*; ſo called from the herb *ſardonia*, which grows in the iſland of Sardonia, and is ſaid to produce it). A convulſive laughter. See *Riſus ſardonicus,*

SARSAPARILLA, (*Sarſaparilla, æ,* f.; this word is of Spaniſh origin, ſignifying a red tree). The root of this plant, *Smilax ſarſaparilla* of Linnæus, (*Smilax caule aculeato angulato, foliis inermibus ovatis retuſo-mucronatis trinerveis.* Claſs *Dioecia.* Order *Hexandaia*), has a farinaceous, ſomewhat bitter taſte, and no ſmell. About two centuries ago it was introduced into Spain as an undoubted ſpecific in ſyphilitic diſorders; but owing to difference of climate, or other cauſes, it has not anſwered the character which it had acquired in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. It is now conſidered as capable of improving the general habit of body after it has been reduced by the continued uſe of mercury.

To refute the opinion that ſarſaparilla poſſeſſes antiſyphilitic virtues, Mr. Pearſon, of the Lock Hoſpital, divides the ſubject into two diſtinct queſtions. 1ſt, Is the ſarſaparilla root, when given alone, to be ſafely relied on, in the treatment of lues venerea? The late Mr. Bloomfield, his predeceſſor, and during ſome years his colleague, at the Lock Hoſpital, has given a very decided anſwer to this queſtion: "I ſolemnly declare (ſays he) I never ſaw a ſingle inſtance in my life where it cured that diſorder, without the aſſiſtance of mercury, either at the ſame time with it, or when it had been previ-

ouſly taken before the decoction was directed." Mr. Pearſon's experience, during many years, coincides entirely with the obſervations of Mr. Bloomfield. He has employed the ſarſaparilla, in powder and in decoctions, in an almoſt infinite variety of caſes, and feels himſelf fully authoriſed to aſſert, that this plant has not the power of curing any one form of the lues venerea. The ſarſaparilla, indeed, like the guaicum, is capable of alleviating ſymptoms derived from the venereal virus; and it ſometimes manifeſts the power of ſuſpending, for a time, the deſtructive ravages of that contagion; but where the poiſon has not been previouſly ſubdued by mercury, the ſymptoms will quickly return; and, in addition to them, we often ſee the moſt indubitable proofs that the diſeaſe is making an actual progreſs, during the regular adminiſtration of the vegetable remedy.

2d, When the ſarſaparilla root is given in conjunction with mercury, does it render the mercurial courſe more certain and efficacious? In replying to this query, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that the phraſe, "to increaſe the efficacy of mercury," may imply, that a ſmaller quantity of this mineral antidote will confer ſecurity on an infected perſon, when ſarſaparilla is added to it; or it may mean, that mercury would be ſometimes unequal to the cure, without the aid of ſarſaparilla. If a decoction of this root did indeed poſſeſs ſo admirable a quality, that the quantity of mercury neceſſary to effect a cure, might be ſafely reduced, whenever it was given during a mercurial courſe, it would form a moſt valuable addition to our materia medica. This opinion has been, however, unfortunately falſified by the moſt ample experience, and whoever ſhall be ſo unwary as to act upon ſuch a preſumption, will be ſure to find his own and his patient's expectations egregiouſly diſappointed.

If the ſarſaparilla root be a genuine antidote againſt the ſyphilitic virus, it ought to cure the diſeaſe when adminiſtered alone; but, if no direct proof can be adduced of its being equal to this, any arguments founded on hiſtories where mercury has been previouſly given, or where both the medicines were adminiſtered at the ſame time, muſt be ambiguous and undeciſive.

It appears probable, that Sir William Fordyce, and ſome other perſons, entertained a notion, that there were certain venereal ſymptoms which commonly reſiſted the potency of mercury, and that the ſarſaparilla was an appropriate remedy in theſe caſes. This opinion, it is preſumed, is not correct, for it militates againſt all Mr. P. has ever obſerved of the progreſs and treatment of lues venerea. Indeed thoſe patients who have lately uſed a full courſe of mercury, often complain of nocturnal pains in their limbs; they are ſometimes afflicted with painful enlargements of the elbow and knee joints; or they have membranous nodes, cutaneous exulcerations, and certain other ſymptoms, reſembling thoſe which are the offſpring of the venereal virus.

It may and does often happen, that appearances like theſe are miſtaken for a true venereal affection, and, in conſequence of this error, mercury is adminiſtered, which never fails to exaſperate the diſeaſe. Now, if a ſtrong decoction of ſarſaparilla root be given to perſons under theſe circumſtances, it will ſeldom fail of producing the moſt beneficial effects; hence it has been contended, that ſymptoms derived from the contagion of lues venerea, which could not be cured by mercury, have finally yielded to this vegetable remedy. It muſt be acknowledged, that repreſentations of this kind have a ſpecious

and impoſing air; nevertheleſs, Mr. Pearſon endeavours to prove, that they are neither exact nor concluſive. If any of the above-named ſymptoms ſhould appear near the concluſion of a courſe of mercury, when that medicine was operating powerfully on the whole ſyſtem, it would be a ſtrange and inexplicable thing if they could poſſibly be derived immediately from the uncontrolled agency of the venereal virus.

This would imply ſomething like a palpable contradiction, that the antidote ſhould be operating with ſufficient efficacy to cure the venereal ſymptoms, for which it was directed; while, at the ſame time, the venereal virus was proceeding to contaminate new parts, and to excite a new order of appearances.

One ſource, and a very common one, to which ſome of the miſtakes committed upon this ſubject may be traced, is a perſuaſion that every morbid alteration which ariſes in an infected perſon is actually tainted with the venereal virus, and ought to be aſcribed to it as its true cauſe.

Every experienced ſurgeon muſt, however, be aware, that very little of truth and reality exiſts in a repreſentation of this kind. The contagious matter, and the mineral ſpecific, may jointly produce, in certain habits of body, a new ſeries of ſymptoms, which, ſtrictly ſpeaking, are not venereal, which cannot be cured by mercury, and which are ſometimes more to be dreaded than the ſimple and natural effects of the venereal virus.

Some of the moſt formidable of theſe appearances may be ſometimes removed by ſarſaparilla, the venereal virus ſtill remaining in the ſyſtem; and, when the force of that poiſon has been completely ſubdued by mercury, the ſame vegetable is alſo capable of freeing the patient from what may be called the ſequelæ of a mercureal courſe.

The root of the ſarſaparilla is ſometimes employed in rheumatic affections, ſcrofula, and cutaneous complaints, where an acrimony of the fluids prevail.

SARSAPARILLA GERMANICA. The root of the *Carex arenaria* of Linnæus, which grows plentifully on the ſea-coaſt, is ſo termed, and it appears, that the *carex diſticha* and *hirta* have alſo been collected, and their roots uſed indifferently inſtead of the true ſarſaparilla. The root of the carex arenaria has been found ſerviceable in ſome mucal affections of the trachea, in rheumatic pains, and gouty affections.

SARTORIUS, (*Sartorius, ſc. muſculus*, from *ſartor*, a taylor, becauſe taylors croſs their legs with it). This flat and ſlender muſcle, which is the longeſt of the human body, and from an inch and a half to two inches in breadth, is ſituated immediately under the integuments, and extends obliquely from the upper and anterior part of the thigh to the upper, anterior, and inner part of the tibia, being incloſed by a thin membranous ſheath, which is derived from the adjacent *faſcia lata*. It ariſes, by a tendon of about half an inch in breadth, from the outer ſurface and inferior edge of the anterior ſuperior ſpinous proceſs of the ilium, but ſoon becomes fleſhy, and runs down a little way obliquely inwards, and then for ſome ſpace upon the rectus, nearly in a ſtraight direction; after which it paſſes obliquely over the vaſtus internus, and the lower part of the adductor longus, and then running down between the tendons of the adductor magnus and the gracilis, is inſerted, by a thin tendon, into the inner part of the tibia, near the inferior part of its tuberoſity, and for the ſpace of an inch or two below it. This tendon ſends off a thin

aponeurosis, which is spread over the upper and posterior part of the leg. This muscle serves to bend the leg obliquely inwards, or to roll the thigh outwards, and at the same time to bring one leg across the other, on which account Spigelius first gave it the name of *sartorius*, or the taylor's muscle.

SASSĂFRAS, (*Sassafras*, n. ind. *quasi saxafraga*, from *saxum*, a stone, and *frango*, to break; so called because a decoction of its wood was supposed good for the stone). The wood of the sassafras tree, *Laurus sassafras* of Linnæus, (*Laurus foliis trilobis integrisque*. Class *Enneandria*. Order *Monogynia*), is imported from North America in long straight pieces, very light, and of a spongy texture, and covered with a rough fungous bark. It has a fragrant smell, and a sweetish, aromatic, subacrid taste; the root, wood, and bark agree in their medical qualities, and are all mentioned in the pharmacopœias; but the bark is the most fragrant, and thought to be more efficacious than the woody part. and the branches are preferred to the large pieces. The medical character of this drug was formerly held in great estimation, and publications were professedly written on the subject. It is now, however, thought to be of very little importance, and seldom used but in conjunction with other medicines, as a corrector of the fluids. It is an ingredient in the *decoctum sarsaparillæ compositum*; but the only officinal preparation of it is the essential oil, which is carminative and stimulant.

SATELLITE VEINS. The veins which accompany the brachial artery as far as the bend of the cubit.

SATURATION. A term employed in pharmacy and chemistry to express that state of a body which has a power of dissolving another, to a certain extent only, in which it has effected that degree of solution; thus, nitric acid, for instance, can only dissolve a certain quantity of lime, beyond which it does not act, having lost its former affinity; this degree of solution is termed the point of saturation, and it is then said that the nitric acid is saturated with lime.

SATUREJA, (*Satureja*, *æ*, f. from *satyri*, the lustful satyrs, because it makes those who eat it lascivious. Blanch). *Culina sativa Plinii. Thymba.* Summer savory. This low shrub is the *Satureja sativa* of Linnæus, cultivated in our gardens for culinary purposes. It has a warm, aromatic, penetrating taste, and smells like thyme, but milder. It is an ingredient in most of the warm stews and made dishes.

SATUREJA CAPITATA. The systematic name of the ciliated savory. See *Thymus creticus*.

SATUREJA HORTENSIS. The systematic name of the summer savory. See *Satureja*.

SATURNUS, (*Saturnus*, *i*, m. from the planet or heathen god of that name). The chemical name of lead.

SATYRIĂSIS, (*Satyriasis*, *is*, f. σατυριασις; from σατυρος, a satyr, because they are said to be greatly addicted to venery). *Satyriasmus. Priapismus. Salacitas.* Excessive and violent desire for coition in men. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dysorexiæ* of Cullen.

SATYRĬON, (*Satyrion*, *i*, n. σατυριον; from σατυρος, an animal given to venery, so called because it was supposed to excite venery if only held in the hand). Dog-stones. Male orchis. The root of the *Orchis mascula bulbis indivisis, nectarii labio quadrilobo crenulato, cornu obtuso petalis dorsalibus reflexis* of Linnæus. Class *Gynandria*. Order *Diandria*, which has a place in the materia medica of the Edinburgh pharmaco-

pœia, on account of the glutinous slimy juice which it contains. The root of the *ochis bifolia* is also collected. Satyrion root has a sweetish taste, a faint and somewhat unpleasant smell. Its mucilaginous or gelatinous quality has recommended it as a demulcent. Salep, which is imported here from the East, is a preparation of this root, which, considered as an article of diet, is accounted extremely nutritious, as containing a great quantity of farinaceous matter in a small bulk. See *Salep.*

SATYRĬUM. See *Satyrion.*

SAUCE ALONE. See *Alliaria.*

SAUNDERS RED. See *Santalum rubrum.*

SAUNDERS YELLOW. See *Santalum citrinum.*

SAVIN. See *Sabina.*

SAVĪNA. See *Sabina.*

SAVOURY. See *Satureja.*

SAXIFRĂGA ALBA. White saxifrage. *Saxifraga granulata* of Linnæus, who describes the taste of this plant to be acrid and pungent, which we have not been able to discover: neither the tubercles of the root, nor the leaves manifest to the organs of taste any quality likely to be of medicinal use, and therefore, though this species of saxifrage has been long employed as a popular remedy in nephritic and gravelly disorders, yet we do not find either from its sensible qualities, or from any published instances of its efficacy, that it deserves a place in the materia medica. The superstitious doctrine of signatures suggested the use of the root, which is a good example of what Linnæus has termed radix granulata. The bulbs or tubercles of such roots answer an important purpose in vegetation, by supplying the plants with nourishment and moisture, and thereby enabling them to resist the effects of that drought to which the dry soils they inhabit peculiarly expose them.

SAXIFRAGE BURNET. See *Pimpinella.*

SAXIFRAGA CRASSIFOLĬA. The roots of this species of saxifrage is extolled by Professor Pallas as an antiseptic.

SAXIFRAGE, ENGLISH. See *Saxifraga vulgaris.*

SAXIFRĂGA GRANULĀTA. The systematic name of the white saxifrage. See *Saxifraga alba.*

SAXIFRAGE, MEADOW. See *Saxifraga vulgaris.*

SAXIFRĂGA RUBRA. See *Filipendula.*

SAXIFRĂGA VULGĀRIS. *Hippomarathrum. Fœniculum erraticum.* English or meadow saxifrage. *Peucedanum silaus* of Linnæus. The roots, leaves, and seeds of this plant have been commended as aperients, diuretics, and carminatives; and appear from their aromatic smell and moderately warm, pungent, bitterish taste, to have some claim to these virtues. They are rarely used.

SAXIFRAGE, WHITE. See *Saxifraga alba.*

SCAB. A hard substance covering superficial ulcerations, and formed by a concretion of the fluid discharged from them.

SCABIES, (*Scabies, ei,* f.). The itch. A synonym of Psora. See *Psora.*

SCABIŌSA, (*Scabiosa, æ,* f. from *scaber,* rough; so called from its rough hairy surface). The common scabious. This herb, *Scabiosa arvensis, corollis quadrifidis, radiantibus; foliis pinnatifidis, incisis; caule hispido* of Linnæus, and its flowers are sometimes used medicinally. The whole plant possesses a bitter and subadstringent taste, and was formerly much employed in the cure of some leprous affections, whence its name, and diseases of the lungs.

SCABIŌSA ARVENSIS. The systematic name of the common field scabious. See *Scabiosa.*

Scabiōsa succīsa. The ſyſtematic name of the devil's bit ſcabious. See *Morſus diaboli.*

Scala tympăni. The ſuperior ſpiral cavity of the cochlea.

Scala vestĭbŭli. The inferior ſpiral cavity of the cochlea.

Scald head. The vulgar name for tinea capitis. See *Tinea capitis.*

Scale, (*Squama*, æ, f,). A lamina of morbid cuticle, hard, thickened, whitiſh, and opake, having at firſt the figure and extent of the cuticular lozenge; which afterwards often increaſes into irregular layers, denominated cruſts. Both ſcales and cruſts repeatedly fall off, and are reproduced in a ſhort time.

Scalēni muscŭli, (*Scalenus*, from σκαληνος, irregular or unequal). Anatomical writers have differed greatly in their deſcriptions of this muſcle, which is ſituated at the ſide of the neck, between the tranſverſe proceſſes of the cervical vertebræ and the upper part of the thorax. The ancients, who gave it its name from its reſemblance to an irregular triangle, conſidered it as one muſcle. Veſalius and Winſlow divide it into two; Fallopius and Cowper into three; Douglas into four, and Albinus into five portions, which they deſcribe as diſtinct muſcles. Without deviating in the leaſt from anatomical accuracy, it may be conſidered as one muſcle, divided into three portions. The anterior portion ariſes commonly from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the ſix inferior vertebræ of the neck, by as many ſhort tendons, and deſcending obliquely outwards, is inſerted tendinous and fleſhy, into the upper ſide of the firſt rib, near its cartilage. The axillary artery paſſes through this portion, and ſometimes divides it into two ſlips, about an inch and a half above its inſertion. The middle portion ariſes by diſtinct tendons, from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the four laſt vertebræ of the neck, and deſcending obliquely outwards and a little backwards, is inſerted tendinous into the outer and upper part of the firſt rib, from its root to within the diſtance of an inch from its cartilage. The ſpace between this and the anterior portion, affords a paſſage to the nerves going to the upper extremities. It is in part covered by the third or poſterior portion, which is the thinneſt and longeſt of the three. This ariſes from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the ſecond, third, fourth, and fifth vertebræ of the neck, by diſtinct tendons, and is inſerted into the upper edge of the ſecond rib, at the diſtance of about an inch and a half from its articulation, by a broad flat tendon. The uſe of the ſcalenus is to move the neck to one ſide, when it acts ſingly, or to bend it forwards, when both muſcles act; and when the neck is fixed, it ſerves to elevate the ribs and dilate the cheſt.

Scalēnus primus. See *Scaleni muſculi.*

Scalēnus secundus. See *Scaleni muſculi.*

Scalēnus tertĭus. See *Scaleni muſculi.*

Scammōnĭum, (*Scammonium*, *i*, n. σκαμμωνια; a corruption of the Arabian word *chamozah*). Scammony. The concrete gummi-reſinous juice of the *Convolvulus ſcammonia*; *foliis ſagitatis poſtice truncatis*, *pedunculis teretibus ſubtifloris* of Linnæus. Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Monogynia.* It is from the milky juice of the root that we obtain the officinal ſcammony, which is procured in the following manner by the peaſants who collect it in the beginning of June: having cleared away the earth from about the root, they cut off the top in an oblique direction, about two inches below where the ſtalks ſpring from it. Under the moſt depending

part of the ſlope they fix a ſhell, or ſome other convenient receptacle, into which the milky juice gradually flows. It is left there about twelve hours, which time is ſufficient for draining off the whole juice; this, however, is in ſmall quantity, each root affording but a very few drachms. This juice from the ſeveral roots is put together, often into a leg of an old boot for want of ſome more proper veſſel, where in a little time it grows hard, and is the genuine ſcammony. It is brought from Aleppo and Smyrna in maſſes, generally of a light ſhining gray colour, and friable texture; of rather an unpleaſant ſmell, and bitteriſh and ſlightly acrid taſte. The ſcammony of Aleppo is by far the pureſt. That of Smyrna is ponderous, black, and mixed with extraneous matters. Scammony appears to have been well known to the Greek and Arabian phyſicians, and was exhibited internally as a purgative, and externally for the itch, tinea, fixed pains, &c. It is ſeldom given alone, but enters ſeveral compounds, which are adminiſtered as purgatives.

SCAMMONY. See *Scammonium*.

SCANDIX CEREFOLIUM. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal chervil. See *Cerefolium*.

SCANDIX ODORĀTA, The ſyſtematic name of the ſweet cicely, which poſſeſſes virtues ſimilar to the common chervil. See *Cerefolium*.

SCĀPHA, (*Scapha*, æ, f. σκαφη; a ſkiff, or cock-boat; from σκαπτω, to make hollow, becauſe formerly they were made by excavating a large tree). The excavation or cavity of the auricula or external ear, between the helix and antihelix.

SCAPHOID BONE, (*Os ſcaphoides*, from σκαφη, a little veſſel or boat, and ειδος, reſemblance). A bone of the tarſus. See *Naviculare os*.

SCAPHOIDES OS, (*Scaphoides*, σκαφοειδης; from σκαφη, a ſkiff, and ειδος, a likeneſs, applied to the firſt bone of the firſt row in the wriſt, from its reſemblance to a little boat). See *Naviculare os*.

SCAPŬLA, (*Scapula*, æ, f. from the Hebrew *ſchipha*). *Omoplata. Os homoplatæ*. The ſhoulder blade. The ſcapula or ſhoulder blade, which approaches nearly to a triangular figure, is fixed, not unlike a buckler, to the upper, poſterior, and lateral part of the thorax, extending from the firſt to about the ſeventh rib. The anterior and internal ſurface of this bone is irregularly concave, from the impreſſion, not of the ribs, as the generality of anatomiſts have ſuppoſed, but of the ſubſcapularis muſcle. Its poſterior and external ſurface is convex, and divided into two unequal foſſæ by a conſiderable ſpine, which, riſing ſmall from the poſterior edge of the ſcapula, becomes gradually higher and broader as it approaches the anterior and ſuperior angle of the bone, till at length it terminates in a broad and flat proceſs, at the top of the ſhoulder, called the *proceſſus acromion*. On the anterior edge of this proceſſus acromion we obſerve an oblong, concave, articulating ſurface, covered with cartilage, for the articulation of the ſcapula with the clavicle. At its lower part the acromion is hollowed, to allow a paſſage to the ſupra and infra ſpinati muſcles. The ridge of the ſpine affords two rough, flat ſurfaces, for the inſertion of the trapezius and deltoid muſcles. Of the two foſſæ into which the external ſurface of the bone is divided by the ſpine, the ſuperior one, which is the ſmalleſt, ſerves to lodge the ſupra ſpinatus muſcle; and the inferior foſſa, which is much larger than the other, gives origin to the infra ſpinatus. The triangular ſhape of the ſcapula leads us to conſider its angles and its ſides. The upper poſterior angle is neither ſo thick, nor has ſo

rough a surface, as the inferior one; but the most remarkable of the three angles of this bone is the anterior one, which is of great thickness, and formed into a glenoid cavity of an oval shape, the greatest diameter of which is from below upwards. This cavity, in the recent subject, is furnished with cartilage, and receives the head of the os humeri. The cartilaginous crust, which surrounds its brims, makes it appear deeper in the fresh subject than in the skeleton. A little beyond this glenoid cavity the bone becomes narrower, so as to give the appearance of a neck; and above this rises a considerable process, which, from being thick at its origin, becomes thinner, and in some degree flattened at its extremity. This process projects considerably, and is curved downwards. From its supposed resemblance to the beak of a bird, it is called the *coracoid* process. From the whole external side of this process, a strong and broad ligament is stretched to the processus acromion, becoming narrower as it approaches the latter process, so as to be of a somewhat triangular shape. This ligament, and the two processes with which it is connected, are evidently intended for the protection of the joint, and to prevent a luxation of the os humeri upwards. Of the three sides of the scapula, the posterior one, which is the longest, is called the *basis*. This side is turned towards the vertebræ. Its other two sides are called *costæ*. The superior costa, which is the upper and shortest side, is likewise thinner than the other two, having a sharp edge. It is nearly horizontal, and parallel with the second rib; and is interrupted, near the basis of the coracoid process, by a semi-circular nitch, which is closed by a ligament that extends from one end of it to the other, and affords a passage to vessels and nerves. Besides this passage, there are other nitches in the scapula, for the transmission of vessels; viz. one between the coracoid process and the head of the bone, and another between its neck and the processus acromion. The third side of the scapula, or the inferior costa, as it is called, is of considerable thickness, and extends obliquely from the neck of the bone to its inferior angle, reaching from about the third to the eighth rib. The scapula has but very little cellular substance, and is of unequal thickness, being very thin at its middle part, where it is covered by a great number of muscles, and having its neck, the acromion, and coracoid process, of considerable strength. In the fœtus, the basis and the neck of the scapula, together with its glenoid cavity, acromion, coracoid process, and the ridge of the spine, are so many epiphyses with respect to the rest of the bone, to which they are not completely united till a considerable time after birth. The scapula is articulated to the clavicle and os humeri, to which last it serves as a fulcrum; and, by altering its position, it affords a greater scope to the bones of the arm in their different motions. It likewise affords attachment to a great number of muscles, and posteriorly serves as a defence to the thorax.

SCARBOROUGH WATER. There are two species of chalybeate water found in this spot, and they differ considerably in their composition, though they rise nearly contiguous to each other. The one is a simple carbonated chalybeate similar to the Tunbridge water; the other, which is better known and more frequented, and more particularly distinguished as Scarborough water, has, in conjunction with the iron, a considerable admixture of a purging salt, which adds much to its value. The diseases in which it is ordered are

similar to those in which Cheltenham water is prescribed, only it is necessary to increase the purgative effect of this water by adding similar salts. It is therefore chiefly as an alterative that this water can be employed in its natural state.

SCARF SKIN. See *Cuticle* and *Skin*.

SCARIFICATION. A superficial incision made with a lancet, or a chirurgical instrument called a scarificator.

SCARIŎLA. See *Lactuca sylvestris*.

SCARIŎLA GALLŌRUM. The lactuca scariola is sometimes so termed. See *Lactuca sylvestris*.

SCARLATĪNA, (*Scarlatina, æ*, f. from *scarlatto*, a lively red. Ital.). The scarlet fever. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexiæ* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen; characterized by contagious synocha; the fourth day the face swells; a scarlet eruption appears on the skin in patches; which after three or four days ends in the desquamation of the cuticle, or is succeeded by anasarca. It has two species: 1. *Scarlatina simplex*, the mild. 2. *Scarlatina cynanchica*, or *anginosa*, with ulcerated sore throat.

SCARLET FEVER. See *Scarlatina*.

SCATICA CRESSES. See *Iberis*.

SCHEROMA, (*Scheroma, atis*, n.). A dryness of the eye from the want of the lacrymal fluid. The effects of this lacrymal fluid being deficient, the eyes become dry, and in their motions produce a sensation as though sand, or some gritty substances, were between the eye and the eyelid; the vision is obscured, the globe of the eye appears foulish and dull, which is a bad omen in acute diseases. The species are, 1. *Scheroma febrile*, or a dryness of the eyes, which is observed in fevers, complicated with a phlogistic density of the humours. 2. *Scheroma exhaustorum*, which happens after great evacuations, and in persons dying. 3. *Scheroma inflammatorum*, which is a symptom of the opthalmia sicca. 4. *Scheroma itinerantium*, or the dryness of the eyes, which happens in sandy places to travellers, as in hot Syria, or from dry winds, which dries up the humidity necessary for the motion of the eyes.

SCIATĬCA, (*Sciatica, æ*, f.). *Ischias*. A rheumatic affection of the hip joint.

SCHOENANTHUS, (*Schoenanthus, i*, f. σχοινανθος; from σχοινος, a rush. and ανθος, a flower). Sweet rush, or camel's hay. See *Juncus odoratus*.

SCIATIC ARTERY. Ischiatic artery. A branch of the internal iliac.

SCIATIC NERVE. Ischiatic nerve. A branch of a nerve of the lower extremity, formed by the union of the lumbar and sacral nerves. It is divided near the popliteal cavity into the tibial and peroneal, which are distributed to the leg and foot.

SCIATIC NOTCH. Ischiatic notch. See *Innominatum os*.

SCILLA, (*Scilla, æ*, f. σκιλλα; from σκιλλω, to dry; so called from its properties of drying up humours). *Ornithogalum maritimum*. *Squilla*. Squill, or sea onion. *Scilla maritima* of Linnæus. *Scilla nudiflora, bracteis refractis*. Class *Hexandria*. Order *Monogynia*. A native of Spain, Sicily, and Syria, growing on the sea-coast. The red rooted variety has been supposed to be more efficacious than the white, and is therefore still preferred for medicinal use. The root of the squill, which appears to have been known as a medicine in the early ages of Greece, and has so well maintained its character ever since as to be deservedly in great estimation, and of very frequent use at this time, seems to manifest a poisonous quality to several animals. In proof

of this, we have the teſtimonies of Hilleſield, Bergius, Vogel, and others. Its acrimony is ſo great, that even if much handled it exulcerates the ſkin, and if given in large doſes, and frequently repeated, it not only excites nauſea, tormina, and violent vomiting, but it has been known to produce ſtrangury, bloody urine, hypercatharſis, cardialgia, hæmorrhoids, convulſions, with fatal inflammation, and gangrene of the ſtomach and bowels. But as many of the active articles of the materia medica, by injudicious adminiſtration, become equally deleterious, theſe effects of the ſcilla do not derogate from its medicinal virtues; on the contrary, we feel ourſelves fully warranted in repreſenting this drug, under proper management, and in certain caſes and conſtitutions, to be a medicine of great practical utility, and real importance in the cure of many obſtinate diſeaſes. Its effects, as ſtated by Bergius, are incidens, diuretica, emetica, ſubpurgans, hydrogoga, expectorans, emmenagoga. In hydropſical caſes it has long been eſteemed the moſt certain and effectual diuretic with which we are acquainted; and in aſthmatic affections, or dyſpnœa, occaſioned by the lodgment of tenaceous phlegm, it has been the expectorant uſually employed. The ſquill, eſpecially in large doſes, is apt to ſtimulate the ſtomach, and to prove emetic; and it ſometimes acts on the inteſtines, and becomes purgative; but when theſe operations take place, the medicine is prevented from reaching the blood veſſels and kidneys, and the patient is deprived of its diuretic effects, which are to be obtained by giving the ſquill in ſmaller doſes, repeated at more diſtant intervals, or by the joining of an opiate to this medicine, which was found by Dr. Cullen to anſwer the ſame purpoſe. The Doctor further obſerves, that from a continued repetition of the ſquill, the doſe may be gradually increaſed, and the intervals of its exhibitions ſhortened; and when in this way the doſes come to be tolerably large, the opiate may be moſt conveniently employed to direct the operation of the ſquill more certainly to the kidneys. "In caſes of dropſy, that is, when there is an effuſion of water into the cavities, and therefore that leſs water goes to the kidneys, we are of opinion that neutral ſalt, accompanying the ſquill, may be of uſe in determining this fluid more certainly to the kidneys; and whenever it can be perceived that it takes this courſe, we are perſuaded that it will be always uſeful, and generally ſafe, during the exhibition of the ſquills, to increaſe the uſual quantity of drink."

The diuretic effects of ſquills have been ſuppoſed to be promoted by the addition of ſome mercurial; and the leſs purgative preparations of mercury, in the opinion of Dr. Cullen, are beſt adapted to this purpoſe; he therefore recommends a ſolution of corroſive ſublimate, as being more proper than any other, becauſe moſt diuretic. Where the primæ viæ abound with mucous matter, and the lungs are oppreſſed with viſcid phlegm, this medicine is likewiſe in general eſtimation.

As an expectorant, the ſquill may be ſuppoſed not only to attenuate the mucous follicles to excite a more copious excretion of it from the lungs, and thereby leſſen the congeſtion, upon which the difficulty of reſpiration very generally depends. Therefore in all pulmonic affections, excepting only thoſe of actual or violent inflammation, ulcer, and ſpaſm, the ſquill has been experienced to be an uſeful medicine. The officinal preparations of ſquills are, a conſerve, dried ſquills, a ſyrup, and vinegar, an oxymel, and pills. Practitioners

have not, however, confined themſelves to theſe. When this root was intended as a diuretic, it has moſt commonly been uſed in powder, as being in this ſtate leſs diſpoſed to nauſeate the ſtomach; and to the powder it has been the practice to add neutral ſalts, as nitre, or cryſtals of tartar, eſpecially if the patient complained of much thirſt; others recommend calomel; and with a view to render the ſquills leſs offenſive to the ſtomach, it has been uſual to conjoin an aromatic. The doſe of dried ſquill is from two to four or ſix grains once a day, or half this quantity twice a day; afterwards to be regulated according to its effects. The doſe of the other preparations of this drug, when freſh, ſhould be four times this weight; for this root loſes in the proceſs of drying four fifths of its original weight, and this loſs is merely a watery exhalation.

Scilla maritima. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal ſquill. See *Scilla*.

Scincus, (*Scincus, i*, m. σκινκος; from *Shequè*, Heb.). The ſkink. This amphibious animal is of the lizard kind, and caught about the Nile, and thence brought dried into this country, remarkably ſmooth and gloſſy, as if varniſhed. The fleſh of the animal, particularly of the belly, has been ſaid to be diuretic, alexipharmic, aphrodiſac, and uſeful in leprous diſorders.

Schirrus, (*Schirrus, i*, m. σκιῤῥος; from σκιῤῥοω, to harden). A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *tumores* of Cullen; known by a hard tumour of a glandular part, indolent, and not readily ſuppurating. The following obſervations of Mr. Pearſon are deſerving of attention. A ſchirrus, he ſays, is uſually defined to be, a hard, and almoſt inſenſible tumor, commonly ſituated in a glandular part, and accompanied with little or no diſcolouration of the ſurface of the ſkin. This deſcription agrees with the true or exquiſite ſchirrus; but when it has proceeded from the indolent to the malignant ſtate, the tumor is then unequal in its figure, it becomes painful, the ſkin acquires a purple or livid hue, and the cutaneous veins are often varicoſe. Let us now examine whether this enumeration of ſymptoms be ſufficiently accurate for practical purpoſes.

"A glandular part." It is probable, that any gland in the living body may be the ſeat of a cancerous diſeaſe; but it appears more frequently as an idiopathic affection in thoſe glands that form the ſeveral ſecretions than in the abſorbent glands: and of the ſecreting organs, thoſe which ſeparate fluids that are to be employed in the animal economy, ſuffer much oftner than the glands which ſecrete the excrementitious parts of the blood. Indeed, it may be doubted whether an abſorbent gland be ever the primary ſeat of a true ſchirrus. Daily experience evinces, that theſe glands may ſuffer contamination from their connection with a cancerous part; but under ſuch circumſtances, this morbid alteration being the effect of a diſeaſe in that neighbouring part, it ought to be regarded as a ſecondary or conſequent affection. I never yet met with an unequivocal proof of a primary ſchirrhus in an abſorbent gland; and if a larger experience ſhall confirm this obſervation, and eſtabliſh it as a general rule, it will afford material aſſiſtance in forming the diagnoſis of this diſeaſe. The general term ſcirrhus hath been applied, with too little diſcrimination, to indurated tumors of lymphatic glands. When theſe appendages of the abſorbent ſyſtem enlarge in the early part of life, the diſeaſe is commonly treated as ſtrumous; but as a ſimilar alteration of theſe parts may, and often

does occur at a more advanced period, there ought to be ſome very good reaſons for aſcribing malignity to one rather than the other. In old people the tumor is indeed often larger, more indurated, and leſs tractable than in children; but when the alteration originated in the lymphatic glands, it will very rarely be found to poſſeſs any thing cancerous in its nature.

If every other morbid alteration in a part were attended with pain and ſoftneſs, then induration and defective ſenſibility might point out the preſence of a ſcirrhus. But this is ſo far from being the caſe, that even encyſted tumors, at their commencement, frequently excite the ſenſation of impenetrable hardneſs. All glands are contained in capſulæ, not very elaſtic, ſo that almoſt every ſpecies of chronic enlargement of theſe bodies muſt be hard; hence this induration is rather owing to the ſtructure of the part, than to the peculiar nature of the diſeaſe: and as glands in their healthy ſtate are not endowed with much ſenſibility, every diſeaſe that gradually produces induration, will rather diminiſh than increaſe their perceptive powers. Induration and inſenſibility may therefore prove that the affected part does not labour under an acute diſeaſe; but theſe ſymptoms alone can yield no certain information concerning the true nature of the morbid alteration. Thoſe indolent affections of the glands that ſo frequently appear after the meridian of life, commonly manifeſt a hardneſs and want of ſenſation, not inferior to that which accompanies a true ſcirrhus; and yet theſe tumors will often admit of a cure by the ſame mode of treatment, which we find to be ſucceſsful in ſcrophula; and when they prove unconquerable by the powers of medicine, we generally ſee them continue ſtationary and innocent to the lateſt period of life. Writers have indeed ſaid much about certain tumors changing their nature, and aſſuming a new character; but I ſtrongly ſuſpect, that the doctrine of the mutation of diſeaſes into each other, ſtands upon a very uncertain foundation. Improper treatment may, without doubt, exaſperate diſeaſes, and render a complaint which appeared to be mild and tractable, dangerous or deſtructive; but to aggravate the ſymptoms, and to change the form of the diſeaſe, are things that ought not to be confounded. I do not affirm, that a breaſt which has been the ſeat of a mammary abſceſs, or a gland that has been affected with ſcrophula, may not become cancerous; for they might have ſuffered from this diſeaſe had no previous complaint exiſted; but theſe morbid alterations generate no greater tendency to cancer than if the parts had always retained their natural condition. There is no neceſſary connection between the cancer and any other diſeaſe, nor has it ever been clearly proved that one is convertible into the other.

Chirurgical writers have generally enumerated tumor as an eſſential ſymptom of the ſcirrhus; and it is very true, that this diſeaſe is often accompanied with an increaſe of bulk in the part affected. From long and careful obſervation, I am however induced to think, that an addition to the quantity of matter is rather an accidental than a neceſſary conſequence of the preſence of this peculiar affection.

When the breaſt is the ſeat of a ſcirrhus, the altered part is hard, perhaps unequal in its figure, and definite; but theſe ſymptoms are not always connected with an actual increaſe in the dimenſions of the breaſt. On the contrary, the true ſcirrhus is frequently accompanied with a contrac-

tion and diminution of bulk, a retraction of the nipple, and a puckered ſtate of the ſkin.

The irritation produced by an indurated ſubſtance lying in the breaſt, will very often cauſe a determination of blood to that organ, and a conſequent enlargement of it; but I conſider this as an inflammatory ſtate of the ſurrounding parts, excited by the ſcirrhus, acting as a remote cauſe, and by no means eſſential to the original complaint. From the evident utility of topical blood-letting under theſe circumſtances a notion has prevailed, that the ſcirrhus is an inflammatory diſeaſe; but the ſtrongly marked diſſimilarity of a phlegmon and an exquiſite ſcirrhus, in their appearances, progreſs, and mode of termination, obliges me to diſſent from that opinion. That one portion of the breaſt may be in a ſcirrhous ſtate, while the other parts are in a ſtate of inflammation, is agreeable to reaſon and experience; but that an inflammation, which is an acute diſeaſe, and a ſcirrhus, whoſe eſſential characters are almoſt directly the reverſe of inflammation, ſhall be co-exiſtent in the ſame part, is not a very intelligible propoſition. Tumor and inflammation are commonly met with on a variety of other occaſions, and in this particular inſtance they may be the effects of the diſeaſe, but are not eſſentially connected with its preſence.

An incipient ſcirrhus is ſeldom accompanied with a diſcolouration of the ſkin; and a duſky redneſs, purple, or even livid appearance of the ſurface, is commonly ſeen when there is a malignant ſcirrhus. The preſence or abſence of colour can, however, at the beſt, afford us but a very precarious criterion of the true nature of the complaint. When the diſeaſe is clearly known, an altered ſtate of the ſkin may aſſiſt us in judging of the progreſs it has made; but as the ſkin may ſuffer ſimilar variations in a number of very diſſimilar diſeaſes, it would be improper to found an opinion upon ſo deluſive a phenomenon."

SCLARĔA, (*Sclarea, æ*, fron σκλερος, hard; becauſe its ſtalks are hard and dry, Blanch). The garden clary. See *Salvia ſclarea.*

SCLEROTIC COAT, (*Tunica ſclerotica*; from σκληροω, to harden; ſo called from its hardneſs). The outermoſt coat of the eye, of a white colour, denſe, and tenacious. Its anterior part, which is tranſparent, is termed the *cornea tranſparens.* It is into this coat of the eye that the muſcles of the bulb are inſerted.

SCOLOPENDRĬA. The ſpleenwort or miltwaſte is ſometimes ſo called. See *Ceterach.*

SCOLOPENDRĬUM, (*Scolopendrium, i*, n. σκολοπενδριον; from σκολοπενδρα, the earwig; ſo called becauſe its leaves reſemble the earwig). *Phyllitis. Lingua cervina.* Harts-tongue. This indigenous plant, *Aſplenium ſcolopendrium; frondibus ſimplicibus cordato-lingulatis integerrimis ſtilibus hirſutis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Cryptogamia.* Order *Filices:* grows on moſt ſhady banks, walls, &c. It has a ſlightly aſtringent and mucilaginous ſweetiſh taſte. When freſh and rubbed, it imparts a diſagreeable ſmell. Harts-tongue, and the *five capillary* herbs, of which it is one, was formerly much uſed to ſtrengthen the viſcera, reſtrain hæmorrhages and alvine fluxes, and to open obſtructions of the liver and ſpleen, and for the general purpoſes of demulcents and pectorals.

SCOLYMUS, (*Scolymus, i*, m. σκολυμος; from σκολος, a thorn; ſo named from its prickly leaves). The artichoke is ſometime ſo called. See *Cinara.*

SCOPA REGĬA. The butcher's

broom, or knee-holly was formerly ſo termed. See *Ruſcus*.

Scorbutus, (*Scorbutus*, *i*, m. from *ſchorboet*, Germ.). The ſcurvy. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ* and order *impetigines* of Cullen; characterized by extreme debility; complexion pale and bloated; ſpongy gums; livid ſpots on the ſkin; breath offenſive; œdematous ſwellings in the legs; hæmorrhages; foul ulcers; fetid urine; and extremely offenſive ſtools. The ſcurvy is a diſeaſe of a putrid nature, much more prevalent in cold climates than in warm ones, and which chiefly affects ſailors, and ſuch as are ſhut up in beſieged places, owing, as is ſuppoſed, to their being deprived of freſh proviſions, and a due quantity of aceſcent food, aſſiſted by the prevalence of cold and moiſture, and by ſuch other cauſes as depreſs the nervous energy, as indolence, confinement, want of exerciſe, neglect of cleanlineſs, much labour and fatigue, ſadneſs, deſpondency, &c. Theſe ſeveral debilitating cauſes, with the concurrence of a diet conſiſting principally of ſalted or putreſcent food, will be ſure to produce this diſeaſe. It ſeems, however, to depend more on a defect of nouriſhment, than on a vitiated ſtate; and the reaſon that ſalted proviſions are ſo productive of the ſcurvy, is, moſt probably, becauſe they are drained of their nutritious juices, which are extracted and run off in brine. As the diſeaſe is apt to become pretty general amongſt the crew of a ſhip when it has once made its appearance, it has been ſuppoſed by many to be of a contagious nature; but the conjecture ſeems by no means well founded.

A preternatural ſaline ſtate of the blood has been aſſigned as its proximate cauſe. It has been contended by ſome phyſicians, that the primary morbid affection in this diſeaſe is a debilitated ſtate of the ſolids, ariſing principally from the want of aliment.

The ſcurvy comes on gradually, with heavineſs, wearineſs, and unwillingneſs to move about, together with dejection of ſpirits, conſiderable loſs of ſtrength, and debility. As it advances in its progreſs, the countenance becomes ſallow and bloated, reſpiration is hurried on the leaſt motion, the teeth become looſe, the gums are ſpongy, the breath is very offenſive, livid ſpots appear on different parts of the body, old wounds which have been long healed up break out afreſh, ſevere wandering pains are felt, particularly by night, the ſkin is dry, the urine ſmall in quantity, turning blue vegetable infuſions of a green colour; and the pulſe is ſmall, frequent, and, towards the laſt, intermitting; but the intellects are, for the moſt part, clear and diſtinct.

By an aggravation of the ſymptoms, the diſeaſe, in its laſt ſtage, exhibits a moſt wretched appearance. The joints become ſwelled and ſtiff, the tendons of the legs are rigid and contracted, general emaciation enſues, hæmorrhages break forth from different parts, fetid evacuations are diſcharged by ſtool, and a diarrhœa or dyſentery ariſes, which ſoon terminates the tragic ſcene.

Scurvy, as uſually met with on ſhore, or where the perſon has not been expoſed to the influence of the remote cauſes before enumerated, is unattended by any violent ſymptoms, as ſlight blotches, with ſcaly eruptions on different parts of the body, and a ſponginеſs of the gums, are the chief ones to be obſerved.

In forming our judgment as to the event of the diſeaſe, we are to be directed by the violence of the ſymptoms, by the ſituation of the patient with reſpect to a vegetable diet, or other proper ſubſtitutes, by his for-

mer ſtate of health, and by his conſtitution not having been impaired by previous diſeaſes.

Diſſections of ſcurvy have always diſcovered the blood to be in a very diſſolved ſtate. The thorax uſually contains more or leſs of a watery fluid, which, in many caſes, poſſeſſes ſo high a degree of acrimony, as to excoriate the hands by coming in contact with it; the cavity of the abdomen contains the ſame kind of fluid; the lungs are black and putrid; and the heart itſelf has been found in a ſimilar ſtate, with its cavity filled with a corrupted fluid. In many inſtances, the epiphyſes have been found divided from the bones, the cartilages ſeparated from the ribs, and ſeveral of the bones themſelves diſſolved by caries. The brain ſeldom ſhews any marks of diſeaſe.

SCORDĬUM, (*Scordium, i*, n. σκορδιον; from σκορδον, garlic; ſo called becauſe it ſmells like garlic). *Triſſago paluſtris. Chamædrys paluſtris.* Water germander. *Teucrium ſcordium* of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have a ſmell ſomewhat of the garlic kind, from which circumſtance it is ſuppoſed to take its name, σκορδον ſignifying garlic: to the taſte they are bitteriſh and ſlightly pungent. The plant was formerly in high eſtimation, but is now juſtly fallen into diſuſe, although recommended by ſome in antiſeptic cataplaſms and fomentations.

SCORĬÆ, (*Scoria, æ*, f. from σκωρ, excrement). Droſs. The refuſe or uſeleſs parts of any ſubſtance.

SCORZONĒRA, (*Scorzonera, æ*, f. from *eſcorzo*, a ſerpent, Span.; ſo called becauſe it is ſaid to be effectual againſt the bite of all venemous animals). *Viperaria. Serpentaria hiſpanica.* Vipers graſs. The roots of this plant, *Scorzonera humilis*; *caule ſubnudo, unifloro*; *foliis lato-lanceolatis, nervoſis, planis*, of Linnæus, are ſometimes employed medicinally as alexipharmics, and in hypochondriacal diſorders and obſtructions of the viſcera. The *Scorzonera hiſpanica* moſtly ſupplies the ſhops, whoſe root is eſculent, oleraceous, and againſt diſeaſes inefficacious.

SCORZONERA HISPANĬCA. The ſyſtematic name of the eſculent vipers graſs.

SCORZONERA HUMĬLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal vipers graſs. See *Scorzonera.*

SCROBĬCŬLUS CORDIS, (*Scrobiculus, i*, m. dim. of *ſcrobs*, a ditch). The pit of the ſtomach.

SCROFŬLA, (*Scrofula, æ*, f. from *ſcrofula*, a ſwine; becauſe this animal is ſaid to be much ſubject to a ſimilar diſorder). *Struma.* Scrophula. The king's evil. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ* and order *impetigines* of Cullen. Scrophula conſiſts in hard indolent tumors of the conglobate glands in various parts of the body; but particularly in the neck, behind the ears, and under the chin, which after a time ſuppurate and degenerate into ulcers, from which, inſtead of pus, a white curdled matter, ſomewhat reſembling the coagulum of milk is diſcharged.

The firſt appearance of the diſeaſe is moſt uſually between the third and ſeventh year of the child's age; but it may ariſe at any period between theſe and the age of puberty; after which it ſeldom makes its firſt attack. It moſt commonly affects children of a lax habit, with ſmooth fine ſkins, fair hair, and roſy cheeks. It likewiſe is apt to attack ſuch children as ſhew a diſpoſition to rachites, and marked by a protuberant forehead, enlarged joints, and a tumid abdomen. Like this diſeaſe, it ſeems to be peculiar to cold and variable climates, being rarely met with in warm ones. Scrophula is by no means a contagious diſeaſe; but, be-

yond all doubt, is of an hereditary nature, and is often entailed by parents on their children. There are, indeed, ſome practitioners who wholly deny that this, or any other diſeaſe, can be acquired by an hereditary right; but that a peculiar temperament of body, or prediſpoſition in the conſtitution to ſome diſeaſes, may extend from both father and mother to their offspring, is very clearly proved. For example, we very frequently meet with gout in young perſons of both ſexes, who could never have brought it on by intemperance, ſenſuality, or improper diet, but muſt have acquired the prediſpoſition to it in this way.

Where there is any prediſpoſition in the conſtitution to ſcrophula, and the perſon happens to contract a venereal taint, this frequently excites into action the cauſes of the former; as a venereal bubo not unfrequently becomes ſcrophulous, as ſoon as the virus is deſtroyed by mercury. The late Dr. Cullen ſuppoſed ſcrophula to depend upon a peculiar conſtitution of the lymphatic ſyſtem. The attacks of the diſeaſe ſeem much affected or influenced by the periods of the ſeaſons. They begin uſually ſome time in the winter and ſpring, and often diſappear, or are greatly amended, in ſummer and autumn. The firſt appearance of the diſorder is commonly in that of ſmall oval or ſpherical tumors under the ſkin, unattended by any pain or diſcolouration. Theſe appear, in general, upon the ſides of the neck, below the ear, or under the chin; but, in ſome caſes, the joints of the elbows or ankles, or thoſe of the fingers and toes, are the parts firſt affected. In theſe inſtances, we do not, however, find ſmall moveable ſwellings; but, on the contrary, a tumor almoſt uniformly ſurrounding the joint, and interrupting its motion.

After ſome length of time the tumors become larger and more fixed, the ſkin which covers them acquires a purple or livid colour, and, being much inflamed, they at laſt ſuppurate and break into little holes, from which, at firſt, a matter ſomewhat puriform oozes out; but this changes by degrees into a kind of viſcid ſerous diſcharge, much intermixed with ſmall pieces of a white ſubſtance, reſembling the curd of milk.

The tumors ſubſide gradually, whilſt the ulcers at the ſame time open more, and ſpread unequally in various directions. After a time, ſome of the ulcers heal; but other tumors quickly form in different parts of the body, and proceed on, in the ſame ſlow manner as the former ones, to ſuppuration. In this manner the diſeaſe goes on for ſome years, and appearing at laſt to have exhauſted itſelf, all the ulcers heal up, without being ſucceeded by any freſh ſwellings; but leaving behind them an ugly puckering of the ſkin, and a ſcar of conſiderable extent. This is the moſt mild form under which ſcrophula ever appears. In more virulent caſes, the eyes are particularly the ſeat of the diſeaſe, and are affected with ophthalmia, giving riſe to ulcerations in the tarſi, and inflammation of the tunica adnata, terminating not unfrequently in an opacity of the tranſparent cornea.

In ſimilar caſes, the joints become affected, they ſwell and are incommoded by excruciating deep-ſeated pain, which is much increaſed upon the ſlighteſt motion. The ſwelling and pain continuing to increaſe, the muſcles of the limb become at length much waſted. Matter is ſoon afterwards formed, and this is diſcharged at ſmall openings made by the burſting of the ſkin. Being, however, of a peculiar acrimonious nature, it erodes the ligaments and cartilages, and produces a caries of the neighbouring bones. By an ab-

ſorption of the matter into the ſyſtem, hectic fever at laſt ariſes, and, in the end, often proves fatal.

When ſcrophula is confined to the external ſurface, it is by no means attended with danger, although on leaving one part, it is apt to be renewed in others; but when the ulcers are imbued with a ſharp acrimony, ſpread, erode, and become deep, without ſhewing any diſpoſition to heal; when deep-ſeated collections of matter form amongſt the ſmall bones of the hands and feet, or in the joints; or tubercles in the lungs, with hectic fever, ariſe, the conſequences will be fatal.

On opening the bodies of perſons who have died of this diſeaſe, many of the viſcera are uſually found in a diſeaſed ſtate, but more particularly the glands of the meſentery, which are not only much tumefied, but often ulcerated. The lungs are frequently diſcovered bent, with a number tubercles or cyſts, which contain matter of various kinds. Scrophulous glands, on being examined by diſſection, feel ſomewhat ſofter to the touch than in their natural ſtate, and when laid open, they are uſually found to contain a ſoft curdy matter, mixed with pus.

SCROPHŬLARĬA, (*Scrophularia, æ*, f. from *ſcrofula*, the king's evil; ſo called from the unequal tubercles upon its roots, like ſcrophulous tumors). The fig-wort.

SCROPHŬLARĬA AQUATĬCA. See *Betonica aquatica.*

SCROPHŬLARĬA MINOR. The pile-wort is ſometimes ſo called. See *Chelidonium minus.*

SCROPHŬLARĬA NODŌSA. The ſyſtematic name of the fig-wort. See *Scrophularia vulgaris.*

SCROPHŬLARĬA VULGĀRIS. *Millemorbia. Scrophularia.* Common fig-wort or kernel-wort. The root and leaves of this plant, *Scrophularia nodoſa; foliis cordatis, trinervatis; caule obtuſangulo* of Linnæus, have been celebrated both as an internal and external remedy againſt inflammations, the piles, ſcrophulous tumors, and old ulcers; but they are now only uſed in this country by the country people.

SCROTAL HERNIA. *Hernia ſcrotalis.* A protruſion of any part of an abdominal viſcus or viſcera into the ſcrotum. See *Hernia.*

SCROTUM, (*Scrotum, i*, n. *quaſi ſcortum*, a ſkin or hide). The common integuments which cover the teſticles.

SCURF, (*Furfura, æ*, f.). Small exfoliations of the cuticle, which take place after ſome eruptions on the ſkin, a new cuticle being formed underneath during the exfoliation.

SCURVY. See *Scorbutus.*

SCURVY GRASS. See *Cochlearia hortenſis.*

SCURVY GRASS, LEMON. See *Cochlearia hortenſis.*

SCURVY GRASS, SCOTCH. The *Convolvulus ſoldanella* of Linnæus. See *Braſſica marina.*

SCUTELLARĬA GALERICŬLĀTA. The ſyſtematic of the ſkull-cap. See *Tertianaria.*

SCUTIFORM CARTILAGE. See *Thyroid cartilage.*

SEA HOLLY. See *Eryngium.*

SEA MOSS. See *Corallina.*

SEA OAK. See *Quercus marina.*

SEA ONION. See *Scilla.*

SEA SALT. See *Murias ſodæ.*

SEA WATER. This is arranged amongſt the ſimple ſaline waters. Its chemical analyſis gives a proportion of 1 of ſaline contents to about 23$\frac{1}{4}$ of water; but on our ſhores it is not greater than 1 of ſalt to about 30 of water. Sea water on the Britiſh coaſt may, therefore, be calculated to contain in the wine pint, of muriated ſoda 186,5 grains, of muriated magneſia 51, of ſelenite 6 grains; total 243$\frac{1}{2}$ grains, or half an ounce and 3$\frac{1}{2}$ grains of ſaline contents. The

disorders for which the internal use of sea water has been and may be resorted to, are in general the same for which all the simple saline waters may be used, as above. The peculiar power of sea water and sea salt as a discutient, employed either internally or externally in scrophulous habits, is well known, and is attended with considerable advantage when judiciously applied.

SEA WRACK. See *Quercus marina.*

SEALED EARTHS. See *Terra sigillata.*

SEBACEOUS GLANDS, (*Glandulæ sebaceæ*, from *sebum*, suet). Glands which secrete a sebaceous or suetty humour.

SEBADILLA. See *Cevadilla.*

SEBESTEN, (*Sebesten*, ind. σεβεστον, an Egyptian word). The dark black fruit of the *Cordia myxa*; *foliis ovatis, subra glabris*; *corymbis lateralibus*; *calycibus decemstriatis* of Linnæus. It possesses glutinous and aperient qualities, and is exhibited in form of decoction in various diseases of the chest, hoarseness, cough, difficult respiration, &c.

SECĀLE, (*Secale, is*, n.) Rye. The seed of the *Secale cerealæ* of Linnæus. It is principally used as an article of diet, and in the northern countries of Europe is employed for affording an ardent spirit.

SECĀLE CEREĀLE. The systematic name of the rye plant. See *Secale.*

SECRETION, (*Secretio, onis*, f.). A function by which different organs separate from the blood substances destined for particular uses; as, the bile in the liver, saliva in the mouth, &c.

The fluids which, being deposited from the blood into other vessels, are said to be secreted, seem reducible to four classes. The *first* consists of viscid fluids, coagulable by a heat of about 150 degrees, by alkohol, and by strong acids; although generally, in the living animal, they escape in the form of vapour, and after death are compacted into a gelatinous substance. To this class belong the liquor and halitus of the ventricles of the brain, of the pericardium, pleura, peritoneum, tunica vaginalis, amnios, joints, renal capsules, and probably of the womb, with the juices of the stomach and intestines, and lastly the lymph of the body.

The *second* class consists of fluids, of which some, in like manner, are exhaled, but more simple than the former, and more aqueous, are not coagulable by fire or by spirits of wine; and others are not exhaled, but, being deposited in their respective excretory ducts, are excreted in their proper places by the common outlet of some gland. To the former of this class belong the perspirable matter of the skin, part of the tears, and the watery humour of the eye. To the latter of this class belong the remaining part of the tears, the saliva, pancreatic juice, and the urine. The sweat seems to be a mixture of the perspirable matter and the subcutaneous oil.

The *third* class differs from both the preceding, being heavier than water, sluggish and viscid, but of an aqueous nature, not congealable into a jelly, but hardening into dry crusts by exhaling their water. These do not effervesce with any salt, but are contracted and made thicker by acids. By lixivial salts they are dissolved. By fire they are resolved into water, a little volatile salt, and a little oil. Of this kind are the whole mucus in the human body, extending over all the internal passages for air, aliments, or urine, and the cavities of the genital parts; and semen.

The *last* class is that of the inflammable juices, which, when recent, are indeed thin and watery, but, by stagnation and by evaporating their

water, become thick, oily, inflammable, and often bitter liniments. To this claſs we refer the bile, earwax, tallow, the oily liniment of the ſkin, the marrow in the bones, and all the fat throughout the human body; and caſtor, and the yolk of the egg. The milk itſelf, ſo far as it contains butter, belongs to this claſs.

Other humours are compounded of theſe which we have deſcribed as ſimple: as the milk, of butter and water; and the liniments of the joints, of lymph and fat.

Whoever conſiders, that in the blood are found a coagulable ſerum, an exhaling water, a ſort of viſcid mucus, and laſtly an oil, will begin to perceive the perfect poſſibility of the foregoing claſſes of humours being ſeparated from the blood, ſince their principles exiſt in the ſanguineous maſs. But in what manner it is brought about, that oil is ſeparated from the blood in one part, water in another, and mucus in a third, remains to be explained, and requires a deſcription of the ſecretory organs.

The coagulable juices are ſeparated almoſt every where, from the arteries themſelves, into excretory canals, continuous with the arteries, without any intermediate organ. The proof of this we have from injections of glue, water, and thin oils, which very readily exude from the red arteries, and are poured out into all the cavities in which that coagulable vapour is naturally found, without meeting with any intermediate knots or retarding cells. Finally, the blood itſelf, being poured out into moſt of theſe cavities, without any permanent leſion, in conſequence of ſtagnation, retardation, or ſmall increaſe of impetus, ſhows plainly that the paſſage betwixt the red blood-veſſels and thoſe excretory ducts is neither long nor difficult, and that the yellow ſerum does not differ much from blood.

Another liquid, coagulable by acid ſpirits and alkohol, is the albuminous humour of the joints, which being compoſed of fat, medullary oil, and watery exhalation, conſtitutes an exceedingly ſoft liniment, very fit for lubricating the cartilages, and leſſening friction. For ſecreting this, there is a particular arrangement of ſmall arteries, which are ſo ſituated in the rough pits of the articulations of the bones, that they may be moderately compreſſed, but cannot be cruſhed.

The ſtructure of theſe glands, as they are called, is peculiar. The larger cluſters adhere, for the moſt part, to the bone by a broad baſis wrapped up in fat. Thence, being extenuated into a creſted edge, they pour out their liquor from an exceedingly thin border, by open ducts, which however I do not find very evident. Other ſmaller ones, placed every where in the capſules of the tendons, and between the diverging fibres of the ligamentary capſules of the joints, ſeem to be almoſt of the nature of ſimple glands, and are turgid with yellow mucous ſerum.

The uncoagulable juices of the firſt ſort are ſecreted in the ſame manner with the coagulable ones; to wit, from exhaling arteries, which ariſe from the red arteries, without any intermediate follicle. In the veſſels, which exhale the cutaneous perſpiration, and in the lachrymal veſſels of the firſt ſort having a watery fluid; injections of water, or thin ſize, exude from the arteries, ſo as to remove every doubt of this. Theſe arteries are alſo irritable, ſo that, from the contact of an acrid ſubſtance, they diſcharge more juice in a given time, than in a ſtate of health.

But in the latter kind, the ſalival,

the ſecretion is made by means of conglomerate glands, which the antients firſt diſtinguiſhed by their cluſter-like fabric, and eſteemed glands. Theſe are compoſed of acini or roundiſh lobules, conjoined together into a larger maſs, by looſe cellular ſubſtance, which is often covered externally by ſome denſe cellular membrane, as a common envelope, as in the parotid and maxillary glands. Through the intervals, betwixt the cluſters, run the arteries, which are here pretty large, and the veins. But moſt of the conglomerate glands ſeparate their fluids from the blood, and diſcharge it in the following manner: each acinus ſends out an excretory duct, which joins with others of the ſame kind, into a larger trunk, forming at laſt, in the manner of veins, one canal, which conveys the humour, ſeparated by the gland, to the part for which it is deſigned, as the cavity of the mouth, inteſtines, ſurface of the eyes, &c. There are, indeed, ſome inſtances, in which either there are no excretory ducts, or they have not hitherto been diſcovered; as the thyroid gland, capſulæ renales, and thymus, unleſs theſe approach to the nature of conglobate glands.

The acini themſelves are ſurrounded and limited by ſome firm cellular ſubſtance; and are alſo ſubdivided into leſſer acinuli, as is evident to the eye, and by the microſcope. How does this ſubdiviſion end? Is every ſimple acinus hollow in its middle, receiving the humour tranſuding from the arteries in a follicle, and ſending it out by an excretory duct? Is this ſtructure rendered probable by eruptions, hydatids, and the kidneys filled with round ſchirri? Are the larger viſcera, appointed for ſecretion, conglomerated glands? Is this opinion made probable from the morbid round concretions formed in the liver, ſpleen, kidneys, teſticles, and cortical ſubſtance of the brain; or from the bunch-like appearance which thoſe viſcera have in ſmaller animals? In the cellular ſubſtance that ſurrounds every part of the human body, even the extreme veſſels, are there hollow ſpaces and cells, into which a ſecreted humour is poured?

Nothing of this kind ſeems to be the caſe. For, indeed, the acini compoſing the viſcera of animals, are not elementary, but compounded, and large in proportion to the animals. The morbid concretions are almoſt all of them ſeated in the cellular ſubſtance, and in the limbs themſelves, where there is not the leaſt room to ſuſpect any thing of a glandular fabric; and are compoſed of oil, earth, and vaporous particles, extravaſated into ſome of the cellular cavities, where, ſtagnating and compreſſing the adjacent follicles, they form to themſelves proper membranous tunics. Beſides, the watery and fluid nature of the juice ſecreted in theſe glands is an argument that, during its ſecretion, it met with no retardation, no place in which it ſtagnated. For the fluids which remain at reſt in the warm cavities of the human body, which are full of abſorbing veſſels, are all inſpiſſated, and approach either towards a mucous or an oily nature. Moreover, anatomical injections would meet with more difficulty in paſſing from the arteries into the excretory ducts; which would be impervious to thick injections, and thin ones would be exhaled into the cellular ſubſtance. Yet we ſee, that the ſuperlative art of great anatomiſts has conveyed thick injections, like wax, directly from the arteries of the ſalivary glands, liver, &c. into continuous excretory ducts; and this without filling up any intermediate cavities, which, according to the foregoing hypotheſis, ſhould happen.

Therefore, the acini appear to be compoſed of arteries and veins, divid-

ed and ſubdivided, parted and connected by the intervention of a good deal of cellular ſubſtance, which, becoming gradually more compact, aſſumes a ſpheroidal figure. This is ſupported, by analogy, in the lobes of the lungs, in the lobules of the thymus, in the ſtructure of inſects; but more eſpecially in the teſticle, of which the lobules are evidently formed of excretory ducts, connected together into faſciculi by a very ſoft membrane. The glands do not ſeem to pour their fluids into cellular ſubſtance, as by it the paſſage to the excretory ducts would be obſtructed or prevented. The induſtry of anatomiſts has lately diſcovered very ſmall, white, cylindric veſſels, the real elements of the viſcera; and it is to be hoped that this diſcovery will be confirmed by future obſervations.

Thin fluids, neither coagulable nor exhaling, but aqueous, are likewiſe generated in other parts, without the aſſiſtance of conglomerate acinous glands. Thus, the urine is depoſited from the red arteries into membranous tubes, manifeſtly continuous, in a manner which readily admits the paſſage of air, water, or mercury. The nervous fluid ſeems to be ſecreted in the brain, in a ſimilar, though leſs apparent, manner.

The third claſs of fluids, the mucous, is almoſt every where ſecreted from ſinuſes or hollow glands. The ſtructure of true glands or follicles, in general, conſiſts of an ample cavity, every where circumſcribed by a membrane; but in ſuch a manner, that the fleſh itſelf of the part, to which the gland adheres, ſometimes forms the one ſide, and completes the hemiſphere of the follicle. In other places, a continued membrane forms the whole of the round or oval receptacle of the gland. The cavity is in general round; but ſometimes it is oblong, and ſituated obliquely betwixt the adjacent parts; as, for example, in the urethra of the male, and in the follicles of the ſinus muliebris. They are irritable; and, when ſtimulated by acrid ſubſtances, accelerate their ſecretions.

Into theſe follicles, minute arteries either from the fleſh in which it is ſeated, or from the membrane which conſtitutes its convex ſide, open by extremities extended into the cavity of each crypta, into which they pour their reſpective juice; after being received into the follicle, it is detained from the narrowneſs of the excretory duct, and inſpiſſated, the more watery parts being abſorbed by the veins, which correſpond to the exhaling arteries. The truth of this we are taught from the ſtructure of the ſimple follicles obſervable in the tongue, in which both the importing pores, and the excretory ducts, are even viſible to the eye; and from the tubuli of the ſtomach of birds, in which the ſecreting villi manifeſtly protrude into the cavity; and laſtly from injections, which force wax colourleſs into the ſimple glands.

The long mucous ſinuſes, and round glands, are both furniſhed with excretory ducts, which, for the moſt part, are ſufficiently large; although in the round glands, they bear no great proportion to the cavity of the gland. Theſe orifices often open into the common large cavity, into which the mucus is poured, without any intermediate duct; as in the back of the tongue, and in the ſimple glands of the ſtomach and inteſtines. Theſe have been denominated cryptæ by Ruyſch. The ſinuſes have often a ſimilar ſtructure, and open, without an intervening duct, as in the urethra of the male.

In another kind of theſe glands there are many ſimple follicles contained in one common covering which open with ample orifices into one common ſinus, without any tru-

excretory duct, as in the tonſils.—Theſe are called conglomerate glands.

Other ſimple glands have an excretory duct, by which they excrete their mucus; namely, a membranous cylindric, narrow veſſel, opening with its poſterior orifice into the cavity of the gland, and with its anterior orifice into the common cavity for which its mucus is deſigned. Theſe excretory ducts are of conſiderable length in the ſubcutaneous and ſebaceous glands, and in thoſe of the palate and wind-pipe. In ſome parts, the pore and duct are more eaſily demonſtrable than the follicle, as in the noſtrils, larynx, rectum, &c.

In other places, ſeveral of theſe ducts, ariſing each from its reſpective follicle, run together like the branches of a vein, ſo as to form one conſiderable excretory canal, common to a number of follicles. To this kind belong the compound glands of the inteſtines, and the blind ſinus at the root of the tongue, of the claſs of glands; and of the ſinuſes, ſome compound ſinuſes of the urethra, and the tubulous fibres of the ſtomachs of fiſhes and of birds. Glands of this ſort may be ſaid to be compounded of ſimple ones; but where they lie only contiguous, they may be called aggregate or congregated glands; as are thoſe of the fauces, ſtomach, inteſtines, &c.

The inflammable juices are ſeparated by organs differing in their fabric. The fat and marrow are depoſited into cellular ſubſtance, without the intervention of glands, from the ſmall mouths of the arteries. The ſubcutaneous fat every where exudes through ſmall ducts and pores, without any glandular follicles. But the ear-wax and cutaneous ſuet are ſecreted by glands of different kinds. Many of the ſebaceous glands are viſible with a naked mouth in the ſkin, and without a duct of any length; as we ſee in the ears, areolæ of the nipples, in the female nymphæ, and the groove betwixt them and the labia, and in the prepuce of the penis and clitoris. Theſe differ but little from the cryptæ, except in the matter which they ſecrete.

There are others of the ſebaceous glands, which have an excretory duct of ſome length; as almoſt all the cutaneous ones, which being ſeated in the cellular ſubſtance, are neceſſarily provided with a duct to perforate the ſkin. This is moſt evident in the face, where the length of the duct is indicated by the maggot-like ſubſtance preſſed out; the bulk of which demonſtrates, that a follicle lies under the ſlender pore.

There are ſtill other ſebaceous glands of the kind, in which the ſmall ducts of many cryptæ meet together in one larger excretory duct. Thus, in the face, in ſeveral places, the large pores are in common to a number of cryptæ. Of this kind, alſo, are thoſe ſebaceous ducts in the eye-lids: and the unguinous glands in the ſecretory organ of the muſk-goat, beaver, hyæna, civet-cat, and muſk-rat, which pour their ſebaceous matter into one common receptacle.

The milk, which is compoſed of water and oil, and perhaps of abſorbed fat, and is a fluid of a peculiar nature, is ſecreted in a conglomerate gland. The bile is a matter of controverſy; but there are many arguments in favour of the vaſcular ſtructure, and of the bile being depoſited in the pori biliarii, from the vena portarum, without intermediate follicles; eſpecially the Ruyſchian art of injection, in which the wax paſſes directly from the porta into the biliary pores, without meeting with any intermediate knots retarding it. The milk and bile are both of them, however, much thinner, and more watery,

than the fat, or the ſebacious matter in follicles.

It remains for us to inquire, how it happens, that from one common maſs of the blood, the ſame variety of peculiar fluids are conſtantly ſeparated, each in its reſpective place, and that milk is never ſecreted in the kidneys, bile in the thymus, or mucus in the ſebaceous glands. This problem will be at laſt perfectly ſolved by one who ſhall be intimately acquainted with the internal ſtructure of the ſecreting organs. In the mean time, what is hitherto known with ſufficient certainty ſhall be noticed.

In the firſt place, the blood itſelf, from which any liquid is to be ſecreted, aſſumes, in various places, that peculiarity of character, that it contains more particles, of a like nature with thoſe which nature wiſhes to predominate in the fluid to be ſecreted. In the liver, the venous blood arrives with a ſlow motion, loaded with oil, and the ſemi-putrid vapours of the inteſtines. To the teſticles, the blood is brought ſlowly through long ſlender and inflected canals, ariſing at very ſmall angles, under the ſkin, in a cold ſituation. In the carotids, it is probable that the ſtronger, ſpirituous, and denſe parts of the blood aſcend; ſo that that is more watery which deſcends into the abdomen and to the kidneys, and forms the ſaliva of the pancreas, and the gaſtric and inteſtinal juices.

Beſides, the blood is prepared for ſecretion, by its retardation in the minute veſſels, in conſequence of which, the red and denſer parts alone occupy the axis of the canal: while the other lighter, more ſluggiſh, and leſs quickly moved particles, recede to the lateral branches, impinge on the ſecretory mouths ariſing from the ſides of the veſſels, and adhere to them by their viſcoſity.

Theſe orifices, though poſſibly of different diameters, are always too ſmall to admit the blood in their natural ſtate. As from an increaſed action of the heart, many of them admit blood, we may conclude, with probability, that they ariſe continuous with the red arteries, and are not much ſmaller than the red globules. Hence the ſame ſecretory orifices refuſe thick injections of wax or ſuet, and generally admit thinner liquors injected into the arteries. Therefore, this is the firſt and moſt ſimple mechaniſm of ſecretion, viz. that the caliber of the excretory duct admits only thoſe particles, of which the greateſt diameter is leſs than the diameter of the duct. It is only in this way that the yellow arteries convey a pure liquor from the blood, and that the uriniferous ducts exclude the red blood and coagulable ſerum. But this is not the ſole cauſe, ſince ſimilar fluids are generated by large, as well as by ſmall animals.

Merely according to this law, the ſecreted juices may be of many different kinds: for the very minute orifices will only admit fluids of extreme tenuity, as in the ſmall veſſels of the brain; while the larger will admit water and jelly; and the largeſt of all fat. Moreover, if a number of ſecretory organs ariſe, in ſucceſſion, from one ſecerning artery, and be provided with large orifices, thoſe which ariſe laſt from the artery will admit only the thinneſt fluids. If, on the contrary, thoſe which ariſe firſt in order from the ſecreting artery, be ſmall, the laſt ones will receive only the groſſer liquids. It may be objected, that though the veſſels in the fœtus are vaſtly leſs than in an adult, yet the humours are the ſame. But theſe humours, which are called fat, bile, lymph, and urine, in the fœtus, are very different from the fat, bile, lymph, and urine of an adult.

It is altogether in this way, that moſt ſecretions are made by veſſels

riſing immediately from ſanguiferous arteries. Theſe ſeparate groſs juices; thick, coagulable, or watery; as the fat, urine, juice of the ſtomach and inteſtines, &c. But other ſecretions of thinner juices are performed by veſſels ariſing from the inferior orders of arteries, not ſanguiferous; to the orifices of which not only no red blood, but no ſerum, fat, or other groſs fluids, can have admittance. Thus the more thin and pure humours, muſt neceſſarily be ſeparated; as, for example, in the eye.

Perhaps the angle, which the ſecretory branch forms with its trunk, contributes ſomething to ſecretion. For it is eaſily demonſtrated, that at right and reflected angles, only the viſcid and ſluggiſh juices are expelled, in conſequence of the ſtronger force of the particles keeping the middle of the canal; and that the liquids which preſerve their velocity, are thoſe ſent off at acute angles. For men of credit have obſerved, that, in living animals, the velocity is greater in acute angles, and leſs in right angles. The very ſtructure of the body convinces us, that theſe angles have ſome effect on ſecretion, ſince in different parts we find the angles at which the branches proceed from the trunks different, and the reticulations different. For the ultimate veſſels are, in general, arbuſcular, the trunks ſending out branches on every ſide, but at different angles; thus, at ſmall angles in the large inteſtines, and large angles in the ſmall inteſtines. Thus, in the ſpleen, the ſmaller red arteries ariſe ſo thick from their trunks, that they reſemble a ſprinkler; in the inteſtines, they reſemble pencil-bruſhes; in the kidneys they are ſerpentine; in the liver radiated; in the teſticle, they are curled up like a lock of hair; and in the uvea they are anular. But it is no improbable conjecture, that the Creator never made this diverſity of fabric in vain. We have not as yet, however, any account of theſe reticulations that is ſufficiently accurate; nor does a ſimilarity in the fluids ſecreted ſeem to be connected with a ſimilarity of ſtructure. The veins too have ſimilar reticulations, for the purpoſe of facilitating the motion of the blood, and not for diverſifying the nature of the ſecretions.

The inflexions of the ſmaller veſſels, as well arteries as excretories, greatly retard the motion of the blood; in which the greater part of the force received from the heart is evidently ſpent in the change of figure in the veſſel. The repeated inflexions, therefore, of the ſecretory arteries collect the viſcid parts of the fluids, by giving them time to attract each other. A ſtraight courſe of the veſſels is favourable to celerity of motion, rendering the ſecretion copious and eaſy, but impure, as we ſee in the urine.

That the ultimate arteries, and in like manner the ſecretory orifices, have different degrees of denſity, is not improbable, ſince we actually find it ſo by experiments in the larger branches. But the denſer the capillary arteries are, the more will they admit only the ſtrong, and at the ſame time minute particles, and exclude thoſe that are lighter, moved with leſs velocity, and groſſer. Irritability produces almoſt the ſame effects; for if the ſecretory orifice be irritated, it will reject the groſs humours, and tranſmit the more fluid ones; inſtead of mucus in the urethra, it will ſeparate a thin yellow ſerum; and a ſimilar fluid, inſtead of the ſubcutaneous fat; the quantity of ſecreted liquor will alſo be increaſed; as, for example, in the tears.

Laſtly, the velocity is greatly increaſed, if the heart be near, if the artery be ſtraight, if it go off at a ſmall angle, or if the excretory duct

ariſe near the extremity of a conſiderable arterial branch. The velocity is diminiſhed, if the ſecreting artery run a long way capillary, loſing the greater part of the motion of its blood, from friction, if it ariſe at a diſtance from the heart, and at a large angle. Finally, from whatever cauſe the diverſity may proceed, an increaſe of velocity increaſes the quantity of fluid ſecreted, carries off the heavy liquids, and renders the ſecretions thicker and more impure, though fluid, as it prevents ſtagnation, by which they contract viſcidity: but ſlowneſs facilitates attraction and viſcidity, and renders the ſecreted juice more pure; as the ſimilar particles, when brought together, can better attract and join each other under a ſlow motion, ſo as to retain the larger canal, while the thinner parts go off by the leſſer lateral branches. Hence, from the impetus of the heart alone being too much increaſed, all the ſecretions become confounded.

Theſe conditions, nature is able variouſly to unite or ſeparate, and to impart to each organ, in greater or leſs degrees; and thus, to modify the ſecreted humours in various ways. Anatomy furniſhes examples, if you compare the ſecreting apparatus of the bile or ſemen, which are thick juices, with thoſe of the urine and tears, which are fluid ones.

From all that has been advanced, we may perceive, that, ſince the blood contains particles of various kinds; ſome ſluggiſh and mucous; ſome coagulable, but fluid; ſome denſe and red; ſome watery and thin; and others fat and viſcid: among all theſe particles, thoſe which are the largeſt and moſt denſe, ſuch as the cruor, will continue in the axis of the veſſel, and in the trunk, ſo as to paſs on in a continued courſe into the ſanguiferous vein.

Thoſe particles which are groſs and ſluggiſh, ſuch as the fat, muſt go off by the larger orifices ariſing laterally from the ſanguineous artery, by ſhort ducts; for in long ducts the oil would ſtagnate, from its ſluggiſhneſs. The phenomena of the ſecretion of fat agree with this deſcription. Such as are coagulable, but ſpecifically heavier than thoſe which are merely watery, and which continue fluid in the living animal, paſs from the red arteries, into others which are pellucid, but continuous to the red ones, and ſmaller; whether theſe pellucid ones be continued on as trunks, ſending off other ſmaller branches, ſuch as the arteries of the inferior orders; or whether they exhale their contents by a ſhort extremity.

Thin watery fluids may evidently paſs off by any veſſels continuous with the ſanguiferous, or inferior orders of veſſels, provided they be only ſmall enough to exclude the groſſer juices: whether theſe proceed from the ſides of the larger veſſels, or whether all the proper fluids being ſent off through the larger canals, the ſmaller canal be continued as the trunk, as in the eye. To the production of theſe fluids, the moſt ſimple fabric, even the direct continuation of the ſecretory artery itſelf into the excretory duct, is ſufficient as ſeems probable in the urine. Therefore, in this caſe, the ſtructure is direct and ſimple, with few inflexions, and with little diminution of velocity.

Such juices as being watery, are light but viſcid at the ſame time, and conſequently ſluggiſh and tardy, eſcape eaſily by ſhort tubes appended to the ſanguiferous arteries, and leſs than the adipoſe veſſels; and, therefore it is evident, that theſe will be ſeparated from the blood more abundantly in ſome parts of the body, where the velocity derived from the heart

is leſs, the flexures of the artery more frequent, and the length of the capillaries greater.

Has each part its particular ferments, form of pores, ſpecific weight, and filters filled with their own peculiar humour, and refuſing whatever is not analogous to it, which determine the nature of the fluids to be generated? Let thoſe who adopt theſe ideas, conſider the great varieties there are in fluids, ſeparated in the ſame part of the body, according to the difference of age, courſe of life, &c. In the fœtus, the bile is ſweet; the ſemen thin, and without animalcules; the milk watery or abſent; the urine watery, mucous, and inſipid; the uterine mucus very white; the cutaneous veſſels full of a red fluid; the aqueous humour red; and the fat gelatinous. In the ſame organs, in an adult perſon, the bile ſecreted is acrid; the ſemen thick; the milk butyraceous; the urine yellow, thin, and alkaleſcent; the menſtrual blood, and the aqueous humour, very limpid. But, even in the adult perſon, how different the aqueous humour, the concocted urine, and the heavy febrile urine, replete with ſalts and oils? The paſſions of the mind, which make no change in the body except upon the tenſion of the nerves, yet wonderfully change the ſecretions, and expel even the blood and bile through the veſſels of the ſkin. Add to this, the frequent diſturbance and alteration of the ſecretions from ſlight cauſes; ſo that, different augmentations of velocity ſhall cauſe different liquors to be ſecreted by the ſame organ; for blood has been known to paſs into almoſt all the paſſages of all the fluids; of the ſweat, tears, mucus of the noſtrils, and of the womb, milk, ſemen, urine, and fat. A true milk has been ſeen ſeparated by glands in the thigh. When the urine is not excreted, on account of ſome defect of the kidney, ureters, or bladder, it has been exhaled into the ſkin, ventricles of the brain, or into the whole cellular fabric. The perſpirable matter of Sanctorius, though ſo fluid, by cold is ſent off by the urinary paſſages; and by fear, or by medicines, through the excretory villi of the inteſtines. That exhaling viſcid matter of the cellular ſubſtance is ſecreted and abſorbed, and by the ſame organs, alternately with the fat, ſo different from it. Salivation ſupplies the place of the exhaling fluid of Sanctorius; the exhaling fluid ſupplies the internal. The bile, when abſorbed, evidently paſſes into the veſſels of the eyes. It appears, that there is not any thing in the particular fabric of any of the viſcera or glands, that can ſo fix or maintain the nature of the ſecreted fluid; that in perfectly entire organs, different fluids may not be ſeparated, by an increaſe or diminution of velocity, or alteration of the ſtructure of the nerves. The ſpecific gravities of the viſcera and ſtrainers, do not correſpond to the ſpecific gravity of the humours which they ſecrete; nor are they at all known by experiments that can be depended on.

It now remains for us to diſcover, how the pure ſecretions are formed in a healthy perſon. For all the fluids, when recently ſecreted, without excepting any, not even the oil, are mixed with a great deal of water; nor does it ſeem poſſible, that any of the thicker juices could be formed, without having a mixture of the thinner ones: how then do the ſemen, bile, oil, and mucus, get rid of their ſuperabundant water, and acquire their proper viſcidity and other qualities?

For this end, nature has framed glands and follicles, large and ſmall, for thoſe fluids from which the watery parts are to be ſeparated, in order to render the remaining part

more ſtrong and viſcid. A ſlightly mucous water, differing at firſt very little from the perſpirable vapour or from tears, is depoſited in the follicles of the noſtrils, wind-pipe, and inteſtines. This is not continually diſcharging, becauſe the excretory orifice being leſs than the follicle, and the excretory duct being ſometimes long and ſlender, at others repeatedly bent, and inflected or tranſmitted through hard cellular texture, or cloſed by ſome force equivalent to a ſphincter, the fluid is ſo retarded that it can ſcarcely eſcape without the aſſiſtance of extrinſic preſſure; unleſs perhaps the follicle being irritated by its quantity or acrimony, preſs out the liquor incommoding it, by a kind of periſtaltic motion. This appears from the morning diſcharges of mucus by blowing the noſe, coughing up from the lungs, and by ſneezing after the nocturnal ſtagnation. In the mean time, the patulent veins, extended into the cavity of the follicle, abſorb the more aqueous parts from the thin mucus, ſo that it becomes thicker as it is retained longer; but if, by the force of ſome ſtimulus, it be directly diſcharged after it is ſecreted, it comes out thin and watery. Examples of this we have in the urethra, in the noſtrils, and in the ear-wax; as alſo in the bile, which, at its firſt ſeparation in the liver, is watery, and has but little yellowneſs or bitterneſs. It is therefore detained in a bladder, and there digeſted by the vital heat; its thinner parts are abſorbed by the veins, or exude through the membranes themſelves; whence the remainder becomes more thick, bitter, and oily. The ſame mechaniſm takes place in the ſemen; which, being preſerved in the ſeminal veſicle, is there thickened, ſo as to be very viſcid after long chaſtity; while after repeated venery it is expelled very fluid. In ſome places nature has made this receptacle double or triple in the ſame organ, that the fluid might attain the utmoſt degree of viſcidity. In the ſeminal paſſages, the rete teſtis and termination of the epididymis, conſtitute a large canal, and a large veſicle: while the veſſels of the teſticle, vas deferens and proſtate duct, are narrow. Hence there are nowhere real glands, except for ſecreting a viſcid liquor. And if a viſcid liquor be ſeparated from arteries without a follicle, it always ſtagnates in ſome conſiderable follicle. The ſemen, bile, liquor of the joints, and fat, afford examples of this.

The fluids may be likewiſe changed in their receptacles by the affuſion of ſome new liquor. Thus the ſemen is thickened by the addition of the liquor of the proſtate; the chyle is attenuated by mixture with the ſaliva of the pancreas and the gaſtric and inteſtinal juices, and by the affuſion of the bile it becomes alkaleſcent; the albumen of the joints is tempered by the two kinds of fat.

Laſtly, what is abſorbed, may have its uſes in the animal economy, after it is taken into the blood; thus the ſemen gives a ſurpriſing ſtrength to male animals. For the moſt part, likewiſe, in fluids which are detained an acrimony of an alkaleſcent nature is generated, which alſo hath its uſes, as in the bile and ſemen.

But the moſt important uſe of the follicles and receptacles is to preſerve their peculiar fluids, for thoſe times in which alone they are ſubſervient to life, and that a large quantity of them may be collected to correſpond with their uſes at certain periods. Thus the bile is reſerved for the time of digeſtion, the ſemen for due venery, and the mucus of the noſtrils is accumulated in the night to moderate the force of the air paſſing through them in the day.

Therefore, as nature has framed machines which retard the fluids in large or ſmall follicles, ſo ſhe has

made others to expel them at proper times. To ſome glands ſhe has given particular muſcles; as in the teſticles of brutes, the urinary bladder, and the gall bladder, and in the inteſtines and ſtomach; or ſhe has ſubjoined contiguous muſcles to promote the diſcharge, as the biventer, maſſeter, muſcles of the abdomen and diaphragm; or elſe ſhe has given them a kind of nervous irritability, which, being excited to action by an indeſcribable ſtimulus, opens the ſhut paſſages to the milk, ſemen, tears, &c.; or from the contact of any thing acrid, as already mentioned, accelerates the diſcharge of the fluid; as happens to the bile, liquor of the ſtomach and inteſtines, and to the ſebaceous matter.

SECUNDINES. The placenta and membranes which are expanded from its edge, and which form a complete involverum of the fœtus and its waters, go under the common term of after-birth, or ſecundines.

The membranes of the ovum have uſually been mentioned as two, the amnion and the chorion; and the latter has again been divided into the true and the falſe. The third membrane, which, from its appearance has likewiſe been called the villous or ſpongy, and from the conſideration of it as the inner lamina of the uterus, caſt off like the exuviæ of ſome animals. The decidua has been deſcribed by Harvey, not as one of the membranes of the ovum, but as a production of the uterus. The following is the order of the membranes of the ovum, at the full period of geſtation: 1ſt, There is the outer or connecting, which is flacculent, ſpongy, and extremely vaſcular, completely inveſting the whole ovum, and lining the uterus. 2dly, The middle membrane, which is nearly pellucid, with a very few ſmall blood-veſſels ſcattered over it, and which forms a covering to the placenta and funis, but does not paſs between the placenta and uterus. 3dly, The inner membrane, which is tranſparent, of a firmer texture than the others, and lines the whole ovum, making, like the middle membrane, a covering for the placenta and funis with the two laſt. The ovum is clothed when it paſſes from the ovarium into the uterus, where the firſt is provided for its reception.

Theſe membranes, in the advanced ſtate of pregnancy, cohere ſlightly to each other, though, in ſome ova, there is a conſiderable quantity of fluid collected between them, which being diſcharged when one of the outer membranes is broken, forms one of the circumſtances which have been diſtinguiſhed by the name of by or falſe waters.

Between the middle and inner membrane, upon or near the funis, there is a ſmall, flat, and oblong body, which, in the early part of pregnancy, ſeems to be a veſicle containing milky lymph, which afterwards becomes of a firm and apparently fatty texture. This is called the veſicula umbilicalis; but its uſe is not known. See *Placenta*.

SEDATIVES, (*Sedativa*, from *ſedo*, to eaſe or aſſuage). *Sedantia*. Thoſe medicines are ſo termed which have the power of diminiſhing the animal energy, without deſtroying life. They are divided into *ſedativa ſoporifica*, as papaver, hyoſciamus, and *ſedativa refrigerantia*, as ſales neutri, acidi, &c.

SEDATIVE SALT OF HOMBERG. See *Boracic acid*.

SEDGE. The yellow water-flag is ſometimes ſo called. See *Iris paluſtris*.

SEDIMENT. The heavy parts of liquids, which fall to the bottom.

SEDIMENT, LATIRITIOUS. See *Latiritious ſediment*.

SEDUM, (*Sedum*, *i*, n. from *ſedo*, to aſſuage; ſo called becauſe it allays inflammation). The houſe-leek.

SEDUM ACRE. The ſyſtematic

name of the ſtone croſs. See *Illecebra*

Sedum majus. *Aizoon. Barba Jovis.* Houſe-leek or ſangreen. *Sempervivum rectorum* of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have no remarkable ſmell, diſcover to the taſte a mild ſubacrid auſterity; they are frequently applied by the vulgar to bruiſes and old ulcers.

Sedum minus. See *Illecebra.*

Sedlitz water. *Seydſchutz water.* A ſimple ſaline mineral water. From chemical analyſis it appears, that it is ſtrongly impregnated with vitriolated magneſia or Epſom ſalt, and it is to this, along with probably the ſmall quantity of muriat of magneſia, that it owes its bitter and ſaline taſte, and its purgative properties. The diſeaſes in which this water is recommended are, crudities of the ſtomach, hypochondriaſis, amennorrhœa, and the anomalous complaints ſucceeding the ceſſation of the catamenia, œdematous tumours of the legs in literary men, hæmorrhoidal habits, and in ſcorbutic eruptions.

Sedum telephium. The ſyſtematic name of the *orpine.* See *Faba craſſa.*

Seeing. A ſenſation by which we perceive bodies around us, and their ſenſible qualities. See *Viſion.*

Seignette's salt. This neutral ſalt, which conſiſts of ſoda and tartareous acid, was prepared and made known by a Frenchman named Peter Seignette, towards the end of the laſt century. The confidence with which the inventor recommended it, and the care he took to conceal the method of making it, had, as is uſual, ſuch an effect, that it was employed in preference to many other medicines long known, which had been equally ſerviceable; and by theſe means, without much trouble, he was enabled to acquire a fortune. It muſt, however, be allowed that he was a ſkilful chemiſt, who, by his writings, and the invention of various other medicines, had obtained conſiderable reputation as a phyſician and naturaliſt. He was eſtabliſhed as an apothecary at Rochelle; publiſhed papers on various natural objects which he had obſerved in his neighbourhood, in the memoirs of the academy of ſciences at Paris, as well as in other works; and died on the 11th of March 1719.

He recommended this ſalt, which enriched him, and rendered his name famous, in ſome ſmall treatiſes, printed in particular about the year 1762. He called it ſometimes alkaline ſalt, ſometimes *ſal polycreſt*, and ſometimes *Rochelle ſalt.* After his death, his ſon continued to prepare and to vend it with the greateſt ſucceſs.

Seignette diſcovered ſal polycreſt while he was engaged in making ſoluble tartar, tartrite of potaſh, and, according to the old opinion, imagining that both the fixed alkalies were the ſame, uſed ſoda inſtead of potaſh. By this means he procured, not without ſurpriſe, a ſalt different from the common ſoluble tartar which he wiſhed to prepare, and from the other well-known ſalt alſo. He was induced, therefore, to examine it. The experiments of learned chemiſts diſcovered the component parts of this ſalt. The mode of preparing it was then made publicly known; and, by more accurate examination, the difference, before overlooked, between vegetable and mineral alkali, was determined; by which new light was thrown upon chemiſtry, and an important ſervice rendered to a variety of arts.

Among thoſe who contributed to bring this ſalt into repute was Nicolas Lemery, to whom Seignette ſent a large quantity of it, which he diſtributed at Paris, though unacquaint-

ed with its component parts. Its compoſition was diſcovered at the ſame time, about the year 1731, by two French chemiſts, Baldue and Geoffroy, the former publiſhed his obſervations in the memoirs of the academy of ſciences; and the latter communicated his to Sir Hans Sloane, who cauſed them to be printed in the philoſophical tranſactions. Newman, therefore, was not the firſt who made known the compoſition of Seignette's ſalt, in his treatiſe on ſaltpetre; for Newman's ſal polycreſt is eſſentially different; and he himſelf confeſſes that he was not acquainted with the Rochelle ſalt.

SELENITES, (*Selenites*, æ, m. σεληνιτης; from σελην, the moon). A white ſtone having a figure upon it reſembling a ſtone.

SELINE. A diſeaſe of the nails in which white ſpots are occaſionally ſeen in their ſubſtance.

SELF HEAL. See *Prunella*.

SELLA TURCĬCA, (*Sella*, æ, f. a ſaddle, *quaſi ſedda*, from *ſedeo*, to ſit, and *turcica*; from its ſuppoſed reſemblance to a Turkiſh ſaddle). *Ephippium*. A cavity in the ſphænoid bone, containing the pituitary gland, ſurrounded by the four clinoid proceſſes.

SELTZER WATER. A ſaline water, ſlightly alkaline, highly acidulated with carbonic acid, containing more of this volatile principle than is ſufficient to ſaturate the alkali, and the earths which it holds in ſolution. It is particularly ſerviceable in relieving ſome of the ſymptoms that indicate a morbid affection of the lungs; in ſlow hectic fever, exanthematous eruptions of the ſkin, foulneſs of the ſtomach, bilious vomiting, acidity and heart-burn, ſpaſmodic pains in any part of the alimentary canal, and bloody or highly offenſive ſtools. On account of its property in relieving ſpaſmodic pains, and from its rapid determination to the kidneys, and perhaps its alkaline contents, it has been ſometimes employed with great advantage in diſeaſes of the urinary organs, eſpecially thoſe that are attended with the formation of calculus. A large proportion of the Seltzer water, either genuine or artificial, that is conſumed in this country, is for the relief of theſe diſorders. Even in gonorrhœa, either ſimple or venereal, Hoffman aſſerts that advantage is to be derived from this medicine. The uſual doſe is from half a pint to a pint.

SEMECARPUS ANACARDIUM. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which is ſuppoſed to afford the Molucca bean. See *Anacardium orientale*.

SEMEIŌSIS, (*Semeioſis*, *is*, f. σεμειωσις; from σημειοω, to notify). See *Semiotice*.

SEMEN, (*Semen*, ĭnis, n.). The ſeed. The prolific liquor ſecreted in the teſticles, and carried through the epididymis and vas deferens into the veſiculæ ſeminales, to be emitted *ſub coitu* into the female vagina, and there, by its aura, to penetrate and impregnate the ovulum in the female ovarium.

In caſtrated animals, and in eunuchs, the veſiculæ ſeminales are ſmall, and contracted; and a little lymphatic liquor, but no ſemen, is found in them. The ſemen is detained for ſome time in the veſiculæ ſeminales, and rendered thicker from the continual abſorption of its very thin part, by the oſcula of the lymphatic veſſels. In laſcivious men, the ſemen is ſometimes, though rarely, propelled by nocturnal pollution from the veſiculæ ſeminales, though the ejaculatory ducts, (which ariſe from the veſiculæ ſeminales, perforate the urethra tranſverſely, and open themſelves by narrow and very nervous oſtia at the ſides of the caput gallinaginis) into the urethra, and from it to ſome diſtance. But in chaſte men the greateſt part is

again gradually abſorbed from the veſiculæ ſeminales through the lymphatic veſſels, and conciliates ſtrength of the body. The ſmell of ſemen is ſpecific, heavy, affecting the noſtrils, yet not diſagreeable. The ſame odour is obſerved in the roots of the orchis, julæ of cheſnuts, and the autheræ of many plants. The ſmell of the ſemen of quadrupeds, when at heat, is ſo penetrating as to render their fleſh fetid and uſeleſs, unleſs caſtrated. Thus the fleſh of the ſtag, *tempore coitus*, is unfit to eat. The taſte of ſemen is fatuous, and ſomewhat acrid. In the teſtes its conſiſtence is thin and diluted; but in the veſiculæ ſeminales, viſcid, denſe, and rather pellucid: and by venery and debility it is rendered thinner.

Specific gravity. The greateſt part of the ſemen ſinks to the bottom in water, yet ſome part ſwims on its ſurface, which it covers like very fine threads mutually connected together in the form of a cobweb.

Colour of ſemen. In the teſticles it is ſomewhat yellow, and in the veſiculæ ſeminales it acquires a deeper hue. That emitted by pollution or coition, becomes white from its mixture with the whitiſh liquor of the proſtrate gland during its paſſage through the urethra. In thoſe people who labour under jaundice, and from the abuſe of ſaffron, the ſemen has been ſeen yellow, and in an atrabiliary young man, black.

Quality. Semen expoſed to atmoſpheric air, loſes its pellucidity and becomes thick; but after a few hours it is again rendered more fluid and pellucid than it was immediately after its emiſſion. This phenomenon cannot ariſe from water or oxygen attracted from the air. At length it depoſits a phoſphorated calx, and forms a corneous cruſt.

Experiments with ſemen prove that it turns the ſyrup of violets green, and diſſolves earthy, mediate, and metallic ſalts. Freſh ſemen is inſoluble in water, until it has undergone the above change in atmoſpheric air. It is diſſolved by alkaline ſalts. By ætherial oil it is dried into a pellucid pellicle, like the cortex of the brain. It is diſſolved by all acids, except the oxygenated acid of ſalt, by which it is coagulated in the form of white flakes. It is alſo acted upon by alkohol of wine.

By *dry diſtillation* ſemen gives out a ſmall portion of empyreumatic oil, and volatile alkali. The remaining incinerated carbone affords ſoda and phoſphorated calx.

The *conſtituent principles of ſemen.* Chemical analyſis demonſtrates that one hundred parts of ſemen contain, 1. *Of water*, ninety parts. 2. *Of animal gluten*, ſix parts. 3. *Of phoſphorated calx*, one part. 4. *Of pure ſoda*, three parts. 5. By microſcopical examination, it is aſſerted that an immenſe number of very ſmall animalculæ with round tails, called *ſpermatic animalcules*, may be ſeen. 6. *The odorous principle*, which flies off immediately from freſh ſemen. It appears to conſiſt of a peculiar vital principle, and by the antients was called *aura ſeminis*.

Uſe of the ſemen. 1. Emitted into the female vagina *ſub coitu*, it poſſeſſes the wonderful and ſtupendous power of impregnating the ovulum in the female ovarium. The odorous principle, or aura ſpermatica only, appears to penetrate through the cavity of the uterus and fallopian tubes to the female ovarium, and there to impregnate the albuminous latex of the mature ovulum by its vital power. The other principles of the ſemen appear to be only a vehicle of the ſeminal aura. 2. In chaſte men, the ſemen returning through the lymphatic veſſels into the maſs of the blood, gives ſtrength to the body and mind; hence the bull is ſo fierce

and brave, the caſtrated ox ſo gentle and weak; hence every animal languiſhes *poſt coitum*; and hence tabes dorſalis from onaniſm. 3. It is by the ſtimulus of the abſorbed ſemen, at the age of puberty, into the maſs of the humours; that the beard and hair of the pubes, but in animals the horns, are produced; and the weeping voice of the boy changed into that of a man.

Semen adjowaen. A ſeed imported from the Eaſt, of a pleaſant ſmell, a grateful aromatic taſte, ſomewhat like ſavory. It poſſeſſes exciting, ſtimulating, and carminative virtues, and is given in the Eaſt in nervous weakneſs, dyſpepſia, flatulency, and heart-burn.

Semen agave. An Eaſt Indian ſeed, exhibited there in atonic gout.

Semen contra. See *Santonicum*.

Semen sanctum. See *Santonicum*.

Semicircular canals. Theſe canals are three in number, and take their name from their figure. They belong to the organ of hearing, and are ſituated in the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and open into the veſtibulum.

Semi, (*Semi*, from ἡμισυ). *Semis* in compoſition univerſally ſignifies half, as *ſemicupium*, a half-bath, or bath up to the navel; *ſemilunaris*, in the ſhape of a half moon.

Semiotice, (*Semiotice*, es, f. σημειωτικη; from σημειον, a ſign). *Semeioſis*. That part of pathology which treats on the ſigns of diſeaſes.

Semilunar valves. The three valves at the beginning of the pulmonary artery and aorta are ſo termed, from their half-moon ſhape.

Semimembranōsus. This muſcle ariſes from the outer ſurface of the tuberoſity of the iſchium, by a broad flat tendon which is three inches in length. From this tendon it has gotten the name of ſemi-membranoſus. It then begins to grow fleſhy, and runs at firſt under the long head of the biceps, and afterwards between that muſcle and the ſemi tendinoſus. At the lower part of the thigh it becomes narrower again, and terminates in a ſhort tendon, which is inſerted chiefly into the upper and back part of the head of the tibia, but ſome of its fibres are ſpread over the poſterior ſurface of the capſular ligament of the knee. Between this capſular ligament and the tendon of the muſcle, we find a ſmall burſa mucoſa. The tendons of this and the laſt deſcribed muſcle form the inner ham-ſtring. This muſcle bends the leg, and ſeems likewiſe to prevent the capſular ligament from being pinched.

Semi-orbiculāris oris. See *Orbicularis oris*.

Semi-spinālis colli. *Semi-ſpinalis ſive tranſverſo-ſpinalis colli* of Winſlow, *Spinalis cervicis* of Albinus, and *Spinalis* of Douglas. A muſcle ſituated on the poſterior part of the neck, which turns the neck obliquely backwards, and a little to one ſide. It ariſes from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the uppermoſt ſix vertebræ of the back by as many diſtinct tendons, aſcending obliquely under the complexus, and is inſerted into the ſpinous proceſſes of all the vertebræ of the neck, except the firſt and laſt.

Semi-spinālis dorsi. *Semi-ſpinalis externus ſeu tranſverſo-ſpinalis dorſi* of Winſlow. A muſcle ſituated on the back, which extends the ſpine obliquely backwards. It ariſes from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the ſeventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth vertebræ of the back, by as many diſtinct tendons, which ſoon grow fleſhy, and then become tendinous again, and are inſerted into the ſpinous proceſſes of all the vertebræ

of the back above the eighth, and into the lowermoſt of the neck, by as many tendons.

SEMI-SPINĀLIS EXTERNUS. See *Semi ſpinalis dorſi.*

SEMĬNIS EJACULĀTOR. See *Accelerator urinæ.*

SEMI-NERVŌSUS. See *Semitendinoſus.*

SEMI-TENDINŌSUS. This muſcle, which is the *ſemi nervoſus* of Douglas and Winſlow, is ſituated obliquely along the back part of the thigh. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the inferior, poſterior, and outer part of the tuberoſity of the iſchium, in common with the long head of the biceps cruris, to the poſterior edge of which it continues to adhere, by a great number of oblique fibres, for the ſpace of two or three inches. Towards the lower part of the os femoris it terminates in a round tendon, which paſſes behind the inner condyle of the thigh bone, and becoming flat, is inſerted into the upper and inner part of the ridge of the tibia, a little below its tuberoſity. This tendon ſends off an aponeuroſis, which helps to form the tendinous faſcia that covers the muſcles of the leg. This muſcle aſſiſts in bending the leg, and at the ſame time draws it a little inwards.

SEMPERVĪVUM, (*Sempervivum, i,* n. from *ſemper,* always, and *vivo,* to live; ſo called becauſe it is always green). The houſe-leek, or ſengreen, is ſometimes ſo called. See *Sedum majus.*

SEMPERVĪVUM ACRE. The ſtone crop is occaſionally ſo termed. See *Illecebra.*

SEMPERVĪVUM TECTORUM. The ſyſtematic name of the houſe-leek. See *Sedum majus.*

SENĒCĬO, (*Senecio, onis,* m. from *ſeneſco,* to grow old; ſo called becauſe it has a greyiſh down upon it like the beard of old men). The groundſel. See *Erigerum.*

SENĒCĬO VULGĀRIS. The ſyſtematic name of groundſel. See *Erigerum.*

SENĒCĬO JACOBÆA. The ſyſtematic name of the ragwort. See *Jacobæa.*

SENEGA. See *Seneka.*

SENEGA GUM. See *Gummi ſenegalenſe.*

SENEGAW MILKWORT. See *Seneka.*

SENĔKA, (*Seneka, æ,* f. ſo called becauſe the Senecca or Senegaw Indians uſe it againſt the bite of the rattleſnake). The rattle-ſnake-root-milk wort. *Polygala ſenega* of Linnæus. *Polygala floribus imberbibus ſpicatis, caule erecto herbaceo ſimpliciſſimo, foliis lato lanceolatis.* Claſs *Diadelphia.* Order *Octandria.* The root of this plant was formerly much eſteemed as a ſpecific againſt the poiſon of the rattleſnake, and as an antiphlogiſtic in pleuriſy, pneumonia, &c. but it is now entirely laid aſide.

SENGREEN. See *Sedum majus.*

SENNA, (*Senna, æ,* f. from *ſenna,* an Arabian word ſignifying acute, ſo called from its ſharp-pointed leaves). *Senna alexandrina. Senna italica. Folium orientale.* Senna, or Egyptian caſſia. *Caſſia ſenna foliis ſejugis ſubovatis, petiolis eglandulatis.* Claſs *Decandria.* Order *Monogynia.* The leaves of ſenna which are imported here from Alexandria for medicinal uſe, have a rather diſagreeable ſmell, and a ſubacrid, bitteriſh, nauſeous taſte. They are in common uſe as a purgative. The formulæ given of the ſenna by the colleges are thoſe of an infuſion, a powder, a tincture, and an electuary.

SENNA ALEXANDRĪNA. See *Senna.*

SENNA ITALĬCA. See *Senna.*

SENSATION. Senſation or feeling is the conſciouſneſs of a change taking place in any part, from the contact of a foreign body with the extremities of our nerves. The

ſeat of ſenſation is in the pulp of the nerves.

Senſations may be conſidered as of two kinds: 1. Thoſe which ariſe from the impulſe or impreſſion of external bodies, which we therefore name *Senſations of impreſſion*. 2. Thoſe which ariſe from the mind's being conſcious of its own action, and of the motions it excites; and theſe we name *Senſations of conſciouſneſs*.

Senſations of Impreſſion.

The ſenſations of impreſſion are very various, but have been generally referred to five heads or kinds, commonly called the five ſenſes; that is, thoſe of ſight, hearing, ſmell, taſte, and touch. The four firſt of theſe are each of them, properly conſidered, as forming one genus of ſenſations: 1. As the particular ſenſations comprehended under each head, though very various, are, however, perceived to have ſomewhat common to all of them. 2. As thoſe of the ſame genus all ariſe from impreſſions made upon one part of the body only, and that of a peculiar organization. 3. As thoſe of the ſame genus all ariſe from the action of external bodies of one kind only, or of one and the ſame quality, by means of which they act upon our organs. No ſuch characters concur in eſtabliſhing one genus of the ſenſations referred to the fifth head of touch, which are various in all thoſe reſpects; and phyſiologiſts ſeem to have referred to this head of touch every ſenſation that does not manifeſtly belong to the other four, and, among the reſt, many of the ſenſations of conſciouſneſs. It might perhaps be uſeful to diſtinguiſh into genera, the ſeveral ſenſations referred to touch; but it is not neceſſary to be done here. From certain ſenſations referred to touch it appears, that not only the extremities, but that every part of the nervous ſyſtem is ſentient with reſpect to certain impreſſions.

Senſations of Conſciouſneſs.

The ſenſations of conſciouſneſs may be referred to the following heads: 1. Thoſe of apperception, by which we are in general conſcious of thinking, of perceiving, judging, and willing, and thereby of our exiſtence and identity. 2. The ſenſations ariſing from the particular ſtate of thinking, as perception, memory, and judgment, are more or leſs clear, ready, or exact. 3. The ſenſations ariſing from the particular ſtate of volition, and its various modes. 4. The ſenſations ariſing from the general ſtate of action, as vigorous or weak, eaſy or difficult. 5. The ſenſations ariſing from particular actions, or a conſciouſneſs of the actions excited, and of the motion of the different parts of the body. 6. The ſenſations ariſing from the diminution or abſence of impreſſions.

Under each of theſe heads a great number of particular ſenſations are comprehended, but not neceſſary to be farther ſpecified here.

Laws or general Circumſtances of Senſation.

Of the four firſt genera, the ſenſations ariſing give no indication of the nature of the bodies acting on our organs, or of the mode of their action; and when we otherwiſe learn theſe circumſtances, we can perceive no neceſſary connection between them and the ſenſations which they produce. But from certain ſenſations of touch and conſciouſneſs, we acquire the notions of ſolid figure, of motion, impulſe, impenetrability, and the communication of motion, and conſider the ſenſations as exactly correſpondent to the circumſtances of external bodies. At the ſame time, as we know of no other action of bodies on each other but that of impulſe; and as, in the caſe of the ſenſations of the four firſt genera, we

learn, that an impulſe takes place, we have comprehended the whole under the title of Senſations of Impreſſion, and conſider all of them as perceptions of impulſe. To produce any ſenſation of impreſſion, a certain force of impreſſion is neceſſary; and from a leſſer force, no ſenſation ariſes. The degree of force is likewiſe ſo limited on the other hand, that, in a high degree, it deſtroys the organ; and, in degrees approaching to this, a general ſenſation of pain, rather than the ſenſation of any particular object, is produced. Within theſe limits, however, our ſenſations are not exactly correſpondent to the force of impreſſion, nor do they make any exact eſtimate of that force. Uſually ſenſation is relative to the change that is produced in the nervous ſyſtem; and a ſenſation proves ſtrong or weak, only as it is ſtronger or weaker than that which had immediately preceded it, or than that degree of force to which the nerves had been immediately before accuſtomed. For this reaſon too the limits are very variable. Different ſenſations do not always imply a different kind of action in the bodies producing them; for ſometimes different ſenſations ariſe merely from a different degree of force in the ſame kind of action, as is manifeſt in the caſe of heat and cold. To ſenſation from impreſſion, a certain duration of impreſſion is neceſſary. The mind's reſting for ſome time upon one ſenſation, is called *attention*. This, like the duration, is neceſſary to give an impreſſion its full effect. The mind ſeems to be determined to attention by the force of impreſſion; by the pleaſure or pain ariſing from it; by the degree of emotion or paſſion produced by theſe; and, laſtly, by the emotions being more or leſs related to the perſon feeling. If the force and duration of impreſſion, and the attention of mind, are all in the due degree, the ſenſation often remains for ſome time after the impreſſion or action of the external body has ceaſed. The mind admits of, or can attend to, one ſenſation only at one time. Though the mind admits but of one ſenſation at one time, ſeveral impreſſions may act at the ſame time, if they be ſuch as can unite in producing a ſingle ſenſation; and ſuch is the caſe of many of the impreſſions which produce the particular ſenſations of the ſame genus, as in thoſe eſpecially of colour, ſound, ſmell, and taſte. In each of theſe genera, many impreſſions, which ſeparately produce particular ſpecies, can unite in producing a ſingle ſenſation, which is always a neutral, or one different from either of the ſeparate ſenſations. This union of impreſſions may take place, either when the impreſſions are exactly ſynchronous, or when the one ſucceeds the other before the ſenſation of the firſt has ceaſed. Though the motion excited in the ſentient extremities, by impreſſion, remains ſome time, it muſt be ſuppoſed to become continually weaker, till at length it ceaſes altogether, and with it the ſenſation. The ſame impreſſion, ſoon repeated, does not produce the ſame ſtrength of ſenſation as before. Hence, all new impreſſions are, *cæteris paribus*, ſtrongeſt; and moderate impreſſions, frequently repeated, produce no ſenſation, unleſs their force is conſiderably increaſed. Actions which at firſt produced a ſenſation of conſciouſneſs, as accompanied with volition, come, by repetition, to be performed without any ſenſation; or they produce it only when they are performed with uneaſineſs, pain, or unuſual force. Impreſſions being given, their effects, in producing ſenſation, are different in different perſons, and in the ſame perſon at

different times. This muſt ariſe from ſome difference in the ſtate of the bodies acted upon, which may perhaps be referred to the following heads: 1. The ſtate of the common teguments, or other parts interpoſed between the impreſſing body and the medullary ſubſtance of the ſentient extremity. 2. The different ſtate of the medullary ſubſtance of the ſentient extremities, as given to it in the original ſtamina. 3. The different ſtate of tenſion in the medullary ſubſtance of the ſentient extremities, as given to it by the ſtate of the blood-veſſels conſtantly connected with it. 4. The ſtate of the medullary ſubſtance, as affected by heat or cold. 5. The ſtate of it as produced by former impreſſions. 6. The ſtate of the nerves along which the motion is propagated. 7. The ſtate of the brain or ſenſorium. 8. The ſtate of attention. Different parts of the body are ſenſible, and ſenſible only by means of nerves preſent in them; but anatomy does always determine certainly with regard to the preſence or abſence of nerves; and, therefore, the ſenſibility of ſeveral parts can be determined by experiment only; which, however, is alſo fallacious. Particular ſenſations ariſe from impreſſions of certain parts only: 1. Becauſe the ſentient extremities in theſe parts are ſo ſituated as to be expoſed to the action of certain external bodies only. 2. Becauſe the ſentient extremities are connected with an organ that increaſes the force of the external agent, or modifies its action in the manner neceſſary to a determined impreſſion. 3. Becauſe the fibres of certain ſentient extremities are, by their ſize or tenſion, fitted to be acted upon by certain external bodies only. 4. Becauſe certain ſentient extremities are ſo conſtantly preſerved in a certain ſtate, as to render them more ſenſible to a change. Theſe circumſtances determine the mode of impulſe, but do not account for the ſenſation ariſing from it. Different ſenſations are accompanied with different judgements concerning the bodies making impreſſion, and the part of the human body upon which it is made. Some ſenſations are referred to bodies at a diſtance; others, to external bodies in contact; and others to the feeling body itſelf. When ſenſations are referred to our own bodies, it is in three ſeveral ways: they are moſt commonly referred to the part on which immediately the impreſſion is made; and this, with regard to the external parts, very accurately; but, with regard to the internal, much leſs ſo: and, commonly, the ſenſations ariſing from internal parts, are referred to the incumbent external part, with ſome obſcure diſtinction between ſuperficial and more deep. 2. Senſations are ſometimes referred, not to the part upon which the impreſſion is immediately made, but to a diſtant more ſenſible part, to which a motion is propagated from the part impreſſed. 3. As ſenſations uſually ariſe from impreſſions made upon the extremities of the nerves, and are referred to theſe; ſo impreſſions made on the nerves in their courſe, are ſometimes referred to the extremities from whence they had commonly ariſen. The ſenſations of conſciouſneſs are referred to the *encephalon*. So are thoſe of impreſſions, if they are moderate; but, if more vehement, they are often referred to thoſe parts in which their effects are exerted, as the heart and organs of reſpiration. The ſenſations of conſciouſneſs are ſeldom, with accuracy, referred to particular parts, but indiſtinctly to a whole member. We are not conſcious of the action of particular muſcles, except when their contraction is ſpaſmodic. We are diſpoſed to combine our ſenſations as united in one object; and thus form what is called *complex ideas*. We compare our ſeveral ſen-

ſations, and from thence acquire new ſenſations of *relation*. When ſenſations formerly received are again renewed by the ſame objects, it is, for the moſt part, with a conſcioufneſs of their having been formerly received; and this faculty we call *reminiſcence*. Perceptions formerly received can be renewed without the preſence or action of the object which formerly gave occaſion to them: and if this is attended with a conſcioufneſs of a difference between the vividity of the two perceptions, and particularly of the abſence of the original objects, ſuch a renewed perception is called an *idea*; and the faculty by which this renewal is made, is called *memory*. Perceptions formerly received can, without the preſence of the original object, be renewed alſo in ſuch a manner, that the mind does not perceive any difference between the original and the renewed perception; and therefore, ſuch renewal is always attended with the perſuaſion of the preſence of the object. The faculty by which ſuch renewal is made, we call *imagination*, more ſtrictly. Reminiſcence depends upon the force or frequent repetition of the former ſenſation. Memory depends upon an aſſociation of perceptions, which is formed by their being frequently repeated immediately after each other; by their being parts of the ſame complex idea; and, by their having relations marked. Memory is generally faithful to ſuch aſſociations; but it is more or leſs ſo in different perſons, according to the number and importance of the relations marked; according to the frequency of the repetition of the ſenſations, and the marking of their relations; and according to the different ſtates of the brain, very little known. Imagination ſeems always to depend upon internal cauſes, that is, upon cauſes acting in the brain. Memory and imagination renew diſtinctly the ideas of ſeeing and hearing only. All others are renewed imperfectly, or not at all, but all others may be aſſociated with the ſenſations or ideas of ſeeing and hearing, ſo that theſe become ſigns of the others. The memory, in renewing theſe ſigns, ſo far renews the idea belonging to them, as to renew their ſeveral aſſociations and relations; to renew, in ſome degree, the pleaſure or pain which formerly attended the ſenſations themſelves; and particularly to renew the emotions of mind, or motions of the body, which the ſenſations formerly produced. Moſt of our ſenſations, perhaps all of them, are either pleaſant or painful. The words *pleaſant* and *painful* are commonly generic terms, each of them comprehending a great many ſpecies, which ſeem to require being aſſorted under ſeveral different genera. Thus, in the firſt place, our ſenſations may be divided into thoſe we deſire, and thoſe we are averſe to. Of thoſe we deſire, we may diſtinguiſh thoſe which ariſe from qualities we refer to other bodies, from thoſe we refer entirely to our own. The firſt may be named more ſtrictly the *agreeable*, the laſt the *pleaſant*. In like manner, of the ſenſations we are averſe to, we may diſtinguiſh the *diſagreeable* and the *painful*. But, farther, the laſt muſt be diſtinguiſhed from the ſenſe of averſion, which accompanies certain ſenſations of conſcioufneſs, as the ſenſe of debility, laſſitude, difficulty, &c. and particularly from that which is referred obſcurely to internal parts, and this we name *anxiety*. Theſe ſenſations may be called the *uneaſy*; and every one diſtinguiſhes this kind from that of the *painful*, more ſtrictly ſo called. Theſe laſt ſeem to be always ſenſations of impreſſion, referred pretty accurately to a particular part. There is thus a foundation for eſtabliſhing different genera of the ſenſations we deſire and of thoſe we are averſe to; as alſo, for greater preciſion in the em-

ployment of terms; but the fixing the limits of these genera, and assorting the several species, may be still difficult; so that we cannot be certain of applying the terms every where with strict propriety. The enumeration of the agreeable or disagreeable, and even of the pleasant sensations, would not be of much use here; and the enumeration of the uneasy and painful, though much more interesting, belongs to the pathology. However, we think it proper to deliver here the few following propositions. Sensation and action, within certain limits, are always desired; and the want of sensation, or imperfect and indistinct sensations, are always uneasy. In action of every kind, the sensations of debility and difficulty are also uneasy. In sensations of impression, their being pleasant or painful often depends on the degree of force in the impression, allowance being made for the sensibility of the system. As impressions, by being repeated, produce weak sensations, impressions at first painful may, by repetition, be changed into pleasant, and the pleasant into insipid and uneasy. Hence arises, with regard to moderate impressions, the pleasure of novelty, the desire of variety, and the desire of increasing the force of pleasant impressions. There is a condition of impressions, rendering them objects of desire or aversion, that cannot with certainty be referred to their force. This condition we call the quality of impressions. Impressions are often rendered objects of desire or aversion, by combination, succession, and relation. No sensations arise originally in the mind, without a previous change in the state of the body. Certain impressions, and certain states of the body, like to those which produce the sensations of consciousness, may both of them act upon the nervous system, without producing any sensation.

Senses. The senses are distinguished into external and internal. The external are five, viz. smelling, seeing, hearing, tasting, and touching. These are considered under their respective heads. It is common to all these, that the medulla of the tender and pulpy nerve, being affected by external objects, transmits some change to that part of the brain where the fibres of the nerve affected first arise from the arteries of the brain. We know nothing more, than that new thoughts are excited in the mind, as often as a change of this kind, originating in any organ of sense, is transmitted to the origin of the nerve affected. For this perception is not an actual representation of the object, by which the sentient nerve is affected. The idea of redness has nothing in common with rays little refrangible, and separated from the seven portions of the total ray; and much less is it consistent with optical principles, for an image painted by rays upon a soft white nerve, to be conveyed for a long way, in perfect darkness, through a completely opaque body, to the origin of the optic nerves. There is nothing in the pain of burning that can represent to the mind the violent motion of a swift and subtle matter by which the particles of the nerves are removed from mutual contact. There is nothing in the idea of a sharp sound from a cord of a certain length that can inform the mind that the said cord vibrates 5000 times in the space of a second. Neither does the taste teach us that the crystals of sea-salt are of a cubical figure. Lastly, motion imparted by a body perceived by the senses, is indeed propagated to the brain, but the mind neither perceives this motion, nor the

tremors of ſound, nor the percuſſion of the rays of light, but ſomething perfectly diſtinct from motion. It is eſtabliſhed as a reciprocal law by the Creator, that with certain changes, produced firſt in the nerve, and then in the ſenſorium commune, new and definite thoughts ſhall ariſe in the mind, invariably connected; and that our perceptions of external objects are arbitrary, yet that they are not falſe, appears plainly from the perpetual agreement of ſimilar ideas with ſimilar affections of the ſentient nerves, in all perſons at the ſame time, and in one perſon at different times.

Therefore, when we feel, five very different exiſtences are conjoined: the thing which we perceive; the affection of the organ of ſenſe by that body; the affection of the brain, ariſing from the percuſſion of that ſenſory; the change produced in the mind; and, laſtly, the conſciouſneſs of the mind, and perception of the ſenſation.

It appears from certain experiments, that the firſt origin of every ſentient nerve is always diſtinct from all the others; and that the change which is firſt excited by external objects in that nerve, continues long in its origin; and that thoſe changes are generally ſo arranged in the ſaid part of the brain, that, being diſpoſed according to the order of time, thoſe are neareſt together which were either cotemporary, or occurred in immediate ſucceſſion; or, laſtly, thoſe which have a relation to the ſame ſubject, or were excited by ſimilar objects; inſomuch that it is certain that new ideas are conveyed to the ſame part of the brain where others of the like kind are reſerved: for otherwiſe, neither would the arbitrary ſigns of words and letters recal to the memory paſt ideas; or diſagreeable ideas, returning into the mind, without the aſſiſtance of external objects, reproduce the ſame effects as objects themſelves; nor otherwiſe, could there be ſo conſtant and manifeſt a connection of analogous ideas, which ſupervene moſt remarkably in dreaming, to the corporeal impreſſions, acting at that time moſt powerfully. Imagination and memory depend on this conſervation of ideas. Thoſe changes conſerved in the ſenſorium, which man term ideas, are, for the ſake of diſtinction, by us called the impreſſion of things, as they do not exiſt in the mind, but are impreſſed in the body itſelf, and indeed in the medulla of the brain, in an incomprehenſible manner, by certain characters, incredible in their minuteneſs, and infinite in their number. Amongſt theſe the impreſſions received by the ſight are the moſt remarkable, and moſt diſtinctly preſerved, and next, thoſe of hearing; thoſe of the other organs are more confuſed, and leſs revocable by the will. Both the impreſſion and their ſigns are preſerved; the latter more eaſily; the former, however, ſo far, that a painter can expreſs with his pencil upon canvas a face ſimilar to the image of a familiar face, impreſſed upon his mind.

We are ſaid to imagine, when by means of any image preſerved in the ſenſorial part of the brain, the ſame ideas are excited in the mind which would ariſe if the ſentient nerve that firſt produced the ſaid image itſelf ſuffered that change. This we term recalling an image. This definition is confirmed by the example of the great ſtrength of fancy in certain perſons, and in thoſe who are delirious, and in every perſon, in the inſtance of dreams, in which thoughts ariſe in the mind, occaſioned by the images preſerved in the brain, not at all weaker than thoſe which are primarily produced by the change in the ſentient nerve, from the external ob-

nerve that is too ſtrong, and pleaſure, in which the nerve is irritated beyond what is uſual, but in a moderate degree. Itching is akin to pleaſure, and in both the flow of blood is increaſed into the part in which either pleaſure or titillation is perceived; but, when farther increaſed, it degenerates into pain, or exceſſive ſenſation in the nerve. Anxiety is from the blood being retarded in its paſſage through the lungs. Other ideas which affect the mind are either entirely unconnected with the properties of matter, or certainly leſs ſimple, underſtood, or mechanical, than the foregoing. The preſence of good conſtitutes joy; the deſire of good, love; the expectation of good, hope; the preſence of evil, ſorrow, terror, or deſpair; the diſlike of evil, hatred; and the expectation of evil, fear. Hope, curioſity, and glory, ſeem to be affections of the human mind, which neither belong to the body, nor exiſt in beaſts.

From theſe affections of the mind, not only the pure will appears to direct the actions of the body to a foreſeen purpoſe, in order to attain good, and avoid evil, but alſo in the body itſelf, neither willing them nor capable of oppoſing them, various changes happen in the pulſe, reſpiration, appetite, ſtrength, and other functions of the heart, nerves, ſtomach, and other parts, which both immediately follow and indicate the paſſions of the mind. Thus anger violently excites the motion of the ſpirits, increaſes the motion of the heart, the frequency of the pulſe, and the ſtrength of the muſcles; forces the blood into the ultimate and pellucid veſſels, and even out of the veſſels; accelerates the excretion of bile, terminates chronic diſeaſes, and removes obſtructions. Grief weakens th ſtrength of the nerves, and action of the heart; retards the pulſe; deſtroys the appetite; and produces paleneſs, cachexy, diarrhœa, jaundice, ſcirrhoſities, and diſeaſes ariſing from a ſtagnation of the humours. Fear diminiſhes the force of the heart, ſo as to occaſion polypuſes and paleneſs, weakens the muſcular motions, relaxes the ſphincters, increaſes inhalation, and diminiſhes exhalation. Exceſſive terror increaſes the ſtrength even to convulſion; excites the pulſe; removes obſtructions, palſies; interrupts the courſe of the blood, and produces ſudden death. Love, hope, and joy, promote perſpiration, quicken the pulſe, promote the circulation, increaſe the appetite, and facilitate the cure of diſeaſes. Exceſſive and ſudden joy often kills, by increaſing the motion of the blood, and exciting a true apoplexy. Shame in a peculiar manner retains the blood in the face, as if the veins were tied; and alſo ſuppreſſes the menſes, and has been even known to kill.

In what manner are theſe changes produced by the reſpective paſſions of the mind? Do nervous ſphincters regulate the veſſels, and at one time compreſs them ſubſultorily, and increaſe the motion of the blood, and at another relax them and deſtroy their tone? That ſomething like this obtains in the ſmaller veſſels appears evidently from the very ſimilar effects produced by fear and cold upon the nerves of the ſkin. In the genital parts we manifeſtly ſee the veins, under particular circumſtances, conſtricted, and a conſequent accumulation of blood; and it ſeemed probable, that in the larger veſſels, the nervous nooſes ſurrounding many of them produced the ſame effects: for, in various parts, they ſurround and include the meningeal, temporal, vertebral, carotid, ſubclavian, cœliac, meſenteric, renal, and other arteries. But after it was ſhewn by our experiments, that the nerves are at reſt

during the action of the muſcles, and cannot be rendered ſhorter by any irritation, we were obliged to deſert this elegant theory. Nor would it ſeem far from the truth, that the arteries are rendered more leſs irritable from the various ſenſibility of the nerves, and thus may be contracted more vehemently or languidly by the ſame quantity of blood, and that thus the motion of the blood is either quickened or retarded, if it were at all certain that the ſmaller arteries have the ſame irritable nature with the large ones. Thus the appetite and periſtaltic motion of the ſtomach and inteſtines, are manifeſtly deſtroyed by the affections of the mind.

It cannot be denied that the Creator has affixed characteriſtic marks to the paſſions of the mind, that in ſocial life man might not eaſily impoſe on man. For the reſpective muſcles, more eſpecially of the voice, face, and eyes, expreſs the ſeveral paſſions of the mind ſo faithfully, that they may be even repreſented in painting. To inveſtigate each of them, would indeed be an elegant taſk, but too long for an article in this work. From the action of theſe muſcles being often repeated, phyſiognomy ariſes, ſo that the conſtant expreſſion of the face retains ſomething of the action of the prevailing muſcles; and ſome character of frequent anger often remains in the countenance, after the paſſion itſelf is gone off.

Whence proceeds the ſympathy of parts, ſo famous in the practice of phyſic? In ſome of them it appears to depend upon the connection of the blood-veſſels; by which the blood, being repelled from one part, preſſes more heavily upon another, which has its veſſels from the ſame common trunk. This comprehends revulſions made by blood-letting; head-ach, from cold feet, &c. In other parts, the ſympathy ariſes from a ſimilitude in their fabric, by which they ſuffer like effects from the ſame cauſes ariſing in the body ſuch as the ſympathy betwixt the womb and the breaſts. Another cauſe is, the continuity of membranes from hence the itching in the glans of the penis from calculus, the cure of deafneſs by diarrhœa. Another cauſe exiſts in the nerves themſelves and their anaſtomoſes, as ſatisfactorily appears from the teeth being ſet on edge by certain ſounds, a diſagreeable ſenſation being produced in the maxillary nerve, on account of its various communications with the portio dura. Thus the ſympathy of the eyes, which is not obſervable in like manner in the ears, proceeds from the decuſſation of the optic nerves; and vomiting is excited by nephritis. Laſtly, another cauſe is referred to the common ſenſory, and beginning of the nerves, which is demonſtrated from general convulſions being produced by the irritation of a ſingle nerve, and univerſal epilepſy by a local diſorder, &c. Some ſympathies in diſeaſes ariſe from a tranſlation of the matter to other parts through the cellular ſubſtance, or by the action of the muſcles, arteries, or gravity. See *Sympathy*.

But that important ſympathy remains to be explained, which ſubſiſts betwixt the body and the mind. For that the nature of the mind is different from that of the body, is proved by an infinity of circumſtances, eſpecially by ideas and affections of the mind, to which nothing in ſenſation is analogous. For what is the colour of pride? or what the magnitude of envy or curioſity? to which there is nothing ſimilar in animals; neither can that good which is deſired by it, glory and the acquiſition as it were of new ideas, be referred to any corporeal pleaſure. Is it poſſible that the body can poſſeſs two kinds of forces, ſo that its infini-

jects, and in which the perfect reſemblances of perſons and things with which we are occupied, are repreſented to the mind. Attention, quiet, and the abſence of other objects, even obtain a ſtronger aſſent of the mind to theſe traces impreſſed on the brain, than to thoſe perceptions which are excited in the mind by external objects; for the will is much more powerfully determined in thoſe who dream, than in thoſe who are awake; and ſome voluntary muſcles perform, during ſleep, functions, which while awake they never could perform, even when their nerves were moſt ſtrongly affected by the ſame object. From hence we may underſtand how it is poſſible, that a very vivid internal impreſſion in delirium may ſo impoſe upon the mind, as to be miſtaken for the perception of an external object; which is evident in the ſparks which are excited by rubbing the optic nerve; in the redneſs ſeen by the eye when ſhut; in the vertigo that ariſes from a motion of the retina, which we aſcribe to the external objects themſelves; in double viſion, &c.

Memory is ſaid to be exerciſed, when any thought of the mind, or image of an external object preſerved in the ſentient part of the brain, excites any perception in the mind. This is commonly weaker than in imagination, and almoſt confined to certain arbitrary ſigns, which the mind conjoined with that idea at its firſt perception. For memory hardly repreſents the images and pictures of things to the mind, but almoſt only words, and certain attributes, and abſtract ideas; for which reaſon it excites volition leſs powerfully. But it appears from the obſervation of the phenomena of memory, that thoſe changes which ariſe from the external ſenſes, remain long in the brain; and ſometimes, if they made a ſtrong impreſſion, are repreſented to the mind for a long period, almoſt for ever; but that they are gradually weakened and impaired; unleſs they be renewed, either by the object being repreſented again to the mind, or by the mind itſelf recalling the ſame change again into memory; and that at laſt the change will be in a manner eraſed, and entirely loſt, and the idea which was connected with that change by the law of nature, will never again recur to the mind. This annihilation is gradually effected by new and different impreſſions made on the ſenſorium, and not from time only, or the circulation of the blood, as in cataleptic patients, who ſometimes after a conſiderable interval of time, return to the ſame train of thought which the diſeaſe had interrupted. But ſometimes all of them will be ſuddenly deſtroyed by ſome diſeaſe, in which the brain is in ſome way compreſſed, either by the blood or any other cauſe. Such a cauſe, acting on part of the common ſenſory, blots out a part of the impreſſions from the memory, ſuch as certain words, or all of them, the characters by which we expreſs words, or our friends, and even the neceſſaries of life; yet all theſe impreſſions may often be renewed by removing the compreſſing cauſe. But the ſtrength and duration of an idea depend upon its being unuſual, exceſſive, or greatly conducing either to increaſe or leſſen our felicity; and laſtly, upon our attention to it, and repetition; which laſt renders the impreſſions ſo vivid, that their perception is at length miſtaken by the mind for the perception of external objects, as in the caſe of maniacs.

Moreover, if we review the hiſtory of human life, it appears that in early infancy we have hardly any memory; only ſimple perceptions, that ſoon vaniſh: which, nevertheleſs, excite ſtrong ideas in the mind, as we ſee

from the crying of infants. The memory is perfected by degrees, and the ideas received from favorite objects, and familiar perſons, remain impreſſed in the mind of the infant; while at the ſame time, the imagination likewiſe encreaſes, which is often very powerful in young children; as for example, in terror, which in no age produces more violent or deplorable effects. Afterwards, as the number of our ideas increaſes, the facility of preſerving paſt ideas is impaired, and at the ſame time, the power of the imagination becomes torpid; till at laſt the former almoſt periſhes, and the ideas which are received eſcape from the brain in a ſhort time; while at the ſame time, the imagination, which is a kind of memory, languiſhes.

But ſince theſe perceptions produce various changes in the mind itſelf, which are perfectly diſtinct from any corporeal faculty, we ſhall briefly add ſomething concerning them, ſo far as may ſuffice for the purpoſes of medicine. Thought reſides in the ſoul, it attends to the ſenſations which are either brought by the ſenſes, or recalled by the imagination; frequently alſo to the mere ſigns which recur into the mind. Attention is when one idea occupies the mind principally or ſolely for any length of time. The compariſon of two ideas, inſtituted by the mind, is called judgment or genius, when the mind, by comparing them, diſcovers them to be alike or diſſimilar. Genius conſiſts in a vivid ſenſation conjoined with rapidity of thought, ſo as inſtantly to abſtract from notions their points of ſimilitude and diſſimilitude. The principal ſource of judgment, invention, and wiſdom, conſiſts in the ſlow examination of ideas, by which they are conſidered by the mind in every point of view, and in the attention of the mind being confined to one object, to the excluſion of all other ideas. Hence the efficacy of darkneſs in making difficult calculations; the exquiſite attention of blind people to the nature of ſounds, and of thoſe who are deaf, to colours. The ſources of error are negligence in contemplating the whole idea, the eſtimating it from a partial view, and the connection of ideas with others that are diſtinct, and only related by accident, or external cauſes.

The integrity of the judgment depends upon a healthy conſtitution of the brain. For when that is compreſſed, irritated, exhauſted of blood, or changed in its fabric, the uſe of reaſon is totally diſturbed; the ſtrong internal impreſſions on the brain are repreſented to the mind as external or real objects; the chain of ideas is broken, ſo that the mind does not compare them, or perceive their reſemblance or diverſity, but paſſes abruptly from one idea to another totally different; or laſtly, the actions of the ſenſes being impaired or interrupted, and all impreſſions being in a manner eraſed from the brain, man is reduced to a ſtate of imbecility or vegetation. But external cauſes alſo have conſiderable influence in changing the relation of the mind to the impreſſions of the ſenſes; the air, way of life, food, and habit, either aſſiſt or diminiſh the ſoundneſs of the judgment, the force of the imagination, and the ſtrength of the memory.

Finally, as theſe ideas are either indifferent, or have ſome relation to our happineſs, they produce different determinations in the will. Some of the cauſes by which the felicity of our mind is either increaſed or diminiſhed, proceed entirely from the body, and are purely mechanical; amongſt theſe are pain, diſagreeable ſenſations, which ſeem to be produced by every ſenſation in a

particles ſhould unite into one maſs, which do not preſerve their own affections only, and repreſent them to themſelves, but alſo join together into one common thinking whole, differing from the attributes of all, and yet capable both of receiving and comparing theſe attributes? Is there any inſtance of a body, which, without an external cauſe, paſſes from reſt to motion, changes or reverſes the direction of motion, without the action of ſome other cauſe, as is very eaſily obſerved with regard to the mind?

Yet this mind, ſo different from the body, is connected with it by the moſt intimate ties, being both obliged to think upon thoſe impreſſions which the body preſents to it, and not ſeeming to poſſeſs memory or judgment, independent of the corporeal impreſſions on the brain; and, laſtly, by means of volition being the cauſe or occaſion of the greateſt and ſwifteſt motions in the body.

Thoſe have acted circumſpectly who, confeſſing themſelves ignorant of the manner in which the body and mind are united, have contented themſelves with the laws eſtabliſhed by the Creator, which they have aſcertained and not conjectured. They are manifeſtly excuſed by the obſervation, that even in optics, it is very certain that the affections of the body are connected with the thoughts of the mind, by an arbitrary relation, and that other ideas would have been ſuggeſted, if the Creator had altered the figure, the refracting powers, or colours of the parts of the eye. As there is a law, which eſtabliſhes a perpetual connection between the leaſt refrangible rays and the idea of a red colour; there is alſo a law which conſtitutes the connection betwixt the impreſſion of thoſe rays upon the retina, and the correſponding idea. Nor need we be more aſhamed of our ignorance of the mechaniſm of the latter law, than of our ignorance of the nature of the former.

Does the mind govern the body? Do all the motions and actions in the body ariſe from the mind, as the immediate ſource and origin of motion? Do the motions of the heart, arteries, and reſpiration, ariſe from the mind, willing them and ſolicitous for the common good of the whole ſyſtem? Is this power of the mind demonſtrated by the ſtructure of polypi formed in wounds, by the paſſions of the mind, and by the nævi materni? Is the abſence of conſciouſneſs accounted for by the well-known example of the obſcure perceptions we have in reſpiration, winking, and muſcular motion, all of which are effected by the will, although we do not know the organs, or attend, that we will, when we breathe, wink, or walk, when occupied in thought? Is it therefore certain, that all motions ariſe from the mind, becauſe there is no other evident cauſe perpetually connected with the body, to which they can be referred?

There are many reaſons which do not yet permit us to adopt this opinion. And, firſt, the conſtruction and government of the body itſelf appear greatly to exceed the wiſdom of the mind. Our mind ſees one point diſtinctly, and thinks one thought diſtinctly; but if it endeavours to ſee two objects at the ſame time, to contemplate two ideas at the ſame time, or to read two letters at once, it always becomes confuſed, commits miſtakes, and comprehends neither rightly; and conſcious of its own powers, whenever it applies ſeriouſly and diligently to any object, it withdraws itſelf as it were from the impreſſions of ſenſe, and neither ſees, nor hears, nor ſmells, nor performs muſcular actions. But the mind ought to be capable of infinite and diſtinct thoughts, in order to be able to govern ſuch an infinite variety of

muſcles, veſſels, and fibres, in a manner accommodated to the moſt exact geometry; and to reſolve and conſtruct occaſional problems in the direction of the muſcles, ſcarcely ſoluble by the higheſt geometry; and yet we muſt conclude the mind ignorant of this immenſe taſk, and at the ſame time, over and above all thoſe works, capable of contemplating the moſt difficult and abſtract ideas; ſo that neither the care of the body diſturbs its meditations, nor its meditations interfere with the neceſſary motions of the body.

Moreover, if, without being conſcious of volition, we can will to reſpire, or wink, and with effect; we nevertheleſs retain our control, and can ſuſpend reſpiration, and keep the eye-lids firm, and alternately excite their actions, and therefore we never loſe either the conſciouſneſs of our control, or the uſe of it. But we are not able to perform any thing of this kind in the heart or inteſtines; we cannot reſtrain their motion when too quick, or excite them when languid. Amongſt all mankind, why does every one govern his reſpiration? why in all ages no one his heart? If cuſtom only is the cauſe of our inconſciouſneſs of this power, why is not the mind ſenſible of its action, in moving the heart, or in exerciſing the periſtaltic motion, after being ſuſpended for hours, or even whole days, in ſwoons, in hyſteric fits, and in aſphexia?

But it is evidently falſe, that all motions ariſe from the mind, and that without it matter would be an immoveable inert maſs: for the contractility excitable by every ſtimulus, to which the motion of the heart, inteſtines, and perhaps all the other motions in the human body, belong, does not require the preſence of the mind; it continues in the dead body; it is excited by mechanical cauſes, heat, and inflation; and it does not deſert the fibres, until they become ſtiff and cold, although the mind which perceives and wills, may have been a long time expelled by the deſtruction of the brain and heart, and even although the muſcle, by being taken out of the body, has been ſeparated from every imaginable connection with the mind.

Little, if any, reliance is to be put in the nævi materni, as is noticed in another place. That the direction of the vital motions, in diſeaſes, is not regulated by prudence, but almoſt entirely by the power of ſtimulus; we are explicitly taught by the moſt ancient and only certain practice, which reſtrains the exceſſive motions in acute and intermitting febrile diſeaſes, by the uſe of blood-letting, opium, nitre, Peruvian bark, &c. The ſage has no prerogative in the government of his body, over the mereſt ideot: and that the fœtus, which even at birth is ignorant of the motions of its muſcles, and learns by experience to walk, to ſwallow and to ſee, conſtructs its body, fabricated with ſuch incredible art, is an affirmation ſo repugnant to probability, and ſo abſurd, that of itſelf alone it is ſufficient to refute the hypotheſis.

The ſtate of aptitude for exerciſing the ſenſes and voluntary motion, in healthy organs, is called wakefulneſs. Indiſpoſition to ſuch exerciſe, and their perfect reſt, with healthy organs, is called ſleep.

In ſleep, the mind either thinks not at all of what ſhe knows or retains in memory; or only attends to the traces of paſt objects repoſited in the common ſenſory, the vivid repreſentations of which excite altogether the ſame perceptions in the mind as are made by the impreſſion of external objects upon the organs of ſenſe. Theſe repreſentations are called dreams; and have the effect, that while the reſt of the emporium of the

ſenſes and muſcular motion is at reſt, ſome part remains open, is pervaded by the ſpirits and watches. Sometimes certain voluntary motions are conjoined with theſe perceptions of the mind, ſo that the organs of ſpeech, many, or all of the limbs, are directed by theſe perceptions, as in ſomnambuliſts.

But, during ſleep, the motion of the heart proceeds, and alſo the diſtribution and circulation of all the humours in the body, the periſtaltic motion of the ſtomach and inteſtines, and the action of the ſphincters, Laſtly, the reſpiration itſelf continues to be performed in like manner. This conjunction of the quieſcence of certain organs with the motion of others, renders a knowledge of the mechanical cauſe of ſleep difficult.

Therefore, in order to inveſtigate it, we ſhall conſider all the cauſes, and all the phenomena, both of ſleep and vigilance, and trace them in all kinds of animals. For that condition, which is produced alike by all thoſe cauſes, will be the true cauſe of ſleep. Sleep naturally follows vigilance and the labours of human life. For when awake, there is almoſt a continual motion of the voluntary muſcles, and of the organs of the ſenſes, and the affections of the mind continually impart new ſtimuli to the nerves, blood-veſſels, and heart. Thus the blood, by continual motion and trituration, is altered from a bland nature to an alkaline putridity; while the more ſubtle ſpirits are diſſipated faſter than they are replaced, and gradually not only debility and laſſitude of the body are induced: and, if the want of ſleep be protracted too long, alſo feveriſh heat, acrimony of the humours, and loſs of ſtrength. On the return of night, torpor is perceived in all the long muſcles; the mind becomes unfit for deep thought, and the deſire of reſt pervades both mind and body. At this time, the powers which hold the body erect, ſuffer particularly; the eye-lids cloſe involuntarily, the lower jaw falls down, the neceſſity of yawning increaſes, the head nods forwards, the circumſtances of external objects affect us leſs; and laſtly, the ideas and thoughts become diſturbed, and a delirium enſues; from which the tranſition to ſleep is not perfectly known; but which invariably precedes ſleep. In this natural ſleep, which is common to all animals, the cauſe ſeems to be a deficiency of the nervous ſpirits, which have been in ſome manner conſumed by muſcular motion, and the exerciſe of the ſenſes, and of which probably a great quantity is exhaled.

The abſence of every irritation of the head, and other parts of the body, the perfect reſt of the mind and external ſenſes, and darkneſs, have great influence in promoting ſleep.

Again, a variety of cauſes which debilitate, induce and increaſe ſleep; ſuch as great loſſes of blood, veneſection, cooling medicines, opiates, and coldneſs of the atmoſphere, and alſo applications which drive the blood from the head, as warm-bathing of the feet, and a plentiful meal, which always produces ſleep in all kind of animals.

On the contrary, again, various hot medicines induce ſleep, by accelerating the flow of blood to the brain; ſuch as wine, ſpirits of all ſorts, but more eſpeciallly when reſolved into vapour, opium, hyoſcyamus, the indigeſtible particles of our aliments, acute and malignant fevers of various kinds; or by retarding the return of the venous blood, as fatneſs. All theſe cauſes ſeem to concur in this, that the blood being collected in the head, compreſſes the brain, and intercepts the courſe of the ſpirits into the nerves.

But likewiſe mechanical cauſes produce ſleep; for example, every

compreſſure of the dura mater and brain, whether from extravaſated blood, a depreſſed bone, or a collection of water in the ventricles.

Sleep, therefore, ariſes either from a ſimple abſence, deficiency and immobility of the ſpirits, or from compreſſion of the nerves; and always from the motion of the ſpirits through the brain being impeded.

This theory is confirmed by the cauſes of vigilance: for all thoſe things prevent ſleep which produce plenty of ſpirits; more eſpecially warm aromatic drinks, which ſend minute ſtimulating particles to the head; by which the motion of the blood is moderately quickened through the brain, and, being at the ſame time more diluted, it ſecretes more ſpirits in a given time.

Sleep, again, is prevented by cares of the mind, attentive and intereſting meditation, and pain of body and mind; all of which prevent the ſpirits in the ſenſorium commune from reſting, and the nerves from collapſing. Therefore, the former cauſes increaſe the quantity of the ſpirits, theſe increaſe their motion. And, therefore, we return to our former concluſion, namely, that the nature of ſleep conſiſts in the collapſe of the nerves proceeding from the ſenſorium commune.

Is the region of ſleep, therefore, in the ventricles of the brain? It is inconſiſtent with the univerſality of ſleep, which extends to animals which have no ventricles in their brain. Do the vital actions continue during ſleep, becauſe it is an affection peculiar to the brain, and independent of the cerebellum? and what is the cauſe of this diverſity, which occaſions the animal functions to reſt during ſleep, and the vital functions to continue? It is that already mentioned, that vital motions are prevented from reſting by perpetual ſtimuli, and perpetually exciting cauſes.

The effect of ſleep is the abatement of all the motions in the human body. For now the action of the heart alone remains to propel all the humours, while all the motions of the muſcles and ſentient nerves, and thoſe originating from the paſſions of the mind and volition, are removed; by which, while awake, the courſe of the blood and ſpirits was promoted, as well as by the heart. The heart gradually returns from its quick and almoſt feveriſh pulſation, to its morning ſlowneſs; the breathing becomes leſs and ſlower, the periſtaltic motion of the ſtomach and inteſtines, hunger, digeſtion, and the progreſſion of the feces, are all diminiſhed; the thinner juices move more ſlowly, while the more ſluggiſh are collected together, and the effuſed fat is accumulated; the nouriſhing jelly adheres more plentifully to its fibres and cavities; the conſumption of the ſpirits, the attrition of the blood, and the quantity of perſpiration, are all diminiſhed. Thus, while the nervous fluid continues to be ſecreted, and its conſumption to be diminiſhed, it is by degrees accumulated in the brain, ſo as to diſtend and fill the collapſed nerves, and from the acceſſion of the ſlighteſt ſtimulus, both the internal and external ſenſes are excited to action, and the ſyſtem is awakened. Sleep, continued for too great a length of time, diſpoſes to all the diſorders that attend ſlowneſs of cirulation, to fatneſs, drowſineſs, and cachexies; and is highly detrimental to the memory.

Whence the yawning of thoſe about to ſleep? To promote the paſſage of the blood through the lungs, which is now ſlower. Whence the ſtretching of the limbs? To overbalance, by the influx of the ſpirits, the natural contraction of the muſcles, by which all the limbs are put in a moderate degree of flexion,

the thick and ſhort part of the muſcle that ariſes from the firſt and ſecond ribs, and is inſerted into the upper angle of the ſcapula, its fibres aſcending obliquely backwards. The ſecond portion ariſes from the ſecond rib, behind the origin of the firſt portion, and likewiſe from the third and fourth ribs; this portion is thin and ſhort, and its fibres run nearly in a horizontal direction, to be inſerted into the baſis of the ſcapula. The third and moſt conſiderable portion is that which ariſes from the fifth, ſixth, ſeventh, and eighth ribs, and is inſerted into the lower angle of the ſcapula. The ſerratus magnus ſerves to move the ſcapula forwards, and it is chiefly by the contraction of this muſcle that the ſhoulder is ſupported, when loaded with any heavy weight. The ancients, and even many of the moderns, particularly Douglas and Cowper, ſuppoſed its chief uſe to be to dilate the thorax, by elevating the ribs; but it can only do this when the ſcapula is forcibly raiſed.

SERRĀTUS MAJOR ANTĪCUS. See *Serratus magnus*.

SERRĀTUS MINOR ANTĪCUS. See *Pectoralis minor*.

SERRĀTUS POSTĪCUS INFERĬOR. This is a thin muſcle, of conſiderable breadth, ſituated at the bottom of the back, under the middle part of the latiſſimus dorſi. It ariſes by a broad thin tendon, in common with that of the laſt deſcribed muſcle, from the ſpinous proceſſes of the two, and ſometimes of the three inferior dorſal vertebræ, and from three, and ſometimes four of thoſe of the lumbar vertebræ. It then becomes fleſhy, and, aſcending a little obliquely outwards and forwards, divides into three, and ſometimes four fleſhy ſlips, which are inſerted into the lower edges of the three or four inferior ribs, at a little diſtance from their cartilages. Its uſe ſeems to be, to pull the ribs downwards, backwards, and outwards.

SERRĀTUS SUPERĬOR POSTĪCUS. This is a ſmall, flat, and thin muſcle, ſituated at the upper part of the back, immediately under the rhomboideus. It ariſes, by a broad thin tendon, from the lower part of the ligamentum colli, from the ſpinous proceſs of the laſt vertebra of the neck, and the two or three uppermoſt of the back, and is inſerted into the ſecond, third, fourth, and ſometimes fifth ribs, by as many diſtinct ſlips. Its uſe is to expand the thorax, by pulling the ribs upwards and outwards.

SERUM, (*Serum, i*, n. from *ſerus*, late, becauſe it is the remainder of the milk after its better parts have been taken from it). The ſerum of the blood. The yellow and ſomewhat greeniſh fluid which ſeparates from the blood when cold and at reſt. See *Blood*.

SESAMOID BONES, (*Oſſa ſeſamoidea*, from σησαμον, an Indian grain, and ειδος, likeneſs). This term is applied to the little bones, which, from their ſuppoſed general reſemblance to the ſeeds of the ſeſamum, are called *oſſa ſeſamoidea*. They are found at the articulations of the great toes, and ſometimes at the joints of the thumbs; now and then we meet with them upon the condyles of the os femoris, at the lower extremity of the fibula, under the os cuboides of the tarſus, &c.—They do not exiſt in the fœtus, but as we advance in life, begin firſt to appear in a cartilaginous ſtate, and, at length, in adult ſubjects, are completely oſſified. Age and hard labour ſeem to add to the number and ſize of theſe bones, and being moſt commonly found wherever the tendons and ligaments are moſt expoſed to preſſure from the action of the muſcles, they are now generally conſidered by ana-

tomists as the ossified parts of tendons and ligaments. These bones are usually smooth and flat on the side of the bone on which they are placed; their upper surface is convex, and, in general, adheres to the tendon that covers it, and of which it may, in some measure, be considered as a part. Although their formation seems to be owing to accidental circumstances, yet as the two at the first joint of the great toe are much larger than the rest, and are seldom wanting in an adult, it would seem as if these bones were of some utility; perhaps by removing the tendons farther from the centre of motion, and thus increasing the power of the muscles. The ossa sesamoidea of the great toe and thumb seem likewise to be of use, by forming a groove for lodging the flexor tendons secure from compression.

SESAMOIDAL BONES. See *Sesamoid bones*.

SESĂMUM, (*Sesamum, i*, n. an Egyptian word). The oily grain. The seed and leaves of this plant, *Sesamum orientale* of Linnæus, are used medicinally in some countries on account of the bland oil the former contains, and for the mucilaginous nature of the latter.

SESĂMUM ORIENTĀLE. The systematic name of the sesamum of the pharmacopœias. See *Sesamum*.

SESĔLI, (*Seseli*, n. ind. and *seselis, is*, f. σεσιλι, παρα το σαωσαι ελλον; because it is salutary for young fawns). *Siler montanum*. Hart-wort. Sermountain. The seeds and roots of this plant, *Laserpitium siler* of Linnæus, which grows in the southern parts of Europe are directed as officinals. They have an agreeable smell, and a warm, glowing, aromatic taste; and, though neglected in this country, do not appear to be deservedly so.

SESĔLI CRETICUM. There is great confusion amongst the species of the seseli. The plant which bears this epithet in the pharmacopœias is the *Tordylium officinale* of Linnæus. The seeds are said to be diuretic.

SESĔLI MASSILĬENSE. Hart-wort of Marseilles. This plant is the *Seseli tortuosum* of Linnæus. The seeds are directed for medicinal use, and have a warm biting taste, and a greater degree of pungency than those of the *Laserpitium*.

SESĔLI TORTUŌSUM. The systematic name of the hart-wort of Marseilles. See *Seseli massilienſe*.

SESQUI. This word, joined with any number, weight, measure, &c. signifies one integer and an half; as *sesqui granum*, a grain and a half.

SETACĔUM, (*Setaceum, i*, n. from *seta*, a bristle; because horse hairs were first used to keep open the wound). A seton. See *Seton*.

SETON. An artificial ulcer made under the skin by means of an instrument called the seton needle, which carries with it a portion of thread or silk, that is moved backwards or forwards, and thus keeps up a constant irritation.

SETTERWORT. The bear's foot is sometimes so termed. See *Helleboraster*.

SEXUAL ACTION. Sexual functions. Those functions proper to each sex, by which the species is propagated, as the excretion of semen in men; menstruation, conception, the evolution of the fœtus, parturition, &c. in women.

SEXUAL SYSTEM. Linnæan system. The sexual system of plants was invented by the immortal Linnæus, professor of physic and botany at Upsal in Sweden. It is founded on the parts of fructification, viz. the stamens and pistills; these having been observed with more accuracy since the discovery of the uses for

and ſo to reſtore ſtrength to the extenſor muſcles. Whence the opinion, that, during ſleep, the motion of the heart becomes ſtronger, and the perſpiration more plentiful? From the heat of the bed-clothes, by which the perſpirable matter being confined, ſoftens and relaxes the ſkin. But any one that ſleeps in his uſual garments, grows colder; and animals which ſleep through the winter, become exceſſively cold, as dormice and hedge-hogs. Why do all animals grow ſleepy after taking food? Not from preſſure upon the aorta, or congeſtion of blood in the brain; for even animals which have ſcarcely any brain, ſleep after food. Do the indigeſtible particles of our aliments, by paſſing leſs eaſily through the brain, and compreſſing its medulla, render the ſleep leſs refreſhing? Is dreaming perpetual and inſeparable from ſleep? Is it ſo far natural, and a kind of ſubſtitute for ſenſation to the mind, that it may never be without thought? This does not ſeem probable. We rather aſcribe dreams to ſome morbid ſtate, or to ſome ſtimulating cauſe, interrupting the perfect reſt of the ſenſorium. Hence that ſleep refreſhes moſt which is without dreams, or at leaſt without the remembrance of them. Hence they are generally wanting in the firſt ſleep, at which time the ſpirits are moſt exhauſted, and return in the morning when theſe are in ſome meaſure repaired. Hence care, the ſtrong impreſſion of ſome idea upon the memory, indigeſtible food, exceſs, or any uneaſy poſture of the body, occaſion dreams; for they are uſually generated by ſome ſenſation with which, according to the laws of the aſſociation of ideas, the whole collection of ſimilar impreſſions connect themſelves. See *Vigilence*.

SENSIBILITY. The capability which a nerve poſſeſſes of conveying the ſenſation produced by the contact of another body with it. All parts poſſeſſed of a power of producing a change ſo as to excite a ſenſation, are called *ſenſible*; thoſe which are not poſſeſſed of this property *inſenſible*. To the inſenſible parts by nature belong all our fluids, the blood, bile, ſaliva, &c. and much of the ſolids, the hair, epidermis, nails, &c.; but the ſenſible parts are the ſkin, eyes, tongue, ear, noſe, muſcles, ſtomach, inteſtines, &c.

SENSŌRĬUM. *Senſorium commune*. See *Cerebrum*.

SENSŌRĬUM COMMŪNE. See *Cerebrum*.

SENTIENT EXTREMITIES. The extremities of the nerves.

SEPIA OFFICINALIS. The ſyſtematic name of the fiſh whoſe ſhell poſſeſſes calcalious qualities, and is often mixed into tooth-powders.

SEPIÆ OS. See *Sepia officinalis*.

SEPTFOIL. See *Tormentilla*.

SEPTIC, (*Septica*; from σηπω, to putrefy). Relating to putrefaction.

SEPTUM CEREBELLI. A proceſs of the dura mater, dividing the cerebellum perpendicularly into two principal parts.

SEPTUM CERĔBRI. The falciform proceſs of the dura mater is ſometimes ſo called. See *Falciform proceſs*.

SEPTUM CORDIS, (*Septum, i*, n. from *ſepio*, to ſeparate). The partition between the two ventricles of the heart.

SEPTUM LUCĬDUM. *Septum pellucidum*. The thin and tender portion of the brain dividing the lateral ventricles from each other.

SEPTUM NARĬUM. The partition between the noſtrils.

SEPTUM PELLUCĬDUM. See *Septum lucidum*.

SEPTUM THORĀCIS. See *Mediaſtinum*.

SEPTUM TRANSVERSUM. See *Diaphragm*.

SERAPINUM. The gum resin sagapenum is sometimes so called. See *Sagapenum*.

SERMOUNTAIN. See *Seseli*.

SEROUS APOPLEXY. See *Apoplexia*.

SERPENTARĬA GALLŌRUM. The arum dracunculus. See *Oracunculus*.

SERPENTARĬA HISPANĬCA. The viper's grass. See *Scorzonera*.

SERPENTARĬA VIRGINIĀNA, (*Serpentaria, æ*, f. so called from the resemblance of its roots to the tail of the rattlesnake). *Colubrina virgineana. Viperina virgineana.* Virginia snake-root. The plant which affords this root is the *Aristolochia serpentaria; foliis cordato-oblongis planis, caulibus infirmis flexuosis teretibus, floribus solitariis. Caulis geniculata valde nodosa. Flores ad radicem* of Linnæus. Class *Gynandria*. Order *Hexandria*. Snake-root has an aromatic smell, approaching to that of valerian, but more agreeable; and a warm, bitterish, pungent taste. It was first recommended as a medicine of extraordinary power in counteracting the poisonous effects of the bites of serpents; this, however, is now wholly disregarded: but as it possesses tonic and antiseptic virtues, and is generally admitted to be a powerful stimulant and diaphoretic, it is employed, in the present day, in some fevers where these effects are required. A *tinctura serpentariæ* is directed both by the London and Edinburgh pharmacopœias.

SERPENTUM LIGNUM. The nature of this root does not appear to be yet ascertained. It is the produce of the *Ophioxylum serpentium* of Linnæus, by whom it is said to be very bitter. In the cure of the bite of venomous serpents and malignant diseases it is said to be efficacious.

SERPENTUM RADIX. See *Mungos radix*.

SERPĪGO, (*Serpigo, inis*, f. from *serpo*, to creep; because it creeps on the surface of the skin by degrees). See *Herpes*.

SERPYLLUM, (*Serpyllum, i*, n. ερπυλλον; from ερπω, to creep, or *a serpendo*, by reason of its creeping nature). *Serpillum*. Wild or mother of thyme. *Thymus serpillum* of Linnæus. *Thymus erectus, foliis revolutis ovatis, floribus verticillato-spicatis*. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. This plant has the same sensible qualities as those of the garden thyme (see *Thymus*), but has a milder and rather more grateful flavour.

SERPYLLUM CITRĀTUM. Lemon thyme. A variety of the *Thymus serpillum* of Linnæus. It is very pungent; and has a particularly grateful odour, approaching to that of lemons.

SERRATULA AMARA. The systematic name of a species of saw-wort which is said to cure agues.

SERRĀTUS ANTĪCUS. See *Pectoralis minor*.

SERRĀTUS MAGNUS, (*Serratus*, from *serra*, a saw; so called from its saw-like appearance). This muscle is so named by Winslow and Albinus. Douglas calls it *serratus major anticus*, but improperly, as it is seated at the side, and not at the anterior part of the thorax. It is a broad fleshy muscle, of a very irregular shape, and is in part covered by the subscapularis, pectoralis, and latissimus dorsi. It arises, by fleshy digitations, from the eight superior ribs, and is inserted fleshy into the whole basis of the scapula internally, between the insertion of the rhomboides, and the origin of subscapularis, being folded, as it were, about the two angles of the scapula. This muscle may easily be divided into two and even three portions. The latter division has been adopted by Winslow. The first of these portions is

which nature has assigned them, a new set of principles have been derived from them, by means of which the distribution of plants has been brought to a greater precision, and rendered more conformable to true philosophy, in this system than in any one of those which preceded it. The author does not pretend to call it a natural system, he gives it as artificial only, and modestly owns his inability to detect the order pursued by nature in her vegetable productions; but of this he seems confident, that no natural order can ever be framed without taking in the materials out of which he has raised his own; and urges the necessity of admitting artificial systems for convenience, till one truly natural shall appear. Linnæus has given us his *Fragmenta methodi naturalis*, in which he has made a distribution of plants under various orders, putting together in each such as appear to have a natural affinity to each other; this, after a long and fruitless search after the natural method, he gives as the result of his own speculation, for the assistance of such as may engage in the same pursuit.

Not able to form a system after the natural method, Linnæus was more fully convinced of the absolute necessity of adopting an artificial one. For the student to enter into the advantages this system maintains over all others, it is necessary that he be instructed in the science of botany, which will amply repay him for his enquiry. The following is a short outline of the sexual system:

The parts of the fructification of a plant are,

1. The *calyx*, called also the empalement, or flower cup.

2. The *corols*, or foliation, which is the gaudy part of the flower, called vulgarly the leaves of the flower.

3. The *stamens*, or threads, called also the chives; these are considered as the male parts of the flower.

4. The *pistil*, or pointal, which is the female part.

5. The *pericarp*, or seed vessel.

6. The *seed*.

7. The *receptacle* or base, on which these parts are seated.

The four first are properly parts of the flower, and the three last parts of the fruit. It is from the number, proportion, position, and other circumstances attending these parts of the fructification, that the classes and orders, and the genera they contain, are to be characterized, according to the sexual system.

Such flowers as want the stamens, and have the pistil, are termed *female*.

Those flowers which have the stamens, and want the pistil, are called *male*.

Flowers which have both stamens and pistils are said to be *hermaphrodite*.

Neuter flowers are such as have neither stamens nor pistils.

Hermaphrodite flowers are sometimes distinguished into *male-hermaphrodites* and *female hermaphrodites*. This distinction takes place when, although the flower contains the parts belonging to each sex, one of them proves abortive or ineffectual; if the defect be in the stamina, it is a female hermaphrodite, if in the pistil, a male one.

Plants, in regard to sex, take also their denominations in the following manner:

1. *Hermaphrodite plants* are such as bear flowers *upon the same root* that are all hermaphrodite.

2. *Androgynous plants*, are such as, *upon the same root*, bear both male and female flowers, distinct from each other, that is, in separate flowers.

3. *Male plants*, such as bear male flowers only upon the same root.

4. *Female plants*, ſuch as bear female flowers only upon the ſame root.

5. *Polygamous plants*, ſuch as, either on the ſame or on different roots, bear hermaphrodite flowers, and flowers of either or both ſexes.

The firſt general diviſion of the whole body of vegetables is, in the ſexual ſyſtem, divided into twenty-four *claſſes*; theſe again are ſubdivided into *orders*; the orders into *genera*; the genera into *ſpecies*; and the ſpecies into *varieties*, where they are worthy of note.

A Table of the Claſſes and Orders.

Classes.	Orders.
1. Monandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia.
2. Diandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia.
3. Triandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia.
4. Tetrandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Tetragynia.
5. Pentandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Tetragynia. 5. Pentagynia. 6. Pologynia.
6. Hexandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Tetragynia. 5. Polygynia.
7. Heptandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Tetragynia. 4. Heptagynia.
8. Octandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Tetragynia.
9. Enneandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Trigynia. 3. Hexagynia.
10. Decandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Pentagynia. 5. Decagynia.
11. Dodecandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Pentagynia. 5. Dodecagynia.
12. Icoſandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Pentagynia. 5. Pologynia.
13. Polyandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Tetragynia. 5. Pentagynia. 6. Hexagynia. 7. Polygynia.
14. Didynamia.	1. Gymnoſpermia. 2. Angioſpermia.
15. Tetradynamia.	1. Siliculoſa. 2. Siliquoſa.
16. Monadelphia.	1. Pentandria. 2. Decandria. 3. Endecandria. 4. Dodecandria. 5. Polyandria.
17. Diadelphia.	1. Pentandria. 2. Hexandria.
18. Polyadelphia.	1. Pentandria. 2. Icoſandria. 3. Polyandria.
19. Syngeneſia.	1. Polygamia æqualis. 2. Polygamia ſuperflua. 3. Polygamia fruſtranea. 4. Polygamia neceſſaria. 5. Polygamia ſegregata. 6. Monogamia.
20. Gynandria.	1. Diandria. 2. Triandria. 3. Tetrandria. 4. Pentandria. 5. Hexandria. 6. Decandria. 7. Dodecandria. 8. Polyandria.

Classes.	Orders.
1. Monoecia.	1. Monandria. 2. Diandria. 3. Triandria. 4. Tetrandria. 5. Pentandria. 6. Hexandria. 7. Heptandria. 8. Polyandria. 9. Monadelphia. 10. Syngeneſia. 11. Gynandria.
2. Dioecia.	1. Monandria. 2. Diandria. 3. Triandria. 4. Tetrandria. 5. Pentandria. 6. Hexandria. 7. Octandria. 8. Enneandria. 9. Decandria. 10. Dodecandria. 11. Polyandria. 12. Monadelphia. 13. Syngeneſia. 14 Gynandria.
3. Polygamia.	1. Monoecia. 2. Dioecia. 3. Trioecia.
4. Cryptogamia.	1. Filices. 2. Muſci. 3. Algæ. 4. Fungi.
Appendix.	Palmæ.

Explanation of theſe terms. As theſe terms in the Greek language, from whence they are taken, are all expreſſive of the principal circumſtance that obtains in the claſs to which they are applied, the explanation of them will give the reader a good inſight into the proper characters of the ſeveral claſſes, and the ſexual diſtinctions on which they are founded.

Monandria; from μονος, one, and ανηρ, a huſband, that is, a ſtamen.

Diandria; from δις, two, and ανηρ, a huſband.

Triandria; from τρεις, three, and ανηρ, a huſband.

Tetrandria; from τεσσαρες, four, and ανηρ, a huſband.

Pentandria; from πεντε, five, and ανηρ, a huſband.

Hexandria; from εξ, ſix, and ανηρ, a huſband.

Heptandria; from επτα, ſeven, and ανηρ, a huſband.

Octandria; from οκτω, eight, and ανηρ, a huſband.

Enneandria; from εννεα, nine, and ανηρ, a huſband.

Decandria; from δεκα, ten, and ανηρ, a huſband.

It is neceſſary to obſerve here, that the flowers muſt all be hermaphrodite in theſe claſſes; for ſhould the female part be wanting, the plant would belong to ſome other claſs, notwithſtanding the number of ſtamina may be ſuch as would otherwiſe refer it to one of theſe.

Dodecandria; from δωδεκα, twelve, and ανηρ, a huſband.

Notwithſtanding the term implies that the flowers have twelve huſbands, the claſs is not confined to this number, but includes all ſuch hermaphrodite flowers as are furniſhed with any number of ſtamina, from *twelve* to *nineteen* inclusive. No flowers have yet been diſcovered that have eleven ſtamina, which is the reaſon no claſs has been allotted to that number.

Icoſandria; from εικοσι, twenty, and ανηρ, a huſband.

Here, again, the title is to be underſtood with conſiderable latitude; for though it means that the flowers have *twenty* ſtamens, yet the plants belonging to this claſs are rarely found with leſs, yet they frequently have a greater number, and are therefore not to be known with certainty from the next claſs.

Polyandria; from πολυς, many, and ανηρ, a huſband.

This claſs comprehends thoſe her-

maphrodite plants whoſe flowers have more ſtamens diſunited than twenty.

Didynamia; from δις, two, and δυναμις, power.

This term imports the *power* or *ſuperiority* of two, and is applied to this claſs, becauſe its flowers have four ſtamina, of which there are two longer than the reſt. This circumſtance alone is ſufficient to diſtinguiſh this from the fourth claſs, where the four ſtamens are equal.

Tetradynamia; from τεσσερες, four, and δυναμις, power.

This term implies the power or ſuperiority of four, and accordingly there are in the flowers of this claſs ſix ſtamens, four of which are longer than the reſt, which circumſtance diſtinguiſhes them from thoſe of the ſixth claſs where they are equal.

Monadelphia; from μονος, one, and αδελφος, a brotherhood.

The word here compounded with the numerical term, ſignifies a brother. This relation is employed to expreſs the union of the filaments of the ſtamen, which in this claſs do not ſtand ſeparate, but join at the baſe, and form *one* ſubſtance, out of which they proceed as from a common mother, and the title, therefore, expreſſes a ſingle brotherhood, meaning, that there is but one ſet of ſtamens ſo united, which diſtinguiſhes this claſs from the two following. The number of ſtamens, it is to be recollected, is not limited.

Diadelphia; from δις, two, and αδελφος, a brotherhood.

This term implies a double brotherhood, or two ſets of ſtamens, united in the manner explained in the former claſs. The number of ſtamens is not limited.

Polyadelphia; from πολυς, many, and αδελφος, a brotherhood.

Many brotherhoods or ſets of ſtamens is meant by this term.

Syngeneſia; from συν, together, an γενεσις, generation.

This term implies *congenegatio* alluding to the circumſtance of th ſtamens; in which, though the ſta mens ſtand ſeparate, yet their an thers or tops, which are the part more immediately ſubſervient t generation, are united in a cy linder, and perform their office to gether.

Gynandria; from γυνη, a wife, an ανηρ, a huſband.

This term alludes to the ſingula circumſtance of this claſs, in th flowers of which the ſtamens gro upon the piſtil; ſo that the male an female parts are united, and do no ſtand ſeparate, as in other hermaphro dite flowers.

Monoecia; from μονος, one, an οικος, a houſe.

The word here compounded wit the numerical term, ſignifies a *hou* or *habitation*. To underſtand th application of this title, it muſt b obſerved, that the plants of this cla are not hermaphrodite, but andro gynous; the flowers that have th ſtamens wanting the piſtil, and thoſ that have the piſtil wanting the ſta men; ſo that *monoecia* ſignifying *ſingle houſe*, alludes to this circum ſtance, that in this claſs the male an female flowers are both found on th ſame plant or houſe.

Dioecia; from δις, two, and οικο a houſe.

This term ſignifies two houſes, an is applied to this claſs, the plants o which are male and female, to expre the circumſtance of the *male* flowe being on one plant, and the *fema* on another; the contrary of which the caſe of the androgynous cla *monoecia*.

Polygamia; from πολυς, many, an γαμος, nuptials.

This term implies plurality of ma riages. This claſs produces, eith

on the ſame or different plants, *rmaphrodite* flowers, and alſo flowers *one* ſex only, be it male or female; flowers of *each* ſex; and the latter ceiving impregnation from, or giv- g it to the hermaphrodites, as their x happens to be the parts eſſential generation in the hermaphrodite owers, do not confine themſelves to ie correſponding parts within the me flower, but become of *promiſ- ious* uſe, which is the reaſon of giv- ig this title.

Cryptogamia; from κρυπτος, con- ealed, and γαμος, nuptials.

This term means a concealment of arriages; the claſs conſiſts, there- ore, of ſuch plants as either bear heir flowers concealed within the uit, or have them ſo ſmall as to be nperceptible.

Explanation of the titles of the orders.

Monogynia; from μονος, one, and υνη, a woman, that is, a piſtil.

Diaginia; from δι, two, and γυνη, woman.

Trigynia; from τρεις, three, and υνη, a woman.

Tetragynia; from τεσσαρες, four, nd γυνη, a woman.

Pentagynia; from πεντε, five, and υνη, a woman.

Hexagynia; from ἑξ, ſix, and γυνη, woman.

Decagynia; from δεκα, ten, and υνη, a woman.

Polygynia; from πολυς, many, and υνη, a woman.

Theſe are the titles that occur in he thirteen firſt claſſes, and the ge- neral explanation of one piſtil, two piſtils, &c. will be ſufficient to make it appear how they are employed in the claſs.

The claſs didynamia contains the orders,

Gymoſpermia; from γυμος, naked, and σπερμα, a ſeed.

Angioſpermia; from ἀγγος, a veſſel, and σπερμα, a ſeed;

Which are diſtinguiſhed by the ſeed being either naked, or encloſed in a pericarp or ſeed-veſſel.

The two orders in the claſs tetra- dynamia are founded on a diſtinction in the pericarp.

Siliculoſa; means a *little ſiliqua.*

Siliqua; which is a particular kind of ſeed-veſſel.

To explain the orders contained in the claſs ſyngeneſia, viz.

Polygamia æqualis,
Polygamia ſuperflua,
Polygamia fruſtranea,
Polygamia neceſſaria,
Polygamia ſegregata,
Monogamia,

it is neceſſary to explain what is meant by polygamy in flowers. It has been before obſerved, what is meant by *polygamous plants:* but, in reſpect to flowers, the term is applied to a ſingle flower only, for the flowers of this claſs being compound, a polygamy ariſes from the intercom- munication of the ſeveral florets in one and the ſame flower. Now, the *polygamy of flowers*, in this ſenſe of the word, affords four caſes, which are the foundations of the four firſt orders of this claſs: *equal polygamy*, is when all the flowers are herma- phrodite: *ſuperfluous polygamy*, is when ſome of the florets are herma- phrodite, and others female only; for, in this caſe, as the fructification is perfected in the hermaphrodites, the addition of the females is a ſu- perfluity: *fruſtraneous polygamy*, is when ſome of the florets are herma- phrodite, and other neuter; for, in this caſe, the addition of the neuters is of no aſſiſtance to the fructification: *neceſſary polygamy*, is when ſome of the florets are male, and the reſt female; for, in this caſe, there being no hermaphrodites, the polygamy

arising from the composition of the florets of different sexes, is *necessary* to perfect the fructification: *polygamia segregata* implies separation; the plants of this order having partial cups growing out of the common calyx which surround and divide the florets: the order *monogamia* signifies a single marriage, and is opposed to the polygamy of the four other orders; for in this, although the authors are united, which is the essential character of the flowers of this class, the flower is simple, and not compounded of many florets, as in the other orders.

The titles of the other order to that of trioecia, in the class polygamia, have already been explained.

Trioecia; from τρεις, three, and οικος, a house; because the polygamy is on three distinct plants, one producing male flowers, another female, and a third hermaphrodite or androgynous.

The class cryptogamia contains the orders of

Filices, or ferns;
Musci, or mosses;
Algæ, or flags;
Fungi, or mushrooms.

This short explanation of the Linnæan system has been introduced, in order to convey a general idea to medical student of its nature, and also the meanings of the several terms.

The various medicinal plants will be found systematically arranged under the title *Materia Medica*.

SEYDSCHUTZ WATER. See *Sedlitz water*.

SHARP-POINTED DOCK. See *Oxylapathum*.

SHINGLES. *Zona. Zoster. Cinguli.* An erysipelatous herpetic eruption, extending sometimes round the body, in small distinct vesicles, which itch intolerably, and induce a high degree of fever. See *Herpes*.

SIALAGOGUES (*Medicamenta Sialagoga*; from σιαλαγωγος, saliva, and αγω, to expel). Those medicines are so called, which excite an uncommon flow of saliva: such are mercurial preparations, pyrethrum, &c. They are divided into *sialagoga topica*, as scilla, nicotiana, piper, &c. and *sialagoga interna*, as the various preparations of mercury.

SIGESBECKIA ORIENTALIS. The systematic name of a plant which is said to be useful in removing strangury, and in calculous diseases, gout, and fluor albus.

SIGHT. Hearing is the perception of the vibrations of the air; sight perceives those of light: the organ of hearing is bony, that it may admit of resonance; the organ of vision chiefly consists of humours, which refract: the complex nature of this organ was rendered necessary for the defence of parts, so very tender, and by the diversity of the humours, to be contained each in its proper integuments.

The most external defence of the eye is afforded by the eye-brow, which is a protuberance of the skin, sustained by muscles, at the bottom of the forehead, full of thick imbricated hairs, and along with the frontal muscle, capable of being pulled down by the action of the corrugator, and orbicular muscles, so as to afford a shade to the eye in too strong a light. After the eye-brow has completed its functions, it is again raised by the frontal muscle, which is inserted into it, thin and fleshy, immediately under the continuous skin, fastened to the cellular membrane of the skull, which is shining, not very unlike an aponeurosis, and is drawn backwards by the rectangu-

ar occipital muſcle. The depreſſion of the eye-brow denotes care, its levation, tranquillity and ſerenity of nind. It alſo turns aſide the courſe of the ſweat, and keeps off inſects rom the eye.

The eyelids furniſh a nearer protection to the eye. Theſe are folds of the ſkin, proceeding from that of the face, extenuated, lengthened out into an edge, as if divided, reflected upon itſelf, and retracing the courſe of the former lamina, from which it is ſeparated by ſome cellular ſubſtance; then having become membranous, vaſcular, and therefore red, and thin, it it carried over the ball of the eye, under the denomination of conjunctiva tunica, and covers the anterior portion of the ſclerotica, and finally the cornea. The epidermis accompanies it in its whole courſe, even where it adheres to the cornea. The upper eyelid is larger, and more moveable: the lower is ſmaller; and rather paſſive, than moved by any power of its own. The nerves, which give ſenſibility to the eyelids, are numerous, from the firſt and ſecond branches of the fifth pair, and from the portio dura of the ſeventh; they abound with arteries from the ophthalmics, temporals, branches of the internal maxillaries, infra-orbitals, and facials.

That the eyelids may ſhut together more exactly, each of them has a a cartilaginous arch, called tarſus, upon that margin which touches the other. It is ſlender, of a lunar figure, extenuated outwards, and ſtretches the eyelid, preventing the formation of folds while it is elevated or depreſſed. The elevation of the upper eyelid is performed by a peculiar muſcle, ariſing from the involucrum of the optic nerve gradually ſpreading, and continued by its expanſion to the tarſus. This is conſiderably aſſiſted in its action by the frontalis, which is variouſly connected with the orbicularis, and draws it upwards. The upper eyelid is depreſſed by the orbicularis, as it is called; a broad muſcle, both widely expanded around the orbit, and contained in the eyelids, carried as far as both angles of the eye, and having, as fixed points, the ligament adhering to the proceſs of the maxillary bone, and ſome fibres inſerted into the frontal and upper jaw-bone. The ſame muſcle elevates the lower eyelid, and covers the eye in ſuch a manner that no duſt or light can enter it during ſleep. The lower eyelid is depreſſed by two bundles of fibres, inſerted into the upper lip.

Finally, that the tumid margins of the eyelids may not ſhut too cloſely, they are provided with eyelaſhes, or fringes of hair ſpreading outwards, proceeding in many rows from the edges of the eyelids, which, by decuſſating each other, increaſe the ſhade and obſcurity. Theſe are of uſe in more diſtinct viſion, by excluding the extraneous rays, when we require a diſtinct repreſentation of any object.

The eyelids are prevented from hurting each other by the ſebaceous glands of Meibomius, conſiſting of thirty or more follicles in each eyelid, which are ſimple, bifid, or trifid; placed in general according to the length of the lid, and compoſed of peculiar blind roundiſh cavities, which unite into one larger ſerpentine duct, of which the orifice is in the margin of the eyelid itſelf. Theſe diſcharge a ſoft unctuous liniment, which mixes and waſhes off with the tears.

But the perpetual attrition cauſed by the eyelids aſcending and deſcending againſt the globe of the eye is prevented, the delicacy of the cornea is preſerved, and any inſects or other

irritating ſubſtances which may have got into the eye, are waſhed away by the tears; a ſaline, pellucid, and evaporable liquor, which never ceaſes to be poured over the anterior ſurface of the eye, but never runs over the cheeks, unleſs accumulated from ſome cauſe. This liquor is exhaled partly from the arteries of the conjunctiva, as we ſee from an imitation of nature by injecting water: and in part it is believed to proceed from a gland ſeated in a hollow receſs of the os frontis, ſomewhat hard, and of the conglomerate kind; divided into many lobes, intermixed with fat, and ſupplied with many blood-veſſels from the ophthalmics and internal maxillaries; and pervaded by many nerves ariſing from a peculiar branch of the firſt trunk of the fifth pair.

From this lachrymal gland, ſix or more viſible ducts deſcend, which open on the inner ſide of the conjunctiva of the eyelid. In man theſe ducts have been lately diſcovered by credible authors. The ſecretion of the tears is increaſed by the repeated contractions of the orbicular muſcle, either from irritation, or ſome depreſſing paſſion, by which means the tears are conveyed over the whole eye, and the ſurface of the conjunctiva is waſhed.

After the tears have performed their office, ſome part of them being evaporated by the air, the reſt, that they may not prove injurious by their accumulation, are propelled by the orbicular muſcle, towards its origin next the noſe, and to the innermoſt part of the commiſſure of the eyelids; which from not having any tarſus, does not meet exactly together. There a caruncle, full of ſebaceous hairy follicles, oblong, and conical outwards, interpoſes itſelf between the eyelids, and prevents them from meeting, and anoints with its liniment thoſe parts of the eyelid which have no Meibomian ducts. Before it, a ſmall third eyelid deſcends perpendicularly, and joins the true eyelids; it is larger in beaſts. At the beginning of this ſpace interpoſed between the eyelids, in which the tears are collected, in each margin a little papilla projects, having on orifice, ſurrounded by callous cellular ſubſtance, and perpetually open unleſs when convulſively cloſed. The orifice, which is called the punctum lachrymale, abſorbs the tears from the ſinus in which they are collected partly by attraction, and partly by the impulſe of the orbicular muſcle. If theſe points are obſtructed, the tears run over and excoriate the cheek.

From each point, a peculiar duct much wider, thin, and included in the ſkin, proceeds, the one downward above the caruncle, and the other more tranſverſely inwards, and under it; which approach each other, and are inſerted by two mouths into the lachrymal ſac, not quite at the top which name is given to a cavity formed in the groove of the os unguis and upper jaw, lined firſt with a hard cellular, and as it were aponeurotic membrane; then by another, red and pulpy, continued from the membrane of the nares, pervious to the exhaling moiſture, and ſomewhat of an oval figure. From this veſicle the naſal duct deſcends a little backwards into the nares, and opens by an obliquely oblong aperture, covered by the lower os ſpongioſum, into their loweſt meatus. Through this the ſuperfluous tears deſcend into the noſe, which they in part moiſten. A muſcle is by ſome aſcribed to this ſac; but it is not yet ſufficiently aſcertained.

The eye, of a globular ſhape, compreſſed before, though not always in the ſame manner, longer from the

rain to the cornea than from the ght ſide to the left, is ſituated in the rbit, which is an oſſeous cavity, al- moſt conical, compoſed of ſeven ones, interrupted in the back and uter ſides by larger fiſſures, and idening forwards, and by which it s defended on all ſides. But as this s larger than the eye, it is filled by much very ſoft fat, ſurrounding the lobe of the eye, and allowing it free notion.

The eye begins from a nerve, by he expanſion of whoſe coats thoſe of the eye are formed. Its origin we have already deſcribed. Having paſſed acroſs the crus of the brain, t joins with its fellow from the other ide, and coheres with it for a conſi- lerable way, by much medullary ubſtance; yet ſo that the right goes o the right eye, and the left to the eft, though not without ſome reci- procal intermixture of medulla. The nerve then enters the orbit, a little nflected, and of a round form, ſome- what compreſſed; and is inſerted, not into the middle of the globe of the eye, but a little nearer to the noſe.

The nerve having reached the eye, the inner plate of its dura mater, which it received in the opening of the ſphenoidal bone, is detached: or having become thicker, is extended around the eye, as its firſt coat, call- ed the ſclerotic, or adheres to the ſclerotic, which perfectly reſembles it, and always ariſes from it. The other plate of the dura mater, the external, recedes and forms the peri- oſteum of the orbit: the pia mater, which is in this nerve very diſtinct and full of veſſels, having become entirely dark coloured and thin, lines the inſide of the ſclerotic. The re- maining medullary central part of the nerve, continued from the brain, but divided by cellular plates, contracts into a depreſſed white conical pa- pilla; which entering through the holes in the white circle of the cho- roid coat, and again expanding, pro- duces the moſt internal membrane of the eye, the retina.

The ſclerotica is in general white, furniſhed with few veſſels, tough and compact, reſembling the nature of ſkin, of a figure very nearly globular, but compreſſed before, and is thicker at the back part. Before this coat, which is perforated by circular holes in its fore part, is placed, and ob- liquely connected with it, a more convex portion of a ſphere; pellucid, compoſed of many plates, whoſe veſ- ſels are filled with pellucid water, and are difficult of demonſtration, in- ſenſible, and almoſt circular, circu- lar towards the noſe, and oval to- wards the temples: it is termed the cornea, and through it the light paſſes into the inſide of the eye. It readily imbibes and exudes water. Before the anterior and flatter part of the ſclerotica, and before the cornea, the conjunctiva is detached from each of the eyelids, and is joined to the ſclerotica by proper cellular ſubſtance, which may be inflated; and is repleniſhed, partly with red veſſels, and partly with their pel- lucid continuations.

The origin of the choroid coat, is from the circumference of the white cellular circle, terminating the ſub- ſtance of the optic nerve, and through whoſe numerous foramina, and from which the retina and arteria centralis retinæ proceeds. At that place the choroides adheres to the ſclerotic, and to the circle above deſcribed. Then it is expanded concentrically, within the ſclerotic, with which it is united, perhaps by ſome cellular ſub- ſtance, and by many veſſels, which come from it to the choroides. Out- wardly it is of a brown colour, but inwardly of a deep ruſſet or almoſt black, and at the ſame time villous;

the two ſurfaces are ſeparable by maceration; and the innermoſt may be diſtingniſhed by the name of Ruyſch; but it grows white through age. When it has reached the beginning of the pellucid cornea, it there becomes cloſely connected with the ſclerotica, by much cellular ſubſtance, having the appearance of a white circle, called orbiculus ciliaris, and then turns off in another direction; namely, the coat, which was before ſpherically expanded, is now ſtretched under the arch of the cornea, in the form of a circle, a little convex forwards, and incomplete, having in its centre a circular foramen called the pupil, which is ſeated nearer to the noſe, and is larger towards the temple. The anterior part of this ring is called the iris; and the back part, ſeparable from the former in the human body, by maceration, in ſome animals even by the knife, is, from the black pigment with which it is covered, called the uvea. On the anterior ſurface of the iris appear numerous radiating and branching ſtreaks, of various colours in different people, and entirely covered with flocculi. Theſe terminate on this ſide of the pupil in a ſerrated circle, from which other ſimilar ſtreaks extend, even to the edge of the iris. They are ſerpentine when the pupil is dilated, and ſtraight when it is contracted. On the poſterior ſurface of the uvea is much black pigment; which being waſhed off, ſtraight radiated ſtreaks appear, extending to the pupil, and not flocculent. Orbicular fibres, concentrical with the pupil, have not been obſerved, either with the naked eye, or with the microſcope, even in the ox; but only in the uvea, an internal circle diſtinguiſhed by obſcurer rays, and leſs villous. In the human fœtus, the pupil is ſhut up, and the iris being continued, makes a complete circle. That part of it which extends acroſs the pupil is of a vaſcular texture.

Though the iris has little ſenſibility, and is not endowed with any mechanical irritability; yet during life, in man, quadrupeds, and birds, the pupil is contracted by every greater degree of light, and is dilated by every ſmaller one; hence it is alſo rendered broader for viewing diſtant objects, and narrower for viewing ſuch as are near. The cauſe of this dilatation ſeems to be a remiſſion of the powers reſiſting the aqueous humour; as proved by the dilatation of the pupil, from debility, ſyncope, and death. The contraction is leſs underſtood, and perhaps only depends on the ſtronger afflux of humours into the colourleſs veſſels of the iris, by which theſe veſſels are extended; and, at the ſame time, the iris is rendered longer, and ſhuts up the greater part of the pupil: ſo that this motion has ſomething in common with inflammation, as agreeing in their cauſe. In young people, the pupil is more evidently moved and contracted; as the eye gradually grows callous in old people, it becomes almoſt immoveable. In an animal twenty-three hours after death, the iris has been ſeen extended by heat ſo as to ſhut the pupil.

Behind the uvea, from the ſame circle in which the choroides unites with the ſclerotica, more externally than the cornea, thick ſtriæ, elegantly plaited, ariſing from the choroides, white, with parallel veſſels running under them, with plumous, pendulous, extremities, joined to the looſe and thin retina, and every where covered with a good deal of black pigment, depart, in the form of a perforated ring, inwards from the tunica choroidea, and proceed forwards behind the ciliary circle, and reſt upon the vitreous humour; and,

laſtly, upon the capſule of the cryſtalline lens, but do not adhere to them. They are denominated the ciliary ligaments. The origin of the pigment is not known; nor have the ſecreting glands, which ſome have ſuppoſed, been found. Among its uſes, one ſeems to be to keep the cryſtalline lens firm. In infants, this ſame mucus, behind the ciliary proceſſes, expreſſes the figure of a radiated flower.

The retina, which is a true continuation of the medulla of the optic nerve, and therefore very tender, mucous, and evaporable, is expanded within the choroides into a ſimilar ſphere, concentric with it; and immediately incloſes the vitreous humour. But when the retina has reached the ciliary proceſſes, it follows their courſe, ſupporting their arteries and ſtriæ, and proceeds to the cryſtalline lens, adhering to and covering its capſule, if the obſervations of ſome anatomiſts, are to be relied on; for in quadrupeds this termination of it is not perfectly certain, although in birds the internal lamina of the retina, covered with the ciliary body, evidently continued to the cryſtalline lens; to the circumference of which it alſo adheres in man. The fabric of the retina is ſuch, that externally its ſoft and medullary globules form a thick and pulpy membrane, within which radiated fibres proceeding from the lamina cribroſa, and continued forwards, conſtitute a thinner involucrum, very readily obſerved in fiſhes, and alſo in ſome birds and quadrupeds, but not in man. Arterial and venous veſſels with red trunks, form a net in the internal ſurface of the retina, which when accurately filled with coloured water compoſe a membrane.

Theſe coats, reſembling the coats of a bulbous root, are ſupported, and the ſpherical figure of the eye is preſerved by its humours: of which one is a ſolid, another a ſoft body, and a third truly a liquor. Firſt, then, the concave ſurface of the retina is every where filled by the principal or vitreous humour, of which the ſtructure conſiſts of a peculiar thin, pellucid, cellular membrane, in whoſe cellular intervals is contained a very pellucid liquid, very rarely altering even in old age, completely evaporable by heat, nearly allied to the aqueous humour, and ſomewhat denſer than water. Its veſſels, which are moſt manifeſt in fiſh, lie in the back part, moſt beautifully radiated from the central trunk of the retina, embracing the convexity of the vitreous humour; and inſerted into a circle formed not far from the lens by other arteries coming from the choroides, and which may be ſeen in the ſheep. The vitreous membrane, which is tender conſidering its body, adheres to the lens in two places, before and behind; ſo that a hollow ſpace is intercepted in the middle between the two inſertions, around the cryſtalline lens. This ſpace is divided in different places by ſome fibres. On its anterior ſurface the ſtriæ of the ciliary body imprint their marks.

But, in the fore part of the vitreous body, behind the uvea, there is an orbicular depreſſion of conſiderable depth, into the cavity of which the cryſtalline lens, (alſo, though improperly, ranked amongſt the humours), is received. The figure of this lens, reſembling frozen jelly, is compoſed of two elliptical convex ſegments, the anterior of which is flatter, and the poſterior more gibbous. It is conſtructed of concentric laminæ, connected by cellular fibres, which themſelves are compoſed of fibres elegantly diſpoſed through fine cellular membrane. Betwixt the plates of the cryſtalline lens, is alſo contained a pellucid liquor, but

which in old age, naturally acquires a yellow colour. The innermoſt ſcales are more cloſely compacted; and form as it were, a harder nucleus; externally it adheres ſo very looſely to the capſule, that when that is broken, it very readily ſprings out; and ſome even ſay, that a little water is effuſed around it. It is ſupplied with an artery from the retina, which perforates the middle of the vitreous humour; and enters behind; for veſſels have not yet been diſcovered on the anterior ſurface. The whole lens is contained in a ſtrong, thick, elaſtic capſule of a pellucid membrane, more firm in the fore part, and which is lined poſteriorly by the vitreous tunic.

Laſtly, the aqueous humour, which is extremely pellucid and fluid, and which is renewed again if it be let out, ſwims in the ſmall triangular curvilinear ſpace betwixt the uvea and cryſtalline lens, and in that larger ſegment of a hollow ſphere which lies betwixt the iris and the cornea. This humour ſeems to exhale from the ſmall arteries of the iris, uvea, and ciliary proceſſes; being again abſorbed by the correſponding veins, while ſome portion of it is abſorbed by and exhaled through the cornea. This humour alſo moiſtens the uvea and capſule of the lens. About the beginning of the laſt century, the ſpaces filled with this liquor were called the chambers of the eye; that between the cornea and iris the anterior one, and that ſmall one between the ſurface of the cryſtalline lens and the uvea the poſterior.

The eye, thus conſtructed, is provided with muſcles externally inſerted into it, by which it is governed. Namely, into the circle of the ſclerotica, which is contiguous to the cornea, are inſerted four ſtraight muſcles, ariſing almoſt in one circle from the dura mater of the optic nerve; where, departing from the nerve, it coheres with the perioſteum of the orbit, and proceeding forwards with their bellies round the bulb of the eye, they terminate again by their aponeuroſes, meeting together in another circle. Of theſe, the elevator is the leaſt, and the abductor rather the longeſt. The office of each of theſe muſcles appears very plainly; ſince, being bent round the convex bulb of the eye, as about a pulley, they muſt, of courſe, elevate, depreſs, or turn the eye either to the noſe or to the temples. Moreover, two of them acting together may move the eye diagonally; as upwards and outwards, upwards and inwards, &c. Laſtly, when all the four ſtraight muſcles contract together, there is ſcarcely a doubt that they draw back the whole eye within the head towards their origin, and thus bring the cryſtalline lens nearer to the retina.

But the fabric of the two oblique muſcles of the eye is more compound. The upper of theſe, ariſing together with the recti, is long and ſlender, aſcending forwards to a notch in the os frontis, which is completed into a hole by a double ligament, which on each ſide ſuſtains a cartilage, excavated in the middle, and almoſt quadrangular. Through this canal paſſes the tendon of the obliquus, which being reflected backwards and outwards, included in a capſule of its own, is inſerted into the globe of the eye behind the ſtraight muſcles. This draws the globe forwards, as if out of the orbit, and inwards, and turns the pupil inwards and downwards. The other, the obliquus minor from the ſinus of the lachrymal foramen in the upper jaw, aſcends immediately outwards from the os unguis round the globe of the eye, and is inſerted by its tendon into the ſclerotica behind the

external rectus; whence it appears to turn the point of its inſertion into the eye downwards and outwards; and, therefore, the oppoſite pupil upwards and inwards.

But there are other minute muſcular motions performed in the eye, which preſuppoſe a knowledge of its nerves. Of the optic nerve we have already treated. The fourth pair goes only to the larger oblique muſcle, and the ſixth pair to the rectus externus. The third and fifth pair produce the principal nerves in the eye; the firſt or ophthalmic branch of the fifth ſends off a nerve at its entrance into the orbit, to the eyelid and lachrymal gland, which joins with the ſecond branch of the fifth pair, and with the temporal branch of the third of the fifth pair. On entering the orbit, its trunk divides into two. The upper branch, larger and bifid, is expended on the forehead and eyelids: but the lower, penetrating inwards above the optic nerve, ſends off a long ſlender filament at the outer part of that nerve, which, joined with another filament of the third pair, forms the ophthalmic ganglion, and ſends off one or two ciliary nerves. Finally, after having given off the recurrent nerve of the noſe, it is then ſpent upon different parts in the internal angle of the eye.

But the third pair is of moſt importance. After giving off a branch upwards to the ſtraight muſcles of the eye, and to the eyelids, it proceeds with its trunk under the optic nerve, and at the ſame time ſends out three branches to the inferior, obliquus minor, and internus; after this, or before, from its trunk, or ſometimes from the branch of the obliquus minor, it ſends off another ſhort nerve, much thicker than the root from the fifth, which, under the abductor muſcle upon the optic nerve, forms the ophthalmic ganglion, which is oval and conſtant, and ſometimes ariſes from the third alone. From that ganglion, and ſometimes from the trunk of the third or fifth, four or five ciliary nerves playing around the optic nerve in a flexuous courſe, go to the globe of the eye, perforate the ſclerotica almoſt in its middle, in company with its longer ſmall arteries or veins, run ſtraight forwards along the choroides, and viſibly proceed to the iris, and ſeemingly to the ciliary proceſſes. Other very ſmall nerves, originating from the ſame ganglion, remain in the tunica ſclerotica.

The motion of the ciliary proceſſes is obſcure and difficult of demonſtration; lying incumbent upon the furrows of the vitreous membrane, by their action they are believed to preſs back that body, ſo as to bring the lens forwards, and remove it farther from the retina. But in all the animals which have been diſſected, nothing like a muſcle in this ciliary body, but only a membrane which ſupports ſmall veſſels is ſeen. The ſphincter of the pupil, and conſtrictor of the cornea, mentioned by ſome writers of eminence, and the moving fibres, which others have imagined proper to the cryſtalline lens, are not confirmed by anatomy, nor are they conſiſtent with the conſtant hardneſs of the lens and cornea in moſt animals.

The hiſtory of the eye alſo comprehends its veſſels, which have a moſt beautiful fabric. All thoſe which belong properly to the eye itſelf come from the ophthalmic artery, a branch of the internal carotid. This, creeping under the optic nerve, ſends off, as principal branches, the upper ciliary, one or more inferior ciliaries; the lachrymalis, from whence the naſalis recurrens poſterior, and internal part of the arch of the

tarſus; afterwards the muſcularis inferior, the naſalis recurrens, anterior and poſterior, the muſculares ſuperiores, and the palpebralis, which, with the former branch, forms the arch of the tarſus. Laſtly, it goes to the face, noſe, and adjacent parts. But the ophthalmic branches, belonging to the inner parts of the eye, are called the ciliaries; which ariſing from the trunks now mentioned, and playing around the optic nerve, in four or more branches, in a ſerpentine courſe, partly cloſe by the entrance of the optic nerve, go to the choroides with forty or more branches, and make upon its external ſurface, ramifications divided at acute angles, which proceed forwards to the circle of the uvea.

But moſt of the ſmall arteries of the tunica choroides gradually incline towards the interior parts of the eye; and, being covered with a kind of cellular down, go to the ciliary proceſſes, along each of which two ſmall arteries run, giving off on every ſide, vaſcular flocculi, and inoſculating at their apex.

Other ſmall arteries alſo, likewiſe ariſing from the ciliary ones, but few in number, moſt commonly two, go to the place, from which the uvea originates. There, ſpreading in various directions, they ſurround the root of the uvea with their branches, and join to form a circle, into which the anterior ciliaries inoſculate; which are ſmall arteries ariſing from the muſcular branches of the ophthalmic; and are inſerted into the circle generally by twelve ſmall trunks, near the origin of the cornea. From that circle, and likewiſe from the above mentioned anterior ciliary arteries, without the intervention of the circle, ſtraight, branched veſſels, are diſtributed, both on the iris and on the uvea; the former full of a blue or dark-coloured fluid; and the latter naturally white, but covered with a good deal of a black paint. In the uvea, at ſome diſtance from the pupil, they frequently form an imperfect circle.

But from the ſame ophthalmic artery, from its trunk, or from the lachrymal branch, or from one of the ciliaries, one or more branches enter into the optic nerve; the principal, the central artery of the retina, penetrates into the medulla of the nerve, and paſſing through the apex of the papilla, enters the centre of the retina; from thence it ſpreads every way through the retina itſelf, by ſo many branches, when traced by a ſkilful anatomiſt, that that vaſcular net work has been taken for a peculiar membrane. Sometimes a ſmall branch goes along the centre of the nerve to the retina, and is in like manner ramified through it. From comparative anatomy, it is certain, that from there branches the vaſcular branches of the vitreous tunic are produced, as well as the poſterior artery of the lens. The moſt internal of theſe arteries, is the celebrated porus opticus of the ancients.

The veins of the eye, in general, ariſe from the ophthalmic vein, which on the one ſide comes from the facial vein, entering the orbit; and on the other, is inſerted into the cavernous ſinus. The internal veins of the eye perforate the middle of the ſclerotica, with fewer and larger trunks than the arteries, and form larger and more anterior reticulations, of a roundiſh figure, which commonly occupy the middle of the tunica choroides: ſome, which are long, are continued to the origin of the uvea: others anterior, ſimilar to the arteries: and another, the centralis nervi optici, correſponding with the artery, goes to the retina. The pellucid veſſels do not differ from the ſanguiferous. Lymphatic veſſels are

ſaid to have been ſeen in the retina; but the obſervation has not been ſufficiently repeated.

So far with reſpect to the anatomy; but the action of the eye is entirely elucidated by phyſical experiments, from which it has been aſcertained, in the moſt incontrovertible manner, except a few doubtful points. Light is the ſame matter with heat, or very nearly the ſame, poſſeſſing extreme fluidity and ſubtilty, penetrating through all bodies, very rigid, not exhauſted by any diſtance of its paſſage, and moving with exceſſive velocity, ſo as to arrive at the earth from the ſun in eight minutes and thirteen ſeconds. Light in our planet proceeds either from the ſun, which ſeems to have the power of arranging in ſtraight lines the matter of light, otherwiſe confuſedly ſcattered; or from ſome other lucid point. From it, as from a centre, the light is diſtributed like rays, to all parts of the ſphere, ſo as to fall upon the ſurfaces of all bodies; from whence again it is reflected, and impinges on the eye, at angles equal to the angle of incidence, and renders the bodies, from which it comes, coloured and viſible.

It is aſcertained, from experiments, that light is compoſed of rays in right lines, almoſt without any phyſical breadth; and yet, each of which may be ſeparated into ſeven more minute, permanent, and immutable rays. The known properties of theſe rays are, that all of them, conjoined together, conſtitute a white beam: but when refracted, and ſeparated by the minute ſurfaces of bodies, they are ſubdivided into red rays, which are the moſt conſtant, hard, and leaſt refrangible; and afterwards into orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet; which are always weaker and more refrangible, as they are farther diſtant in order from the red rays. Shade ariſes from a deficiency of reflected rays. Colours are compounded of ſhade united with various rays.

The peculiar colours of bodies ariſe from the minute ſurfaces of their ſolid particles, by which their pores are limited, which refract the rays of light, according to the difference of their thickneſs, reflecting one kind of rays moſt copiouſly, and in a great meaſure ſuffocating, by repeated internal refractions, the others admitted into their ſubſtance; ſo that the thickeſt and denſeſt particles reflect a white colour; the next red; and the thinneſt violet. Bodies are opaque, which retain all the rays, and tranſmit none, from the largeneſs of their pores, to the ſides of which the light is attracted; and which are filled with ſome matter that has a power of refraction, different from that of the particles of the body. Theſe principles we embrace, till a new theory, which aſcribes the diverſity of colours to vibrations of different celerities, ſhall be better eſtabliſhed; for it is not our buſineſs to aſcertain theſe matters.

Theſe rays, when they fall obliquely upon liquors of various denſities, in paſſing through them, variouſly recede from, or incline towards the perpendicular; this is called refraction. In general, the denſer the medium, the more are the rays bent towards the perpendicular; excepting only inflammable liquors, which, by a peculiar property, attract the rays more to the perpendicular, than in proportion to their denſity. The proportions of the angles of incidence to thoſe of refraction, are conſtant; ſo that the ſine of the angle of refraction of rays paſſing from air into water, is to the ſine of the angle of incidence, as 3 to 4: and of rays, paſſing from air into glaſs, the ſine of the incidence

is to that of refraction, as 17 to 11; and from water into glaſs, as 51 to 44.

Rays, which come through the air with but little divergency, as thoſe of the ſun on account of its immenſe diſtance; or as, in general, any rays that come from a diſtance of above 100 feet, when they fall upon a body, ſpherically convex, and denſer than the air, at a large angle, as at 48½ degrees; are reflected, and do not penetrate it. If the angles are ſmaller, they penetrate the refracting medium, and are refracted in it, ſo as to meet together in one point, which is called their focus. This point lies in the axis, or in the ray, falling perpendicularly on the ſurface, and therefore not inflected; and in a ſpherical globule of water, the focus of rays coming from the atmoſphere, is at the diſtance of one ſemi-diameter from the ſphere; and in a ſphere of glaſs, a fourth part of the diameter, and in a convex lens of glaſs, that is, a part of a ſphere not leſs than thirty degrees, and equally convex, it is alſo one ſemi-diameter; but ſo that the rays meet, not in a point, but in a little circle.

Therefore the rays of light, whether direct or reflected, fall in ſuch a manner upon the cornea of the eye, as to form a very acute cone, from the lucid point to the ſurface of the membrane; the baſis of which is the ſurface of the cornea, and the apex the radiant point; yet ſo, that the rays of the cone may be conſidered parallel, without any ſenſible error. Of theſe rays, all thoſe which fall upon the cornea at a greater angle than forty degrees, are reflected from the cornea without penetrating its ſurface. Others which enter the cornea, but ſtill at large angles, fall in betwixt the uvea and ſides of the cryſtalline lens, and are ſuffocated in the black paint that lines the uvea, and the ciliary proceſſes; and thoſe rays only fall upon the ſurface of the lens, which enter the cornea at ſmall angles, not much diſtant from the perpendicular, or at about twenty-eight degrees. By this means, all thoſe rays are excluded, which the refracting power of the humours in the eye could not have been able to collect into one point of the retina; and which, therefore, would have painted the image on the retina too broad and confuſed.

Thoſe rays, therefore, coming from the air, which is ſo thin, and paſſing through the cornea, which is the ſegment of a ſphere, thick, denſer than water, and, therefore, almoſt a fourth part more refracting, are remarkably inclined towards the perpendicular. By the aqueous humour, which is ſmall in quantity, and almoſt like water, but rather lighter, they are not altered, and fall upon the ſurface of the tranſparent lens, before they have formed a focus, becauſe of its nearneſs, nearly parallel, or rather converging; becauſe their divergency was abundantly corrected by the refracting power of the cornea. Moreover, the cornea being convex, and more prominent than the hemiſphere of the ſclerotica, receives and collects a greater number of rays than if its ſurface were flatter, and therefore ſmaller.

That the refracting power of the cayſtalline lens, exceeds that of water, may be underſtood from its hardneſs and weight, although we have no ſufficiently certain meaſure. In this lens, therefore, and more eſpecially in its poſterior very convex ſurface, the rays converge very much, and paſs thence into the vitreous body.

This ſubſtance is denſer than water, ſince it ſinks in it; but rarer than the cryſtalline lens; bends the rays a little more gently towards the perpendicular, till at length the rays,

coming from a point of distinct vision, are concentrated into the smallest possible point of the retina, where they paint an image of the object from which they come; but inverted, on account of the necessary decussations. The manner in which the images of objects are thus painted, may be seen in an artificial eye, or in a natural eye, when the back part of the sclerotica is removed. But the image is painted on the outer side of the entrance of the optic nerve, at the termination of the axis of vision, which is not limited to a mere point, but has some breadth, since we see many objects at once, whose images must be represented in different points. Vision is there most distinct, because the rays arrive thither nearly perpendicular. But frequently it does not fall on the same place in both eyes of the same individual. When the lens is destroyed, the vitreous humour alone collects the rays, though less powerfully.

Is it entirely false that the object is painted on the retina? Is the picture represented on the choroides? Is this new opinion confirmed by the experiment, by which it appears, that the place where the optic nerve enters is insensible? and which is thus explained, that there is in that place no choroides but only the bare retina, and that, therefore, it does not possess vision. But this is repugnant to a very well known observation, that the retina is a most sensible nervous medulla; and that the choroides almost entirely consists of a few small nerves, and of vessels which are most certainly blind. This is likewise contradicted by the very great variety of the choroides in animals; by the equally great uniformity of the retina; and by the black spots, which, even in man, obscure the exterior surface of the retina. But, by this experiment, we perceive the reason why the optic nerve is not inserted into the axis of the eye, but towards one side. For thus, except only in the single case, where an impediment is situated in the point of intersection of lines drawn through the centre of the optic nerves, the one eye sees and assists that whose blind portion is directed to the object.

But since the necessary functions of human life require that a distinct object be painted upon the retina, not only by the rays which come from one certain distance, but likewise that rays which come from various and very different situations, more or less distant, should excite a distinct idea of the object from which they come: therefore, it is believed, that the necessary change is produced in the eye by proper means. Some celebrated anatomists have supposed the lens moveable by the powers before mentioned. They assert this art of changing the eye is learned by experience, and is not possessed by those on whom the operation of couching the cataract has been lately performed. Also, in an artificial eye, the advantages and necessity of this motion, it is said, may be plainly perceived. Therefore, too great a divergency of the rays, as in those which come from objects very close to the eye, is corrected by the removal of the lens farther from the retina, by which means the focus, which is more distant, on account of the divergence of the rays, falls upon the retina itself, which would otherwise have fallen behind the retina; for the refracting power of the eye being supposed to be such, as will cause the focus of rays coming from the distance of three feet, to fall exactly upon the retina, it will not be able to collect together into the same point, rays which come from the distance of three inches; and the

more diverging rays, when not collected by more powerful means, will be too late of uniting.

But thoſe rays, which come from very remote ſituations, and may be therefore reckoned parallel, would meet in the vitreous humour before they reached the retina; and would again ſeparate as rays from the point of concourſe, as if from a lucid point: it is therefore believed, that the powers remove the cryſtalline lens from the cornea, and carry it nearer to the retina, that the rays may meet at a greater diſtance from the lens, and that that diſtance may be accommodated ſo as to fall upon the retina. For an eye, that will collect the rays coming from a diſtance of ſeven inches, on the retina, will collect thoſe which come from a diſtance of three feet too ſoon, and before they reach the retina. So that it ſeems perfectly neceſſary for the eye to be made thus changeable, ſince we ſee diſtinctly at various diſtances. The point of diſtinct viſion is that in which the given object is painted on the retina in the leaſt ſpace poſſible. The powers collecting the rays, are often very different in the two eyes of the ſame perſon, ſo that the one eye is rather long-ſighted, and the other ſhort-ſighted.

Theſe and other ſimilar opinions, commonly received, are taught, more eſpecially by the mathematical phyſicians, who more obviouſly perceive the neceſſity of theſe changes. Yet there is no power in the human eye which can either move the cryſtalline humour from its place, or compreſs it. And we do not perceive this faculty in ourſelves: for we move a book, which by being too far off we ſee confuſedly, nearer to our eyes, which we would not do, if by an internal change in the eye we could correct the fault of the diſtance: and, through a ſmall hole, we perceive an object only ſingle in the point of diſtinct viſion, but double in every other. Perhaps the contraction of the pupil may have ſome effect in enabling us to ſee near objects more diſtinctly.

But this adaptation is not ſufficient in all perſons: for there are, and now more commonly than formerly, perſons leading a ſedentary life, and occupied with the obſervation of very minute objects, in whom the cornea is more convex and denſe; the cryſtalline lens more convex and ſolid; the eye itſelf, by the weight of the humours, more elongated; and the reſt of the humours themſelves probably more denſe; and in whoſe eyes one, or ſeveral, or all of theſe diſeaſes occur. In theſe perſons, the iris is ſenſible in a ſmall light; and therefore from their winking, they are denominated myopes. In theſe, the point of diſtinct viſion is very near to the eye, from one to ſeven inches from the eye; they ſee remoter object obſcurely, without being able to diſtinguiſh their parts. The reaſon of this is evident; ſince, from the cauſes juſt mentioned, the too great refracting power of the humours, cauſes the diſtant and conſequently parallel rays to meet before the retina; and therefore diverging again from their focus, they fall upon the retina in many points. Thus alſo to a ſound eye, the perception of near objects is confuſed; becauſe the rays coming from theſe are ſpread all over the retina, without being collected.

The remedy, in the commencement of this diſeaſe, is to view diſtant places, to abſtain from minute objects, and concave glaſſes, and to look through a ſmall aperture, by which the light is weakened. When the diſorder is confirmed, it is alleviated by the uſe of a concave lens, which diminiſhes the refracting power

in the humours, cornea, and cryſtalline lens, in proportion to its concavity; and thus removes the focus of diſtant objects farther from the cornea, ſo as to fall upon the retina. This glaſs ought to be a portion of a ſphere, whoſe diameter is equal to the diſtance of diſtinct viſion by the naked eye, ſquared by the diſtance of diſtinct viſion in the eye furniſhed with a glaſs, and divided by the difference betwixt them. Short-ſighted people may hope for ſome relief from the progreſs of life; for children are almoſt all myopes; but, as they grow older, the eye becomes flatter from the ſtrength of the ſolids, it becomes ſhorter, and the converging powers of the lens and cornea are diminiſhed.

Another defect, the oppoſite of the former, troubles people who are in the habit of looking much at very diſtant objects, and is eſpecially frequent and incurable in old people. In it, the cornea and cryſtalline lens are flatter, and the humours of the eye have a leſs refracting power. Hence near objects, whoſe rays fall very diverging upon the cornea, appear to them confuſed; becauſe the converging powers of the eye are not ſufficient to collect the rays into a focus upon the retina, and the rays arrive at it ſcattered, and have their focus behind the eye; hence their viſion is confuſed. The point of diſtinct viſion among preſbyopi, is from fifteen inches to three feet.

Such perſons are, in ſome meaſure, relieved by looking through black tubes, by the uſe of which the retina grows tenderer, and the rays come to the eye in a parallel direction. The remedy here is a convex lens of glaſs, which may cauſe the rays to converge, ſo as to meet ſooner in a focus, and upon the retina. The diameter of the ſphere, of which ſuch a lens ought to be a portion, is exactly as before. There is no hope from age, which increaſes the malady.

The medium betwixt the ſhort and long-ſighted eye is the beſt, with which a perſon can ſee diſtinctly objects that are both tolerably near and tolerably remote, and therefore may aſſume the properties both of the myopes and preſbyopi; of this kind we reckon an eye that is able to read diſtinctly at the diſtance of one foot. But other conditions are neceſſary, ſuch as perfect clearneſs of the humours; great mobility of the eyes; ſenſibility of the pupil; and a retina, neither too ſenſible nor callous.

But by means of the eye, the mind does not receive a ſimple repreſentation of the image of the object on the retina, which is transferred to the ſeat of the ſoul; but many things are added from experience, which the eye does not really ſee, and other things are interpreted differently by the mind, from what they are repreſented by the eyes. And, firſt, the magnitude of an object is judged of by the optical angle intercepted between the radiating object as the vertical point, and the cornea as the baſe. From hence, things very near ſeem large, and remote objects ſmall. To this may be referred the power of the microſcope, by which objects are made to appear to us ſo much larger, as the diſtance of the focus of the glaſs lens is leſs than the diſtance of diſtinct viſion; and, in reality, they do not appear larger, but only more diſtinct and lucid; whence the mind judges them to be nearer.

In the ſame external light, the ſtrength of illumination depends upon the ſame angle, and upon the number of rays, joined with the ſmallneſs of the point which they affect in the retina; near objects therefore appear brighter, and diſtant objects more obſcure; or if remote objects appear bright by their own light, the mind

repreſents them as large, or near, or both.

The place of a viſible object is eſtimated by one eye, to be in a line comprehended by two other ſtraight lines drawn to the extremities of the body. If the ſame body is beheld with both eyes, it will then ſeem to be in the concourſe of two lines drawn through the axis of each eye to the object.

We do not ſee diſtance; and a blind man, who has never ſeen, on acquiring the uſe of ſight, imagines every thing he ſees to touch him. After much experience, we at laſt make conjectures about diſtances, though always fallacious: but we judge of them both from the diminution of the known bulk of the body, and from the diminiſhed ſtrength of the light, and faint image of the object whoſe parts we diſtinguiſh leſs evidently, and from the number of bodies interpoſed, whoſe diſtance is known to us.

Convexity is not ſeen; but, from experience, a body is reckoned convex, after we have learned, that a body, which is convex to the feeling, cauſes light and ſhadow to be diſpoſed in a certain manner. It is convex if the ſhade be in the ſide correſponding to the left hand, and concave if in the right. Hence it is, that microſcopes frequently pervert the judgment, by tranſpoſing or changing the ſhadows. The ſame alſo happens in that phenomenon which is not yet ſufficiently underſtood, by which the concave parts of a ſeal are made to ſeem convex, and the contrary.

The parts of a viſible object are judged by the mind to have the ſame ſituation which they have in the object, and not inverted as they are on the retina. The mind poſſeſſes this power of correction, previous to experience in men who have been born blind, and in animals at birth, as appears by indubitable experiment upon men, who had been blind from birth, and acquired the power of viſion ſuddenly by the operation of couching.

Another falſe perception of the mind ariſes from this circumſtance that external ſenſations conveyed to the ſeat of the ſoul by the eyes, are repreſented during almoſt the ſpace of a ſecond of a minute, to the mind as objects really preſent. Hence proceeds the idea of a fiery circle from the circumrotation of a lucid body; and hence the continuance of the image of the ſun, and ſometimes alſo of opaque bodies.

Do we perceive only that object diſtinctly which is directly before that part of the retina which ſees moſt diſtinctly? And does the mind perſuade itſelf, that it ſees many objects at a time, partly from the duration of the ideas, and partly from the quickneſs of the motions in the eye? Concerning perfectly diſtinct viſion, this is moſt certain; but we can hardly affirm it of that which is leſs diſtinct. Why do we ſee only one object with two eyes? Becauſe the ſenſation is ſingle, and without difference, when we have ſimilar impreſſions of two objects. For, even without the decuſſation of the optic nerves, inſects who have numerous eyes perceive objects ſingle. Hence the images of two objects excite only one ſenſation in the mind, when they fall upon the ſame point of the retina; but two ſenſations ariſe from one object, when the images fall upon different parts of the retina of each eye. Whence proceed diurnal and nocturnal blindneſs? The latter is common to many nations living in the very warm climates, and under the vertical ſun, and to old men. The former happens in inflamed eyes and in young men of a hot temperament, and hence furniſhed with eyes

vaſtly ſenſible. For great ſenſibility of the retina produces diurnal blindneſs; inſenſibility produces nocturnal blindneſs. How do animals ſee in the dark? From a large dilatable pupil, tender retina, and refulgent and very lucid choroides. Why do we become blind when brought out of a ſtrong light into a weak one? Becauſe the optic nerve, having ſuffered the action of ſtronger cauſes, is not affected by weaker ones. Why is the ſudden tranſlation from a dark place into the light painful? Becauſe the pupil, being widely dilated, ſuddenly admits unawares too great a quantity of light, and the retina having been but ſlightly affected by the weak light, now feels the ſtronger impreſſions very acutely. Do we ſee with one eye, or with both? Moſt frequently with one, eſpecially and generally the right eye: but by the aſſiſtance of the other, we ſee more objects, and more plainly; and we alſo diſtinguiſh more points of the ſame object, and judge better of diſtances.

SIGILLUM SALOMŌNIS, (*Sigillum, i,* n. dim. of *ſignum,* a ſign. It is called *ſigillum ſalomonis,* Solomon's ſeal, becauſe it has upon its root the reſemblance of an impreſſion made by a ſeal). Solomon's ſeal. *Convolvulus polygonatum*; *foliis alternis amplexicaulibus, caule ancipiti, pedunculis axillaribus ſubunifloris* of Linnæus. The roots are applied externally as adſtringents, and are adminiſtered internally as corroborants.

SIGMOID, (*Sigmoides,* σιγμοειδης; from the Greek letter Σ, and ειδος, a likeneſs; reſembling the Greek letter ſigma). Applied to the valves of the heart, and ſometimes to the cartilages of the aſpera arteria, or the ſemilunar apophyſis of the bones.

SILER MONTĀNUM. See *Seſeli.*

SILK-WORM, ACID OF. See *Bombic acid.*

SĬLĬQUA DULCIS, (*Siliqua, æ,* f. a pod or receptacle for ſeed, applied to plants which bear pods). Sweet-pod. The fruit ſo called is the produce of the *Ceratonia ſiliqua* of Linnæus. They are about four inches in length, and as thick as one finger, compreſſed and unequal, and moſtly bent; they contain a ſweet brown pulp, which is given in form of decoction, as a pectoral in aſthmatic complaints and coughs.

SĬLĬQUA HIRSŪTA. The cowage is ſometimes ſo called. See *Dolichos.*

SĬLĬQUASTRUM, (*Siliquaſtrum, i,* n. from *ſiliqua,* a pod; named from its pods). Judas-tree. The capſicum or guinea pepper was ſo termed by Pliny. See *Piper indicum.*

SILVER. *Argentum.* A perfect metal, of a white colour, and of the moſt lively brilliancy; next to gold, the moſt malleable of all metals. It is ſometimes found pure, but for the moſt part in combination with tin or lead. It has neither taſte nor ſmell; its ſpecific gravity is ſuch, that it loſes about the eleventh part of its weight by immerſion in water; and a cubic foot of this metal weighs 270 pounds. Native ſilver is found in the greateſt abundance in Peru and Mexico. From this ſubſtance is obtained the *nitras argenti fuſus,* formerly called *lunar cauſtic.*

SILVER-WEED. See *Potentilla.*

SIMAROUBA, (*Simarouba, æ,* f. a patronymic name of America). Simarouba quaſſia. *Quaſſia ſimarouba* of the younger Linnæus. *Quaſſia floribus monoicis, foliis abrupte pinnatis, foliolis alternis ſubpetiolatis petiolo nudo, floribus paniculatis.* Supp. Plant. Claſs *Decandria.* Order *Monogynia.* The bark of this tree, which is met with in the ſhops, is obtained from the roots; and, according to Dr. Wright of Jamaica, it is rough, ſcaly, and warted; the inſide when freſh is a full yellow, but when dried paler; it has but little

ſmell; the taſte is bitter, but not diſagreeable. It is eſteemed, in the Weſt Indies, in dyſenteries and other fluxes, as reſtoring tone to the inteſtines, allaying their ſpaſmodic motions, promoting the ſecretions by urine and perſpiration, and removing lowneſs of ſpirits attending thoſe diſeaſes. It is ſaid alſo that it ſoon diſpoſes the patient to ſleep; takes off the gripes and teneſmus, and changes the ſtools to their natural colour and conſiſtence.

SIMĬÆ LAPIS. See *Bezoar ſimiæ*.

SINĀPE, (*Sinape, is*, n.). Muſtard.

SINĀPI, (*Sinapi*, n. ind. σιναπι οτι σινει τας ωπας, becauſe it hurts the eyes). *Sinapi nigrum*. Common black muſtard. *Sinapis nigra* of Linnæus. *Sinapis ſiliquis glabris racemo appreſſis*. Claſs *Tetradynamia*. Order *Siliquoſa*. The ſeeds of this ſpecies of muſtard, which are directed by the London College, and thoſe of the *Sinapis alba*, which are preferred by that of Edinburgh, manifeſt no remarkable difference to the taſte, nor in their effects, and therefore anſwer equally well for medicinal and culinary purpoſes. They have an acrid, pungent taſte, and, when bruiſed, this pungency ſhows its volatility by powerfully affecting the organs of ſmell. Muſtard is conſidered as capable of promoting appetite, aſſiſting digeſtion, attenuating viſcid juices, and, by ſtimulating the fibres, it proves a general remedy in paralytic affections. Joined to its ſtimulant qualities, it frequently, if taken in conſiderable quantity, opens the body, and increaſes the urinary diſcharge, and hence it has been found uſeful in dropſical complaints. Externally, flower of muſtard is frequently uſed mixed with vinegar as a ſtimulant or ſinapiſm.

SINĀPI NIGRUM. See *Sinapi*.

SINĀPIS ALBA, (*Sinapis, is*, f.). The ſyſtematic name of the white muſtard plant, which is directed for medicinal uſe in the Edinburgh pharmacopœia. It is ſomewhat leſs pungent than the black ſpecies. See *Sinapi*.

SINĀPIS NIGRA. The ſyſtematic name of the common black pepper. See *Sinapi*.

SINAPISM. *Sinapiſmum. Cataplaſmus ſinapios*. A term given to a mixture of muſtard and vinegar in form of poultice.

SINCĬPUT, (*Sinciput, ĭtis*, n.). The fore part of the head. See *Caput*.

SINE PĂRI, (*Par, ris*, adj.). Several muſcles, veins, arteries, &c. are ſo called which are without a fellow. See *Azygos*.

SINGULTUS, (*Singultus, us*, m.). Hickup. A convulſive motion of the diaphragm and parts adjacent.

SINUS, (*Sinus, us*, m.). A cavity or depreſſion.

SINUS GENÆ PITUITARĬUS. See *Antrum of Highmore*.

SINUS LONGITUDINAL. See *Longitudinal ſinus*.

SINUSES. The veins of the dura mater are ſo termed. They are ſeveral in number, the principal of which are, 1. the *longitudinal ſinus*, which riſes anteriorly from the criſta galli, aſcends and paſſes between the laminæ of the falciform proceſs to where this proceſs ends. It then opens into, 2. *two lateral ſinuſes*, diſtinguiſhed into right and left, which lie in the crucial ſpine of the os occipitis: 3. the *inferior longitudinal*, which is a ſmall ſinus ſituated at the acute inferior margin of the falx.

SINUSES LATERAL. See *Lateral ſinuſes*.

SIPHONĬA ELASTICA. The ſyſtematic name of the elaſtic reſin-tree. See *Indian rubber*.

SIRĬUM MYRTIFOLIUM. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which is

ppoſed to afford the yellow ſaun-
ers. See *Santalum album.*

SISON AMMI. The ſyſtematic ame of the plant which affords the momum verum of the ſhops. See *momum.*

SISYMBRĬUM, (*Siſymbrium, i,* n. ; from , fringe; ſo amed from its fringed roots). The ater-creſs.

SISYMBRĬUM. The water mint ſometimes ſo called. See *Mentha quatica.*

SISYMBRĬUM NASTURTĬUM. The ſtematic name of the water creſs. ee *Naſturtium aquaticum.*

SISYMBRĬUM NASTURTĬUM AUATĬCUM. The ſyſtematic name f the water creſs. See *Naſturtium quaticum.*

SISYMBRĬUM SOPHĬA. The ſtematic name of the herb ſophia. ee *Sophia chirurgorum.*

SITIOLOGY, (*Sitiologia, æ,* f. from , aliment, and , a diſcourſe r treatiſe). A doctrine or treatiſe n aliment.

SIUM, (*Sium, i,* n. from , to ove, from its agitation in water). reeping water parſnep. *Sium nodiorum* of Linnæus. This plant is dmitted into the London pharmacoœia in the character of an antiſcorutic. It is not nauſeous, and ildren take it readily if mixed with ilk.

SIUM AROMATĬCUM. The amoum verum is ſometimes ſo called. ee *Amomum.*

SIUM NANSI. The ſyſtematic ame of the plant whoſe root is alled *radix nanſi* in ſome pharmacoœias.

SIUM NODIFLORUM. The ſyſmatic name of the creeping water arſnep. See *Sium.*

SKELETON, (*Sceletus, i,* m. from , to dry). When the bones the body are preſerved in their tural ſituation, and deprived of the fleſh, the aſſemblage is called a ſkeleton. See *Bones.*

SKELETON, ARTIFICIAL. The aſſemblage of all the bones of the animal, when hung in their reſpective ſituations by means of wire. See *Bone.*

SKELETON, NATURAL. A ſkeleton is ſo termed in oppoſition to an artificial one, when the bones are retained in their proper places by means of their natural ligaments.

SKIN. The ſkin itſelf was called, by the Greeks, , and the ſcarf ſkin, in their uſual way, . It is ſaid to have been called , *quia exuitur quibuſdam animalibus,* becauſe it is caſt by many animals once a year; the epidermis certainly is ſo. Hippocrates uſes the words and ſometimes in the ſame ſenſe, as if both meant equally the ſkin. The cuticle is ſuppoſed indeed by ſome to be caſt by all animals, either ſenſibly at one period of the year, or inſenſibly in ſcales, at all times of the year, as in man. Lewenhoek imagined he ſaw theſe ſcales by means of the microſcope; and Boerhaave thought he proved their exiſtence, by wearing continually black ſilk gloves, which after ſome time he inverted, and thought he clearly ſaw theſe ſcales. Others ſay that is uſed for , *quaſi vinculum totius corporis,* as the membrane binding together all the parts of the body into one. The Romans called it *pellis*; evidently from *pellens,* repelling; as it forms veſications, and endeavours to puſh off matter ſuddenly offending the body, as on application of ſcalding water, liquid cauſtic, alkali, or red hot iron. It is ſaid likewiſe to have been called *cutis, ex* , *inveſtire,* as the inveſting membrane of the whole body.

When carefully diſſected off, and ſeparated from all adventitious mat-

ter, in a middle ſized man, it weighs about four pounds and a half.

The ſkin, though apparently a ſimple membane, is in reality laminated, conſiſting of ſeveral ſubdiviſions; the outermoſt lamen is termed with us ſcarf ſkin, or cuticle; the ſecond has no Engliſh name, is known only to anatomiſts, and is called *rete mucoſum*; after theſe two are removed we come to, as is commonly thought, the ſurface of the ſkin itſelf.

When a bliſter has been applied to the ſkin of a Negro, if it has not been very ſtimulating, in twelve hours after a thin tranſparent grayiſh membrane is raiſed, under which we find a fluid. This membrane is the cuticle or ſcarf ſkin. When this, with the fluid, is removed, the ſurface under them appears black; but if the bliſter had been very ſtimulating, another membrane, in which this black colour reſides, would alſo have been raiſed with the cuticle; this is rete mucoſum, which is itſelf double, conſiſting of another gray tranſparent membrane, and of a black web, very much reſembling the *nigrum pigmentum* of the eye. When this membrane is removed, the ſurface of the true ſkin (as has hitherto been believed), comes in view, and is white, like that of a European. The *rete mucoſum* gives the colour to the ſkin; is black in the Negro; white, brown, or yelloviſh, in the European. The reaſon why this membrane is black in the Negro, is, perhaps, that his body may be better able to defend itſelf againſt the ſun's rays, and that the heat may be prevented from penetrating. The intention of a ſimilar membrane behind the retina in the eye, appears to be not only that of abſorbing the ſuperfluous rays of light; but, like the *amalgam* behind the looking-glaſs, it may enable the retina to reflect the rays, in order to perfect viſion. It is not very improbable that ſome ſuch purpoſe, as enabling the cuticle to reflect the ſun's rays in thoſe warm climates, where the inhabitants originally go naked, may be the intention of nature, in giving them the black membrane. Perhaps too, the circumſtance, of the countenance's becoming brown, when expoſed to the ſun's rays in ſummer, in our own climate, may be a proceſs of nature to defend herſelf againſt the acceſs of external heat into the body.

Both cuticle and *rete mucoſum* ſend innumerable proceſſes into the pores of the true ſkin; the proceſs of the *rete mucoſum* is always within that of the cuticle, and in contact with the ſides of the pore, as formed by the true ſkin. Theſe proceſſes are remarkable in the cuticle and *rete mucoſum* of the elephant, ſome of them are almoſt an inch long; the cuticle or *rete mucoſum*, or a membrane very ſimilar, having the ſame properties with theſe, appears to be alſo continued into the inſide of the mouth over the tongue, internal ſurface of the lungs, œſophagus, ſtomach, and inteſtinal tube. In moſt of the laſt named parts, the cuticle, however, forms ſheaths for *villi*, and not proceſſes which line pores. On viewing the ſurface of the ſkin, even with the naked eye, we find it porous; more ſo in ſome places than in others; and the pores are alſo larger in ſome parts than others. Theſe pores are ducts of ſebaceous glands, and ſerve not only to tranſmit hairs, but, it is ſuppoſed, the greateſt part of the perſpirable matter itſelf. Abſorption of the ſkin alſo, in all probability, begins on the ſides of theſe pores. They are particularly remarkable about the mouth, noſe, palms of the hand, ſoles of the feet, on the external ear, ſcalp, *mons veneris*, and around the nipple in women. Grew thinks

as the firſt who obſerved them on e fingers; and has given a pretty ſt engraving of them, in the Philo- phical Tranſactions. Winſlow de- ribes theſe laſt, and ſays, they are ie ducts of glands. The proceſſes hich line the pores tranſmitting airs have been long obſerved; but Ir. Cruikſhank, from whoſe work his account is taken, was the firſt ho deſcribed theſe proceſſes which ne the other claſſes of pores. Al- inus takes notice of the appearance, ut ſays that they are the roots of airs pulled away with the cuticle or ete *mucoſum*. The proceſſes which ine the pores, would, however, from what can be collected of the opinions of the moſt eminent latter anatomiſts, be reckoned imperforated, and de- ſcribed as ſo many blind pouches, re- ſembling the fingers of a glove, which might be pulled out of the pores entire, by long maceration of the ſkin in water. Of courſe the cuticle and *rete mucoſum* would, in their opinion, be reckoned every where entire; and it muſt be owned, that when theſe membranes are ſe- parated by maceration, and viewed in the microſcope, there is not the leaſt appearance of pores. Haller, Albinus, and Meckel, are of opinion, there are no pores in theſe mem- branes. None of the latter anato- tomiſts have been able to diſcover Lewenhoek's ſcales, of which he be- lieved the cuticle was compoſed, and between whoſe interſtices, or looſe edges, the fluids paſſed into the body, or paſſed out. Malpighi's and Ruyſch's perforations of the *rete mucoſum* have been ſought for with no better ſucceſs. Mr. Cruikſhank ſays, that, after ſome pains, and aſſiſted by pretty good microſcopes, he was not able to diſcover perforations in the cuticle, or *rete mucoſum*. It is true, that by macerating the tongue of a calf in water for a conſiderable time, an appearance of pores may be produced in the *rete mucoſum*; and it is as true, that the ſame appear- ance may be produced in the cuticle. But when the one appears perforated, the correſponding ſurface in the other is always not ſo; and where the proceſſes are ſhort, and eaſily ſeparated from one another, neither cuticle nor *rete mucoſum* appear to be perforated; and both may be demon- ſtrated to have their own proceſſes. Malpighi firſt taught that the *rete mucoſum* was porous. Haller is of the ſame opinion; alſo aſſerting from Du Hamel that the *rete mucoſum* in the feet of many birds, he particularly inſtances the oſtrich, is perforated. Mr. C. ſays, he has ſeen thoſe talked of perforations, and is convinced, that, as in the tongue of the calf, theſe are only *vaginulæ*, or ſheaths for the *villi*, and cannot be demonſtrated by any means to be open at top

Though he has not found pores in either cuticle or *rete mucoſum*, he be- lieves, nevertheleſs, that they cer- tainly exiſt. Albinus and Meckel, particularly the laſt, are diſpoſed to believe, that whatever fluids are per- ſpired, or whatever are abſorbed by the ſkin, muſt equally ſoak through the cuticle, as the vapour of warm water does through dried leather. Albinus even doubts, whether the tranſpired fluids do not ooze through the coats of the extreme arteries themſelves, as vapour, and are after- wards condenſed into ſweat. "*Quid ni* (ſays he) *penetraret, per mollia noſ- tra, humidaque, quum calentis aquæ vapor, per durum, ſiccumque corium, eo modo penetret?*" Profeſſor Meckel uſes nearly the ſame language. Talk- ing of the cuticle, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Berlin, he ſays, "*Quoiqu' inacceſſible aux vaiſſeaux, ſa nature eſt pourtant telle, qu'il tranſmet le liquide, dont il eſt imbû, à peu près, comme pourroit le faire un cuir mince hu- mecté.*" He alſo obſerves, that though in the palms of the hand of black-

ſmiths, and in the ſoles of the feet in travellers, the cuticle conſiſts of many layers, and is ſometimes a quarter of an inch thick, ſtill perſpiration takes place on theſe ſurfaces. Did the fine perſpiring veſſels reach the cuticle of the foot in the one inſtance, or of the hand in the other, the weight of the body, or the recoil of the hammer, he thinks muſt cruſh them to pieces.

The reaſons which would favour the opinion that there are pores organized, connected with the extremities of the exhalent arteries, in the cuticle and *rete mucoſum*, which, however inviſible in the dead ſeparated cuticle, ſtill exiſt, and are ſufficiently dilated in the erected ſtate of the extremities of the veſſels of the living and perſpiring ſkin, are the following:

When a piece of cuticle falls off from the cutis, ſome of the hairs go with it, and ſome remain with the cutis. Thoſe hairs certainly perforated the cuticle, yet in the microſcope not the leaſt veſtige of theſe perforations can be traced. In places where the hairs either do not exiſt, or where they are inviſible, where, however, the pores are very numerous, as on the noſe and ſome parts of the external ear, no perforations can be traced in the ſeparated cuticle; though the ſebaceous matter could formerly be preſſed from the cavities of theſe pores on the noſe, in form of a ſmall worm, of ſome conſiderable length. The proceſſes themſelves are frequently tore off, and remain with the pores of the cutis, yet no appearance of perforation is ſeen in the ſeparated cuticle of any ſuch part of the ſkin. The dead cuticle, and even the callous living cuticle, ſwell from water, though the ſound parts of living cuticle do not ſeem to undergo any change from lying long in water. The cuticle of the palms of the hands, and of the ſoles of the feet, ſeem at leaſt to imbibe moiſture; but the cuticle on the oppoſite ſides of the hands and feet do not appear to have undergone any change. This may be ſeen in the hands of a woman who waſhes linen; and the reaſon of it is, that in the palms of the hands and ſoles of the feet there are a great many layers of dead cuticle, which ſtill adhere to the living by the attraction of coheſion, and which certainly abſorb warm water, thicken, and are thrown into wrinkles. When poultices are applied to theſe parts, the ſame appearances are ſeen. If dead cuticle ſwells in water, its pores will inevitably become inviſible. Farther, reſpecting the ſoaking of fluids through cuticle and *rete mucoſum*, let it be remembered, that in many fevers the ſkin is for a long time parched and dry, though it looks red and feels hot; the laſt circumſtances prove, that the blood is determined to the ſkin in greater quantity than at other times, yet the fluids do not ſweat out, and much leſs tranſude. Many people, notwithſtanding their uſing exerciſe, even in hot weather, when the fluids muſt be determined to the ſkin, do not ſweat. Veſications which take place from burns, from other accidents, or from the conſtitution, have been left to themſelves; the fluid has not appeared ſenſibly to evaporate; they have remained apparently of the ſame ſize, for eight or ten days, without the cuticles ever feeling moiſt. When a bit of dead ſkin, with its cuticle ſound, and adhering, is expoſed to air, it will be many weeks in drying; and were not the cuticle to ſeparate by putrefaction, would probably never dry at all. When cuticle happens to be rubbed off, in the dead body, the ſkin dries immediately. Though the legs in *œdema* are loaded frequently with lymph, not a drop tranſudes through the cuticle, unleſs the diſ-

tention has been ſo great as to tear it, which rarely happens. Is it propable that the ſame cuticle ſhould be the moſt permeable and moſt impermeable to fluids, of any ſubſtance, at one and the ſame time?

But as pores are allowed to exiſt, why does not the fluid of veſication eſcape by the pores, though it may not tranſude? Theſe pores Mr. Cruikſhank believed were in the proceſſes of cuticle and *rete mucoſum*, which lined the pores of the ſkin. If one preſſes his finger about the middle in hot weather, or applies a ligature, the perſpirable matter will be forced out at the pores on the tops of the fingers, in round drops, at regular diſtances, on the ſpiral ridges, like the ſecretion of the tarſal glands of the eyelids, after they have been immerſed in ſpirits. In the latter caſe, the equal preſſure of the ſurrounding fluid may oblige the ſecretion to put on the appearance of round drops. But Albinus's reaſoning does not appear juſt, when he ſays, the fluid perſpires, in the former inſtance, from every part of the ſkin, and is collected into drops by the equable preſſure of the ſurrounding atmoſphere. The drops appear at the orifices of the pores, and no where elſe; and their rounded form depends on their being accumulated in a round cavity, the orifice of the ſecondary pore. This makes it more than probable, that the perſpiring pores, and, from analogy, the abſorbing pores, are in the proceſſes of the cuticle and *rete mucoſum*, which line the ſecondary pores of the cutis; and not in that apparent external interſtitial ſurface of the cuticle itſelf, placed between the mouths of the external pores. What farther confirms this idea is, that the parts moſt porous ſweat moſt, and will be found to abſorb moſt. The tip of the noſe in warm weather, the head, the armpits, the ſoles of the feet, and palms of the hands, ſweat moſt. Now, it is contended that there are pores in the cuticle and *rete mucoſum*, therefore it is proper to enquire why the cuticle does not allow the fluid of veſication to eſcape,—When cuticle is detached by veſication, its proceſſes muſt be compreſſed againſt its internal ſurface, and the pores of courſe will be ſhut. When *œdema* diſtends a limb, the fluids do not eſcape for another reaſon. The extreme arteries, which exhale on the ſkin, are, probably, compreſſed by the water, and the cellular membrane become turgid by exhalation, from more internal branches; and beſides, ſweating is a ſecretion which cannot be conceived conſiſtent with the diſtended ſtate of the cold ſkin; we have therefore no moiſture, in general, from ſuch ſurfaces. The ſkin has been expoſed to heat, ſufficient to convert its fluids into vapour, and as vapour is allowed to be more penetrating than fluid, it ſhould of courſe have dried quickly, but it did not. Now, if the *villi* are either ſuppoſed to be collapſed, or the proceſſes compreſſed, one may ſee ſome reaſon why no moiſture appeared on the ſkin. A ſtate of erection, diſtention, and perfect freedom may be neceſſary to perſpiration, and eaſily obtained in the living body; but from the relaxation or compreſſion of the *villi*, any proceſs ſimilar to perſpiration may be impoſſible, notwithſtanding the action of heat, which could not make theſe veſſels exert a power conſiſtent only with life. The ſurface of the cuticle is always covered with an unctuous, or oily ſecretion; this is very conſpicuous in the ſkin of the Negro, and makes it ſtill more improbable that watery fluids ſoak through it: this may be one reaſon why it does not ſuffer the cutis to dry. The cuticle of the hands and feet, in the living body, ſeem to imbibe moiſture, and become ſofter;

but it is probably in conſequence of its having leſs living principle than that of other parts.

That it allows of the ſweat's paſſing through, may be eaſily accounted for, though the ſoaking of fluids through it ſhould be denied; for admitting that in the palms of the hands, or ſoles of the feet, there may be many layers of cuticle, ſtill it is moſt probable, that the laſt formed correſponds in every reſpect to the firſt formed and intermediate layers, and that pores are oppoſite to pores, and connected with each other.

Beſides, the *villi* appear to be lengthened, as the cuticle becomes thicker. Dr. Hunter has deſcribed and delineated, in the London Medical Eſſays, white filaments paſſing between the cuticle and cutis. Theſe are moſt remarkable in the ſole of the foot, in the human ſubject. He ſuſpects them to be veſſels of perſpiration, continued even to the cuticle. If they are veſſels, it correſponds with my idea of veſſels becoming larger and longer, in proportion as the cuticle becomes thicker. For theſe filaments are more eaſily demonſtrated on the heel, or ball of the great toe, where the cuticle is thickeſt, than any where elſe. We have been informed, that it has lately been diſcovered, that theſe filaments were nerves. That the nerves become larger, but on account of more acute ſenſation, or greater action in a part, appears to me a ſufficient reaſon for rejecting the idea of larger nerves going to an inſenſible and nearly paſſive membrane. If theſe filaments are not veſſels, from analogy to the other parts of the internal ſurface of cuticle, it may rather be ſuſpected they were exceeding fine proceſſes of the cuticle and *rete mucoſum*, which line the ſmalleſt pores of the true ſkin; and if theſe proceſſes are elongated, and go inwards, as the cuticle thickens, while at the ſame time they ſerve the ſame purpoſes as the ducts of glands, it comes to the ſame thing, as if more of the veſſels themſelves had been elongated outwards.

If theſe filaments are really proceſſes of the cuticle and *rete mucoſum*, then three claſſes of proceſſes in theſe membranes can be demonſtrated. The *firſt* line the pores, through which the hairs paſs; theſe are the longeſt, and generally have the largeſt diameter. The *ſecond* claſs are eaſily diſtinguiſhed on the inſide of the cuticle, which cover the palms of the hands or ſoles of the feet, or indeed on any part of the cuticle; they line thoſe pores deſcribed by Grew, and which Winſlow calls the ducts of glands; they are ſhort, compared to the former, are tranſparent on the ſides, and have a white line in the centre, which are not well underſtood; they appear, in regular order, on thoſe parts of the cuticle which correſpond to the parallel, or ſpiral ridges of the cutis. The above mentioned filaments, perhaps, conſtitute the *third* claſs, are longer than the laſt, and more ſlender than any of the former.

In order to make it probable that cuticle is a ſubſtance which may be pervaded by fluids, though it has no pores, anatomiſts have adopted one of two theories, reſpecting its formation. The *firſt* is, that it conſiſts of the callous extremities of the veſſels of the ſkin, reduced to this ſtate by the friction which perpetually takes place between the ſurface of the body, and ſubſtances coming in contact with it. Morgagni adopted this opinion.

The *ſecond* is, that cuticle and *rete mucoſum* were originally, and ſtill are, exudations of mucus from the ends of the veſſels of the ſkin; that this mucus is dried and hardened by the external atmoſphere into a membrane. This laſt opinion has been ſupported

by Profeſſor Meckel, who obſerves, in confirmation of his opinion, that the black membrane in the *rete mucoſum* of the Negro, may ſtill be diſſolved in water, like mucus, by maceration. There is ſomething elſe in cuticle; nor does its known properties correſpond with theſe theories. If the friction of external ſubſtances rendered the ends of the veſſels of the ſkin callous, whence have we cuticle ſo perfect in the earlieſt ſtate of the tender fœtus, hanging in a warm liquid, more fit for diſſolving, as one would imagine, than producing callofity? If the cuticle, on the other hand, is merely concreted mucus, whence ſhould the dead cuticle remain months in water without diſſolving, or becoming putrid? The hoofs, nails, and cuticle, of animals, are ſuppoſed to be ſimilar ſubſtances, and always come away together after maceration in water; yet the hoof in the ſlink calf is almoſt an inch thick, while the cuticle is nearly the ſame as it is afterwards in open air.

No part of the ſkin of a living animal is inorganic and not poſſeſſed of life. If the cuticle, though an inſenſible membrane, were not alive, and poſſeſſed of irritability, why ſhould touching it with cauſtic, which deprives other parts of life, and makes them drop off, have the ſame effect on the cuticle?

If a bit of cuticle is touched ſlightly with moiſt lunar cauſtic, it ſoon becomes black, and in a day or two drops off, ſhewing a new ſurface, in every reſpect like the former. This is not new cuticle, ſo quickly regenerated, but the cuticular ſurface of *rete mucoſum*, which has the ſame appearance, and the ſame properties, as the cuticle. Spirit of nitre dropt on the cuticle turns it yellow, and produces, though more ſlowly, the ſame effect as the lunar cauſtic does. The ſubſtance of the teeth, like the cuticle, has been ſuppoſed to have no veſſels; and there are ſeveral circumſtances which favour this opinion; yet, in attempting to ſaw a tooth in the living body, the patient complained of pain the moment the ſaw got through the enamel. If there are nerves in the bony part of a tooth, there can be no doubt of its alſo having veſſels. Cartilages covering the ends of bones, in the full grown animal, have not the leaſt veſtige of veſſel that can be demonſtrated; but cartilage may be abſorbed as well as bone; and if in the diſeaſed ſtate, it is moſt probably vaſcular, it muſt have been ſo in the ſound ſtate. Next to the cuticle lies the *rete mucoſum*, ſo called from its imagined perforations, and conſequent reſemblance to a net, and that it conſiſted only of mucus. It was not known to the ancients; and as the diſcovery belongs to Malpighi, it is ſometimes called *rete Malpighi*; he firſt diſcovered it in the tongue, and afterwards transferred it to the ſkin; he calls it *corpus mucoſum et reticulare*, and, after deſcribing it, ſays,—"*ex quo deduco non incongruam forte nigredinis Æthiopum cauſam: certum enim eſt ipſis cutim albam eſſe ſicuti et cuticula, unde tota nigredo a ſubjecto mucoſo et reticulari corpore ortum trahit.*" Riolan, before him, thought he had diſcovered the cauſe of the black colour in the Negro, and ſays it was in the epidermis, and did not go ſo deep as the true ſkin; but the epidermis and *rete mucoſum* were not then diſtinguiſhed. The ſcarf ſkin is colourleſs; the *rete mucoſum*, on the contrary, is of different colours in different climates, and in different perſons in different ſtates of the body. The apparent colour of the ſkin entirely reſides in this membrane; it is black in the Negro, copper-coloured in the Mulatto, yellow in the Egyptian, and white in the Albino, and in the inhabitants of cold climates. It, in the laſt, becomes brown in ſummer from the

heat of the ſun, and particularly in thoſe, who at the ſame time are expoſed to the reflection of his rays from the ſurface of water, as in ſea voyages, and ſimilar ſituations. In thoſe where its natural colour is white, it never changes if they are always within doors when the ſun is up; and in European climates, if it has become brown during the ſummer heat, it becomes white again during the winter's cold. Even in thoſe who live in cold climates its colour is ſometimes naturally brown or yellow. It becomes black or dark brown in the areola round the nipples of women who are ſomewhat advanced in pregnancy, and is then one of the ſureſt marks of their being with child, and conſtantly reſorted to by the medical practitioner. The colour of this membrane is tranſmitted from the parents to their children, and is wonderfully altered by croſſing the breed; the offſpring therefore of a black man, by repeated intermarriages with white women, will, in the fourth generation, become white; and the converſe of this is equally true. In order to aſcertain whether the *rete mucoſum* was vaſcular, Mr. Cruikſhank inſtituted ſeveral experiments on the ſkin of thoſe who died of the natural ſmall-pox.

He macerated ſome portions of ſkin in putrid water for a week, during the heat of the ſummer; the ſpirits with which they had been previouſly impregnated made them reſiſt the effects of this water longer. Cuticle and *rete mucoſum* were already turned down; and upon the eighth or ninth day, he found he could now ſeparate a vaſcular membrane from the cutis, in which were alſo ſituated the injected ſmall-pox puſtules. Theſe laſt conſiſted of circles of long floating *villi* at the circumference, but of a white uninjected ſubſtance in the centre. This central part Mr. Hunter had previouſly ſaid was a ſlough, formed by the irritation of the variolous matter. The ſurface of the ſkin from whence this membrane was ſeparated, was elegantly porous. The pores now appeared exceedingly more numerous, and this ſurface of the ſkin was ſtill tough and ſhining. From the vaſt number of pores now viſible, he inferred, that the proceſſes of the cuticle and *rete mucoſum* muſt be alſo more numerous than we are aware of; and many of theſe proceſſes muſt be inviſible in the microſcope, from their exility and delicate texture, though their correſponding pores are viſible. He macerated the ſame ſkin for four or five days more, and ſeparated another membrane, more delicate than the former, but alſo vaſcular; the former he eaſily preſerved; the latter, attracted by the inſtrument which ſeparated it, or unable to bear the agitation of the water or ſpirits in which it was ſeparated, conſtantly broke down; but the correſponding ſurface of the ſkin was ſtill tough and ſhining; the pores were now much larger and more diſtinct than before, which convinced him that the appearance was natural, and that the ſkin had ſuſtained no real injury in the proceſs.

Thus, it appears, that Mr. C. has demonſtrated five kinds of ſkin inſtead of three, commonly ſuppoſed. The three firſt are evidently cuticles, and the two laſt, moſt probably, are formed into cuticle, and, like the ſecond and third, are to ſucceed the firſt, which is perpetually falling off in ſmall portions, like ſcales,—the only circumſtance which ſeems to favour Lewenhoek's doctrine, that the cuticle is formed of ſcales.

In order to be perfectly underſtood reſpecting theſe five membranes, it may again be obſerved that cuticle, commonly ſo called, makes the firſt; the *rete mucoſum* is double, and makes the ſecond and third; the firſt vaſcular membrane in which the ſmall-

pox puſtules are chiefly ſeated, makes the fourth; and the membrane, which may be ſeparated ſome days after the ſeparation of the laſt, by continuing the maceration, and which ſhews the pores ſtill larger, makes the fifth. Theſe two laſt membranes, it is probable might eaſily be detected in the ſkins of thoſe who die of the meaſles, ſcarlet fever, or other eruptive diſeaſes as well as in the ſmall-pox ſkin; theſe eruptive diſeaſes do not create, but demonſtrate, theſe membranes, in conſequence of the great determination of blood, in theſe caſes, to the ſkin.

The ſkin itſelf was given to man not only for feeling, in a general ſenſe, but for perſpiration, abſorption, and particularly for *touch*, in which he excels all other animals, and which reſides, principally in the *tips of the fingers*. He was intended for examining, reaſoning, forming a judgment, and acting accordingly; he was fitted by this ſenſe to examine accurately the properties of ſurrounding bodies, not capable of being examined by his other ſenſes. This, among other reaſons, was one why he was made erect, that the points of his fingers ſhould not be made callous, or leſs ſenſible, *by walking on them*.

The ſkin of human bodies is always of a white colour, in the dead body, let the colour of the *rete mucoſum* be what it may; it is extremely full of pores, and extremely vaſcular; a child in full vigour comes into the world, from this circumſtance, *ſcarlet*; it is endowed with intenſe ſenſibility, almoſt all the pain, in the different operations of ſurgery, is paſt when we have divided the ſkin. Some parts of the ſkin have more feeling than others; the lips, for example, as Haller ſays, "*ad baſia deſtinata.*" The *glans clytoridis*, and the *glans penis*, with a ſimilar intention; there, though the nerves are not ſo large as in ſome other parts, they are longer, more numerous, and endowed with more exquiſite feeling; but where the common offices of life merely are intended, the marks of ſuperior feeling or touch, in the ſkin, are the projections, above the common ſurface, of thoſe packets of arteries, veins, abſorbents, called *villi*; the nerves are there not only alſo longer, but larger, as in the points of the fingers and toes.

We are not certain that the ſkin is muſcular, but it has properties very like thoſe of muſcle, it contracts, relaxes, and even vibrates, in ſome places, on certain occaſions. It is extremely diſtenſible, the ſkin of the *perinæum* has ſtretched in labour from a quarter of an inch to ſix inches. It is alſo extremely elaſtic, and inſtantly after labour has returned again to the original quarter of an inch; it is thickeſt on thoſe parts intended by nature to bear weight or preſſure; of courſe it is thickeſt on the back, on the ſoles of the feet, and palms of the hands. It is thinner on the fore part of the body, on the inſides of the arms and legs, and where its ſurfaces touch oppoſite ſurfaces. It is extremely thin on the lips, and allows the colour of the blood to ſhine through it. It is alſo extremely thin on the *glans penis* in men, *glans clytoridis* in women, and on the inſide of the *labia pudendi*. Skin dried and dreſſed is extremely ſtrong and durable, and therefore employed in making harneſs for horſes, clothing for men, and a variety of other purpoſes.

SKIN, SCARF. See *Cuticle* and *Skin*.

SKINK. See *Scincus*.

SKULL, (*Cranium*, *i*, n.). See *Bones*, *Caput*, and *Cranium*.

SLATERS, The millepedes are ſometimes ſo called.

SLEEP. *Somnus*. That ſtate of the body in which the internal and external ſenſes and voluntary motions

are not exercised. The end and design of sleep is both to renew, during the silence and darkness of the night, the vital energy which has been exhausted through the day, and to assist nutrition.

Among the exhausting powers may be reckoned heat, light, motion, sound, and thought, with the exercise of reason, imagination, desire, and volition; and if to these we add sensations accompanied by pain or pleasure, we shall complete our catalogue.

When, therefore, we are to ascertain the degree exhausted by these powers, we are taught by nature to retire, that, recumbent in some sequestered spot, unmolested by light, by heat, by noise, and free from the excitements of volition, sleep may quietly steal upon our senses, and close the avenue to thought. In this situation, all the muscles, excepting the sphincters, are relaxed, and voluntary motion ceases; but not the vital and involuntary, for these, far from exhausting, serve only to recruit our strength. Such is the peristaltic motion of the alimentary canal, on which depends nutrition; such respiration, which supplies the pabulum of life; and such the motion of the heart, which distributes the energetic principle to every part of the animated frame.

When all stimulating powers, excepting those which immediately excite the vital functions, are removed, sleep first takes possession of the limbs, and blunts sensation; then impairs the recollection with the reasoning power, and finally precludes volition. If profound, it puts a total stop to all the imaginations of the mind.

Such are the phenomena of sleep. But how is it produced? What is the proximate, what the remote cause of sleep?

The reverend Mr. Townsend is inclined to think that there are absorbents in the cavities of the brain, as in all other cavities of the body, to take up and carry off what the exhalants have deposited; and he imagines that, during our waking hours, their activity is greater in proportion to the intensity of thought, of volition, and of muscular exertion. Should this be granted, it will follow, from the laws of the animated fibre, that these absorbents, exhausted by incessant action, will become torpid in a degree, whilst the exhalants continue to pour forth into the ventricles of the brain their viscid lymph, as happens even after death, according to Sauvage.

Hence may arise that degree of pressure on the vessels of the brain which blunts the faculties, produces a cessation of voluntary motion, and terminates in total absence of sensation.

For the occasional causes of somnolency, we may look to such as diminish the vital energy and action of the absorbents, by excess of stimulus; which may be heat, animal food, spices, spirits, opium, and either violent or long continued exertions, whether mental or muscular. Among these we find the same causes which occasion drunkenness, in its several degrees of intensity, with deep sleep and death.

Or the occasional causes, diminishing the vital energy, may be directly sedative, such as excess of cold, which is attended by insuperable desire to sleep; fear, when extreme; profuse evacuations; exhausting diseases; and whatever either diminishes the supply of blood to the vessels of the brain, such as ligatures on the carotids, and pressure on the cortical substance of the brain by plethora, or impedes the return of blood by the veins, as happens to decrepit age, and to such as are oppressed with fat.

Hoffman, when treating of sleep and wakefulness, remarks, that the

tone and vigour of the brain being much diminiſhed, partly by vigilance through the day, and partly by languid circulation of the blood by night, this gives occaſion to more copious exhalation of lymph, which ſtagnates in the veſſels of the brain, and impedes the ſecretion of the nervous fluid. He obſerves, that whatever retards the circulation of the blood produces ſleep, and that ſleep itſelf retards the circulation of the blood; for, during ſleep, the pulſe is ſlow, and the reſpiration is both deeper and ſlower than when we are awake.

That during ſleep the whole ſyſtem is relaxed is evident, becauſe every part of the body becomes turgid; and that ſome of the exhalants act more freely than the abſorbents, with which they are connected, is manifeſted by the pearly drops of ſweat ſtanding like dew upon the face of children, or flowing from every pore of hectic patients, in the morning. To this obſervation it may be added, that children, and people of lax habits, ſleep more than old people, or ſuch as are diſtinguiſhed for rigidity of fibre. That there is ſome accumulation in the veſſels of the brain, is rendered probable by obſerving, that when any one is ſuddenly awakened from profound ſleep, he is convulſed; weight and torpor in the head are felt for ſome conſiderable time; the ſenſes are ſlow in their return, and the muſcles do not readily obey volition. Theſe ſymptoms are frequently rendered more remarkable when weakly ſubjects ſleep after a full meal before the fire.

During quieſcence, the abſorbents, having accumulated vital energy, act with renovated vigour, and a diſpoſition to wakefulneſs enſues.

Thus, this wonderful machine, by its alternate accumulation and exhauſtion of energetic power, ſeems to reſemble, in ſimplicity of action and contrivance, the ſyphon fountain, or an engine kept in motion by the alternate collection and condenſation of the ſteam.

In ſupport Mr. Townſend adduces the phenomena attendant on apoplexy. One degree of preſſure produces, he imagines, drowſineſs, and a greater brings on ſleep in its ſeveral ſtages of intenſity, from that which is lighteſt to lethargy, apoplexy, death.

If any one retires to a ſequeſtered ſpot, undiſturbed by light, by noiſe, by pain, or mental paſſions; when every muſcle is quieſcent, and when volition ceaſes; when there is nothing to excite the ſyſtem; his ſtate of ſomnolency will be prolonged, attended firſt by ſound and refreſhing ſleep, afterwards by doſing. Boerhaave relates the caſe of a wealthy young nobleman in Holland, who, having overdrank himſelf, was, by orders from the Prince of Orange, carried into a dark and quiet place, where he ſlept three days and as many nights, not inceſſantly, for he awoke often, but whenever he opened his eyes, believing it to be the middle of the night, he turned round and doſed again.

From what has been ſaid, it ſhould appear, that ſleep may ariſe from either exhauſted energy, or want of excitement, in the abſorbent ſyſtem.

Many animals, ſecluded from light, heat, and the free acceſs of atmoſpheric air, doſe through the whole winter. In this caſe, the vital functions are ſcarcely perceptible; for although the lamp of life is not extinguiſhed, it burns dim; the animal functions are ſuſpended, and the natural functions are nearly ſo; for nothing paſſes either by urine or by ſtool, little eſcapes by perſpiration, and, in the torpid ſtate, digeſtion ceaſes. In this condition of the ani-

mal, little oxygen is received into the ſyſtem by the lungs; no great quantity of hydrogen is conſumed in any given time for the purpoſes of life, and conſequently the vital heat is much diminiſhed.

Although I have ſuppoſed ſays Mr. T. that ſleep may induced by preſſure and accumulation of lymph in the ventricles of the brain, yet we muſt remark, that during ſleep the abſorbents are certainly at work: 1. In the urinary bladder; for the urine is ſmall in quantity, and high coloured: 2. In the alimentary canal; for the fæces are hardened: 3 In the membrana adipoſa; for the fat, after long protracted ſleep, is conſiderably waſted, and at the end of winter, in torpid animals, is commonly conſumed: 4. In the ventricles of the brain; for, were it otherwiſe, not merely ſleep, but apoplexy and death, would be the conſequence.

In the torpid and quieſcent ſtate, the appetite for food is loſt; for it uſually bears proportion to the quantity of exertion, whether mental or muſcular; and as no freſh ſupply of hydrogen is received into the ſtomach, the little required to feed the lambent flame is readily derived by abſorption from the cells or reſervoirs of fat diſpenſed over the body, and more eſpecially about the loins.

During our time of ſleep, when every muſcular fibre is relaxed, and when nutritive particles are diſtributed wherever they are wanted, proviſion of oil is made for the conſumption of the waking hours. Hence animals who eat and ſleep immoderately, are apt to be oppreſſed with fat.

Somnolence, too much indulged, brings on fatuity. Boerhaave relates the caſe of a phyſician, who took ſuch delight in ſleeping, that he retired to a quiet and ſequeſtered chamber, where, in perfect darkneſs, he ſlumbered almoſt inceſſantly, till he loſt his intellects, and periſhed in an hoſpital.

The duration of ſleep, with the alternate periods of repoſe and vigilance, depend much on habit, and this, once acquired, is with difficulty changed.

Sloe. See *Prunus ſylveſtris*.

Smallage. See *Apium*.

Small-pox. See *Variola*.

Smelling. To the uſe of diſcerning prejudicial food, the ſenſe of ſmelling is ſubſervient; by which we both perceive their noxious nature, before they be taſted, which might be dangerous: and eſpecially avoid putridity in our victuals, which to us is exceedingly hurtful; and diſcover what is grateful and wholeſome; although, by habit, this advantage of ſmell is more conſpicuous in animals than in man. But men who have been left to themſelves, and whoſe ſenſe of ſmell has not been corrupted by variety, have been obſerved moſt certainly to retain that ſagacious faculty in diſtinguiſhing food in an eminent degree. The powers of medicinal plants are hardly to be eſtimated better than by the ſimple teſtimonies of taſte and ſmell. Hence, in all animals the organ of ſmell is placed near the mouth; and hence the ſmell is ſtronger, and the organs larger, in thoſe animals which have to ſeek their prey at a conſiderable diſtance, or to reject deleterious plants from among their food.

The ſenſe of ſmelling is performed by means of a ſoft, pulpy, vaſcular, papillous, porous membrane, which lines the whole internal cavity of the noſtrils, and is thicker upon the ſeptum, and principal cavity of the noſe, but thinner in the ſinuſes. It is plentifully ſupplied with very ſoft nerves, the middle one of which deſcend from the firſt pair, through the holes of the os cribroſum to the

ſeptum narium; but in ſuch a manner, that it is very difficult to trace them to their extremities and into the ſeptum. Other lateral nerves come from the ſecond branch of the fifth pair and its branches, from that which croſſes the pterygoid canal, and from another which deſcends through the canals of the palate; and in the maxillary ſinus from the infra-orbital branch, from the dental branch, and from the anterior nerve of the palate. Moreover, the anterior part of the ſeptum has a twig from the ophthalmic of the firſt branch of the fifth pair.

The noſtrils are ſupplied with very numerous arteries; from the three naſal branches of the internal maxillary, above, from both the ethmoidal branches, and the frontal and naſal branches, with lateral arteries from the ſmaller ophthalmic branch of the internal carotid, and from branches of the palatine artery, and in the ſinuſes from the infra orbital, and from the ſuperior dental one. Theſe arteries have the property of exuding blood eaſily, and in great quantity, without any leſion of conſequence. The correſpondent veins form a very large plexus upon the external pterygoid muſcle; then communicate with the ſinuſes of the dura matter; and, laſtly, meet in the external branch of the internal jugular. The arteries ſupply nouriſhment, warmth, and mucus.

The head, eſpecially in man, being of a ſpherical figure, confines the organ of ſmell within a ſmall ſpace. That it may be extended internally, the noſtrils have been made complicated and cavernous in a ſurpriſing manner. In the firſt place, the noſtrils are that multiform cavity which begins at the anterior openings of the noſe, and, extending tranſverſely backwards over the roof of the palate under the ethmoid bone, terminates at the cavity of the fauces. This cavity is divided by the ſeptum, often unequally, which is bony in the upper part, and deſcends from the plate of the ethmoid; below, it is formed by the vomer, and in its fore-part it conſiſts of a triangular cartilage, whoſe ſurface is large and very ſenſible.

Moreover, the lateral ſurfaces of the nares are increaſed by the ſpiral convolutions of the oſſa turbinata; the uppermoſt of which are the ſmall ſuperior and poſterior convolutions of the ethmoid bone. The middle ones belong to the ſame bone, are of a long conchoid form, convex inwards, externally concave, pointed at both ends, covered all over with pits, and internally filled with ſpongy cells, ſuſpended tranſverſely, and ſupported by particular eminences of the palate and maxillary bones. The loweſt turbinata are ſimilar to the middle ones; like them reſemble in figure a limpet-ſhell, but longer; are for the moſt part divided from the former, but ſometimes conjoined by a bony plate, which is moſt frequently of a membranous nature. This appendix, being extended upwards in a ſquare form, completes the maxillary ſinus.

The cavity of the noſtrils is ſtill further enlarged, by means of the various ſinuſes, which are receſſes or a kind of appendages to the noſtrils. The uppermoſt of theſe are the frontal ſinuſes, which are inconſtant and irregular, ſeated in the ſuperciliary ridge, and ſituated betwixt the anterior and poſterior plates of the frontal bone. They are not found in the fetus, and ſeem to ariſe from the action of the corrugator and other muſcles, which draw the anterior plate outwards, and increaſe the diploë into cells, in the ſame manner as in the maſtoid proceſs. Theſe open in the upper part of the noſtrils into the anterior cell of the os papyraceum. There are inſtances of their being

totally wanting, and growing after birth.

The ſecond in order are the ethmoſdal ſinuſes; of which four or more on each ſide are found in the outer part of the os criboſum, like the cells of an honey-comb; above they are completed by the cellular diploë of the os frontis, before by the os unguis, and behind by the palate and ſphenoidal bone; they open into the upper part of the noſtrils in a tranſverſe line, by many ſmall tubes, even placed one above another. With theſe are continuous the cells in the bottom of the orbit, and thoſe excavated in the os planum and maxillare are outwardly continued from them. In the third place, the large cavity of the multiform bone on each ſide is alſo contiguous, and in ſome meaſure belongs to the ethmoid and palate bones. By the drying up of the cartilage, which is here of large extent in the fetus, it gradually is formed in the ſolid bone, under the ſella turcica, is capacious, either ſingle or divided, and opens forwards by its aperture into the upper paſſage of the noſtrils.

The laſt, loweſt, and largeſt of the ſinuſes, which in the fetus exiſts in ſome degree, but in the adult, by the attenuation of the bony laminæ, becomes very large, is chiefly excavated in the upper maxillary bone. Its opening into the noſtrils is bounded by the os unguis, bone of the palate, proper lamella of the loweſt os turbinatum, and by membranes, ſo that it enters by a round aperture between the middle and loweſt ſpongy bones. But it likewiſe ſends forth an hollow appendix, ſtretching forwards under the orbits, which is formed by the os planum, unguis, and papyraceum, communicating likewiſe with the ethmoidal cells, and opening behind the oſtium lachrymale.

The nerves of the noſe, being almoſt naked, require a defence from the air, which is continually inſpired and expired through the noſtrils, for the purpoſes of reſpiration. Nature has therefore ſupplied the noſtrils, in place of a thicker cuticle, with a viſcid, bland, inſipid mucus, fluid at its firſt ſeparation, but by the air condenſing into thick dry cruſts, and more conſiſtent here than in the other parts of the body. By this mucus the nerves are defended from drying and from pain. It is poured out from the very numerous ſmall arteries of the noſtrils; and is depoſited partly into numerous cylindrical ducts, and partly into round viſible cryptæ, ſcattered throughout the noſtrils. The ſame mucus exudes over the ſurface of the whole olfactory membrane, and every where anoints it. In the ſeptum, a long ſinus, common to many muciferous pores, runs forwards a conſiderable way. The mucus accumulated in the night-time, in too great quantity, is expelled during the day by compreſſing the noſtrils, and forcing the breath through them; or by its dryneſs and acrimony, it irritates the very ſenſible nerves, and is then expelled by the ſneezing excited. But the ſinuſes which abound with mucus, evacuate it according to the different poſtures of the body; by ſome of them always being at liberty to diſcharge it, whether the head be erect or inclined forwards, or to the ſide; yet ſo, that generally the maxillary and ſphenoidal ſinuſes are more difficultly emptied than the reſt. Moreover, the tears deſcend through a proper duct into the noſtrils, and moiſten them, and dilute the mucus.

The extremities of the noſtrils are covered by the noſe, which is lined inwardly with a membrane of the ſame nature, and is compoſed of two bones, and uſually ſix cartilages, two of which are continuous with the middle ſeptum. The noſe may be moved by its muſcles, ſo as to be raiſed and dilated by a muſcle common

to it and the upper lip, and to be contracted by its proper depreſſor and compreſſor, and depreſſor of the ſeptum. Thus the organ of ſmell is prominent, and expoſed to the action of odours, and may be dilated for taking in a larger quantity of air, and again be contracted, when the ſuperabundance is expelled.

The air, therefore, filled with the very ſubtile, inviſible, pungent, oily, ſaline, and volatile effluvia, which exhale from almoſt every known body, being received into the noſtrils, by the action of reſpiration, and by a peculiar effort for drawing the air into them, carries theſe particles to the nerves, widely naked, and conſtantly ſoft. By theſe there is excited in the nerve sa kind of ſenſation which we call ſmell, by which we diſtinguiſh the ſeveral kinds of oils and ſalts, in a manner ſomewhat indiſtinct, difficultly reducible to claſſes, difficultly recalled to the memory, nevertheleſs ſufficiently for our purpoſes. This ſenſe informs us of unwholeſome putridity, of exceſſive acrimony, and of the bland and uſeful nature of ſubſtances. And as ſalt, united with oil, is an object of taſte, and as oils, combined with ſalts, conſtitute odours, the affinity of the two ſenſes, which was neceſſary to derive utility from either is apparent. But volatile particles chiefly are diſtinguiſhed by ſmell, and fixed ones by the taſte; perhaps becauſe the thick mucous cuticle, ſpread over the tongue, intercepts the action of the more ſubtile ſalts, which eaſily affect the ſofter and leſs covered nerves of the noſtrils. We are ignorant of the reaſons why ſome ſmells pleaſe, and others diſpleaſe; perhaps cuſtom may have ſome influence in this reſpect.

The action of ſmells is ſtrong, but of ſhort continuance; becauſe particles in a very minute ſtate are applied to naked nerves, in the immediate vicinity of the brain. Hence the deleterious and refreſhing actions of odours, by which people are reſuſcitated from faintings, and even from drowning. Hence the violent ſneezing, excited by acrid particles, the evacuation of the bowels, by the ſmell of purgatives, and the power of antipathies. Hence the pernicious effects of exceſſive ſneezing, more eſpecially blindneſs, from the great ſympathy of the nerves. Amongſt the various parts of the noſtrils, the ſeptum, and the oſſa turbinata, and their anterior portions, eſpecially form the organ of ſmell: ſince theſe parts are multiplied in quick-ſcented animals, forming beautiful ſpires in quadrupeds; and in fiſh, being diſtributed in parallel laminæ elegantly toothed.

SMILAX, (*Smilax*, *ăcis*, f. σμιλαξ, from σμιλευω to cut; ſo called from the roughneſs of its leaves and ſtalk). Rough bind weed.

SMILAX CHINA. The ſyſtematic name of the china root tree. See *China*.

SMILAX CHINESE. See *China*.

SMILAX SARSAPARILLA. The ſyſtematic name of the plant which affords the ſarſaparilla. See *Sarſaparilla*.

SMYRNĬON HORTENSĔ. The maſter wort has been ſo termed. See *Imperatoria*.

SMYRNĬUM OLUSATRUM. The ſyſtematic name of the plant called Alexanders. See *Hippoſelinum*.

SNAIL. See *Limaces*.

SNAKEROOT, VIRGINIAN. See *Serpentaria Virginiana*.

SNAILSEEDED GLASSWORT. See *Salſola kali*.

SNAKEWEED. See *Biſlorta*.

SNAKEWOOD. See *Lignum colubrinum*.

SNEEZEWORT. See *Ptarmica*.

SOAP. See *Sapo*.

SOAP BERRY. See *Saponariæ nuculæ.*

SOAPWORT. See *Saponaria.*

SODA, (*Soda, æ*, f. an Arabian word). See *Natron.*

SODA ACETĀTA. A neutral ſalt formed of a combination of acetous acid with the mineral alkali. It is alſo called *terra foliata tartari cryſtallizabilis, natron acetatum & ſal diureticum vegetabile cryſtallizatum.* It poſſeſſes ſimilar virtues to the kali acetatum, and may be eaſily kept dry.

SODA BORAXĀTA. See *Borax.*

SODA HISPANĬCA. Impure ſoda. See *Natron.*

SODA HISPANĬCA PURIFICĀTA. Pure ſoda. See *Natron preparatum.*

SODA MURIATA. See *Murias ſodæ.*

SODA MURIATĬCA. Common culinary ſalt. See *Murias ſoda.*

SODA PHOSPHŎRĀTA. *Alkali minerale phoſphoratum* of Bergman. This preparation is a phoſpat of ſoda, and therefore called *phoſpas ſodæ* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is cathartic in the doſe of half an ounce to an ounce; diſſolved in gruel is no way unpleaſant, and is ſaid to be uſeful, in ſcrophula, bronchocele, rachitis, and gout, in ſmall doſes.

SOL, (*Sol, ſolis*, m. The ſun). Gold was ſo called by the older chemiſts.

SOLĀNUM, (*Solanum*, i. n. from *ſolor* to comfort, becauſe it gives eaſe by its ſtupefying qualities). Garden nightſhade. The plant thus called in the pharmacopæias, is the *Solanum nigrum* of Linæus; its virtues are very nearly allied to thoſe of the *belladonna*, which conſult.

SOLĀNUM DULCAMARA. The ſyſtematic name of the bitter ſweet. See *Dulcamara.*

SOLĀNUM FŒTĬDUM. The thorn apple plant is ſometimes ſo called. See *Stramonium.*

SOLĀNUM LIGNŌSUM. The bitter ſweet is ſometimes ſo termed. See *Dulcamara.*

SOLĀNUM MELONGENA. The ſyſtematic name of the mad apple plant. See *Mad-apple.*

SOLĀNUM NIGRUM. The ſyſtematic name of the garden nightſhade. See *Solanum.*

SOLĀNUM SANCTUM. The ſyſtematic name of the paleſtine nightſhade. The fruit of this plant is globular and in Egypt much eaten by the inhabitants.

SOLĀNUM TUBERŌSUM. This plant (*Solanum caule inermi herbaceo, foliis pinnatis integerrimis, pedunculis ſubdiviſis.* Claſs *Pentandria*, Order *Monogynia*) affords the potato, a farinaceous root, too well known to need any particular deſcription.

SOLĀNUM VESĬCARĬUM. The winter cherry plant is ſo called by Caſpar Bauhin. See *Alkekengi.*

SOLDANELLA, (*Soldanella, æ.* f. *a ſolidando* from its uſes in healing freſh wounds). The ſea convolvulus. See *Braſſica marina.*

SOLĒUS. See *Gaſtrocnemius internus.*

SOLĬDĀGO, (*Solidago, inis*, f. from *ſolido* to make firm; ſo called from its uſes of conſolidating wounds). The herb comfrey.

SOLIDĀGO VIRGAURĒA. The ſyſtematic name of the golden rod. See *Virga aurea.*

SOLUTION. An intimate commixture of ſolid bodies with fluids, into one ſeemingly homogeneous liquor. The diſſolving fluid is called a menſtruum or ſolvent.

Objections have been made, and perhaps with propriety, to theſe names, as it is ſuppoſed that the two bodies uniting in ſolution act reciprocally on each other; there is, however, no danger from the words themſelves, if we do not derive them from a miſtaken theory. Solution

cannot take place unleſs one of the bodies at leaſt, be in a fluid ſtate; and this fluidity is affected either by water or fire: hence ſolution is ſaid to be performed in the humid or in the dry way. Thus, for inſtance, if any quantity of brimſtone be diſſolved in a ſolution of fixed alkali, the brimſtone is ſaid to be diſſolved in the humid way; but if the brimſtone be diſſolved by melting it with the dry alkali, the ſolution is ſaid to be done in the dry way. The compound produced by this mixture is called hepar ſulphuris, and the ſame in both. Another kind of ſolution reſembling that by the dry way, is, however, to be carefully diſtinguiſhed from it. If, for example, a piece of Glauber ſalt is put into a pan over a fire, the ſalt very ſoon aſſumes a liquid ſtate; but on continuing the heat, it loſes its fluidity, and becomes a white powder: this powder is the ſalt freed from its water, and is found to be very refractory. This liquidity on the water of cryſtallization being enabled by the heat to keep the ſalt in ſolution, and the ſalt ceaſed to be fluid as ſoon as its cryſtallizing water was evaporated. This kind of ſolution, which is ſometimes called the watery fuſion differs not from the firſt or humid way.

The principal menſtrua uſed in pharmary are, water, vinous ſpirits, oils, acids, and alkaline liquors.

Water is the menſtruum of all ſalts, vegetable gums, and animal jellies. Of ſalts it diſſolves only a determinate quantity, though of one kind of ſalt more than another; and being thus ſaturated, leaves any additional quantity of the ſame ſalt untouched.

Experiments have been made for determining the quantities of water which different ſalts require for diſſolution. Mr. Eller has given a large ſet in the memoirs of the royal academy of ſcience of Berlin, for the year 1750, from which the following table is extracted:

Eight ounces by weight of diſtilled water diſſolved,

	oz.	dr.	gr.
Of Refined Sugar –	24	0	0
Green Vitriol –	9	4	0
Blue Vitriol –	9	0	0
White Vitriol –	4	4	0
Epſom Salt – –	4	0	0
Purified Nitre –	4	0	0
Soluble Tartar -	4	0	0
Common Salt –	3	4	0
Sal Gemmæ –	3	4	0
Sal Catharticus Glauberi	3	4	0
Seignettes Salt –	3	0	0
Alum – –	2	4	0
Sal Ammonia –	2	4	0
Vitriolated Tartar –	1	4	0
Salt of Hartſhorn –	1	4	0
Sugar of Lead –	1	2	0
Cream of Tartar –	1	0	0
Borax – –	0	4	20

Though theſe experiments appear to have been made with great care, yet the proportions of the ſeveral ſalts, ſoluble in a certain quantity of water, will not always be found exactly the ſame with thoſe above ſet down. Salts differ in their ſolubility according to the degree of their purity, perfection, and dryneſs; the vitriols, and the artificial compound ſalts in general, differ remarkably in this reſpect, according as they are more or leſs impregnated with the acid ingredient. Thus, vitriolated tartar, perfectly neutralized, is extremely difficult of ſolution; the matter which remains on making nitrous acid, is no other than a vitriolated tartar; and it diſſolves ſo difficultly that the operator is obliged to break the retort in order to get it out; but on adding more of the vitriolic acid it reſolves with eaſe. Hence many have been tempted to uſe an over-propor-

tion of acid in this preparation; and we frequently find this acrid ſoluble ſalt in the ſhops, and under the name of vitriolated tartar. The degree of heat occaſions alſo a remarkable difference in the quantity of ſalt taken up; in very cold weather, eight ounces of water will diſſolve only one ounce of nitre, whereas in warm weather the ſame quantity will take up four ounces. To theſe circumſtances are probably owing, in part, the remarkable difference in the proportional ſolubilities of ſalts, as determined by different authors. It is obſerveable, that common ſalt is leſs affected in its ſolubility by a variation of heat than any other; water in a temperate ſtate, diſſolving nearly as much of it as very hot water; and accordingly this is the ſalt in which the different experiments agree the beſt. In the experiments of Hoffmann, Newmann, and Petit, the proportion of this ſalt, on a reduction of the numbers, come out exactly the ſame, viz. three ounces of ſalt to eight of water; Dr. Brownrigg makes the quantity of ſalt a little more; Dr. Grew, a drachm and a ſcruple more; and Eller as appears in the above table, four drachms more: ſo that in the trials of ſix different perſons made probably in different circumſtances, the greateſt difference is only one-ſixth of the uſual quantity of ſalt: whereas in ſome other ſalts there are differences of twice or thrice the quantity of ſalt. In the experiments from which the table is drawn, the water was of the temperature of between 40 and 42 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

Some ſalts omitted by Eller are here ſubjoined; the firſt is taken from Dr. Grew, and the other four from Newmann.

Eight ounces of water diſſolved,

	oz.	dr.	gr.
Of fixed alkaline ſalt -	8	0	0
Sal diureticus -	8	0	0
Sugar candy, both brown			
white - -	9	0	0
Sugar of milk -	0	2	40
Eſſential ſalt of ſorrel	0	1	20

Though water takes up only a certain quantity of one kind of ſalt, yet when ſaturated with one, it will ſtill diſſolve ſome portion of another; and when it can bear no more of either of theſe, it will ſtill take up a third, without letting go any of the former. The principal experiments of this kind, which have been made relative to pharmaceutic ſubjects are exhibited in the following, table, of which the two firſt articles are from Grew, and the others from Eller:

Water, 32 parts by weight,

Fully ſaturated with		diſſolved afterwards			
Nitre,	Common ſalt,	Sal ammoniac	10	Sal ammonia	2
Nitre,	Common alkali,	Nitre	10	Common ſalt	2
Nitre,	Volatile alkali,	Fixed alkali	7	Fixed alkali	2½
Sal ammoniac,	Volatile tartar,	Nitre, near	2	Sugar	2
		Nitre	4		
Common ſalt	Vitriolated tartar,	Common ſalt	2½		
		Nitre	2		
		Fixed alkali	2		
Glauber's ſalt,	Epſom ſalt,	Nitre	1	Sugar	1
		Sugar	6		
Borax,		Fixed alkali	2		

In regard to the other claſs of bodies for which water is a menſtruum, viz. thoſe of the gummy and gelatinous kind, there is no determinate point of ſaturation, the water unites readily with any proportion of them, forming with different quantities, liquors of different conſiſtence. This fluid takes up likewiſe, when aſſiſted by trituration, the vegetable gummy reſins, as ammoniacum and myrrh; the ſolutions of which, though imperfect, that is, not tranſparent, but turbid and of a milky hue, are nevertheleſs applicable to valuable purpoſes in medicine. It mixes with vinous ſpirits, with acid and alkaline liquors, not with oils, but imbibes ſome of the more ſubtile parts of eſſential oils, ſo as to become impregnated with their ſmell and taſte.

Rectified ſpirit of wine, or rather alkohol, is the menſtruum of the eſſentials oils and reſins of vegetibles, of the pure diſtilled oils, and ſeveral of the colouring and medicinal parts of animals; of ſome mineral bituminous ſubſtances, as of ambergris; and of ſoaps, though it does not act upon the expreſſed oils and fixed alkaline ſalts, of which ſoap is compoſed whence if ſoap contains any ſuperfluous quantity of either the oil or the ſalt, it may by means of this menſtruum be excellently purified. It diſſolves, by the aſſiſtance of heat, volatile alkaline ſalts, and more readily the neutral ones, compoſed either of fixed alkali and the acetous acid, as the ſal diureticus, or of the volatile alkali and nitrous acid, as alſo the ſalt of amber, &c. It mixes with water and with acid, not with alkaline lixivia.

Oils diſſolve vegetable reſins and balſams, wax, animal ſalts, mineral bitumens, ſulphur, and certain metallic ſubſtances, particularly lead. The expreſſed oils are, for moſt of theſe bodies, more powerful menſtrua than thoſe obtained by diſtillation, as the former are more capable of ſuſtaining without injury, a ſtrong heat, which is in moſt caſes neceſſary to enable them to act. It is ſaid that one ounce of ſulphur will diſſolve in three ounces of expreſſed oil, particularly linſeed oil, but requires ſix ounces of eſſential oil, as turpentine.

All acids diſſolve alkaline ſalts, alkaline earths, and metallic ſubſtances. The different acids differ greatly in their action on their laſt, one diſſolving only ſome particular metals; and another, others.

The vegetable acids diſſolve a conſiderable quantity of zinc, iron, copper, lead, and tin; and extract ſo much from the metallic part of antimony, as to become powerfully emetic. They diſſolve lead more readily, if the metal be previouſly calcined by fire, than in its metallic ſtate.

The muriatic acid diſſolves zinc, iron, and copper, and though it acts ſcarcely on any other metallic ſubſtance in the common way of making ſolutions, it may nevertheleſs be artfully combined with them all. The corroſive ſublimate and antimonial cauſtic of the ſhops are combinations of it with mercury and the metallic part of antimony, effected by applying the acid, in the form of fume, to the ſubjects at the ſame time alſo ſtrongly heated.

The nitrous acid is the common menſtruum of all metallic ſubſtances, except gold and the metallic part of antimony, of which two, the proper ſolvent is a mixture of the nitrous and muriatic, called aqua regia.

The vitriolic acid diluted with water, eaſily diſſolves zinc and iron. In its concentrated ſtate, and aſſiſted by a boiling heat, it may be made to corrode, or imperfectly diſſolve moſt of the other metals. Fixed air, or aërial acid diſſolves iron, zinc, and calcareous earth; and theſe ſolutions

muſt be conducted without heat. Alkaline lixivia diſſolve oils, reſinous ſubſtances, and ſulphur. Their power is greatly promoted by the addition of quicklime, inſtances of which occur in the preparation of ſoap, and in the common cauſtic. Thus actuated, they reduce the fleſh, bones, and other ſolid parts of animals, into a gelatinous matter.

This increaſed acrimony in alkaline ſalts, is owing to the abſtraction of their fixed air, that acid having a greater attraction for quicklime than for alkalies.

Solutions made in water and in ſpirit of wine, poſſeſs the virtues of the bodies diſſolved, while oils generally ſheath its activity, and acids and alkalies vary its quality. Hence watery and ſpirituous liquors are the proper menſtrua of the native virtues of vegetable and animal matters.

Moſt of the foregoing ſolutions are eaſily affected, by pouring the menſtruum on the body to be diſſolved, and ſuffering them to ſtand together for ſome time expoſed to a ſuitable heat. A ſtrong heat is generally requiſite to enable oils and alkaline liquors to perform their office; nor will acids act on ſome metallic bodies without its aſſiſtance. The action of watery and ſpirituous menſtrua is likewiſe expedited by a moderate heat; though the quantity which they afterwards keep diſſolved is not as ſome ſuppoſe, by this means increaſed; all that heat occaſions theſe to take up more than they would do in a longer time in the cold, will, when the heat ceaſes, ſubſide again. This at leaſt is moſt commonly the caſe, though there may be ſome inſtances of the contrary.

The action of acids on the bodies which they diſſolve, is generally accompanied with heat, effervescence, and a copious diſcharge of elaſtic aërial fluids, different in different caſes.

There is another ſpecies of ſolution, in which the moiſture of the air is the menſtruum. Fixed alkaline ſalts, and thoſe of the neutral kind, compoſed of alkaline ſalts and the vegetable acid, or of ſoluble earths and any acid except the vitriolic, and ſome metallic ſalts, on being expoſed to a moiſt air, gradually attract humidity, and at length become liquid. Some ſubſtances, not diſſoluble by the application of water in its groſſer form, as the butter of antimony, are eaſily liquified by the ſlow action of the aërial moiſture. This proceſs is called deliquation.

Solution of continuity. A term given by modern ſurgeons to any ſpace occaſioned by a wound, ulcer, &c.

Solvent. See *Menſtruum*.

Sonchus, (*Sonchus, i*, m. σογχος, παρα το σωον χεειν from its wholeſome juice). The ſow thiſtle. All the ſpecies of ſonchus abound with a milky juice, which is very bitter and ſaid to poſſeſs diuretic virtues. The *ſonchus oleraceus* of Linnæus is ſometimes employed with that intention. Boiled it may be eaten as a ſubſtitute for cabbage.

Sonchus oleraceus. The ſyſtematic name of the ſow thiſtle. See *Sonchus*.

Sophĭa, (*Sophia, æ*, f. σοφια from σοφος wiſe; ſo named from its great virtues in ſtopping fluxes). Flixweed or flux-weed.

Sophĭa chirurgōrum. This plant, *Siſymbrium ſophia* of Linnæus, is now almoſt baniſhed from practice. It was formerly in high eſtimation in the cure of wounds. It has been given internally in hyſterical affections and uterine hæmorrhages, and the ſeeds are ſaid to be efficacious in deſtroying inteſtinal worms.

Sophistication. A term employed in pharmacy, to ſignify the counterfeiting or adulterating any medicine. This practice unhappily

obtains with moſt dealers in drugs, &c.; and the cheat is carried on ſo artificially by many as to prevent a diſcovery even by perſons of the moſt diſcerning faculties.

SOPHORA HEPTAPHYLLA. The ſyſtematic name of the ſhrub whoſe root and ſeeds are ſometimes called *anticholerica*: they are both intenſely bitter, and ſaid to be uſeful in cholera, colic, and dyſury.

SOPOR, (*Sopor, oris*, m.). Profound ſleep.

SOPORIFEROUS, (from *ſopor*, ſleep, and *fero*, to bear). A term given to thoſe medicines which induce ſleep. See *Anodynes*.

SORBUS, (*Sorbus, i*, f. from *ſorbeo*, to ſuck up; becauſe its fruit ſtops fluxes). The ſervice tree.

SORBUS AUCUPARIA. The wild ſervice tree. The berries of this plant are adſtringent, and, it is ſaid, have been found ſerviceable in allaying the pain of calculous affections in the kidneys.

SORDES. When the matter diſcharged from ulcers is rather viſcid or glutinous, it is thus named. This matter is frequently of a browniſh red colour, ſomewhat reſembling the grounds of coffee or grumous blood mixed with water. *Sordes*, *Sanies*, and *Ichor*, are all of them much more fetid than purulent matter, and none of them are altogether free from acrimony; but that which is generally termed *Ichor* is by much the moſt acrid of them, being frequently ſo ſharp and corroſive as to deſtroy large quantities of the neighbouring parts.

SORE-THROAT. See *Cynanche*.

SORREL, COMMON. See *Acetoſa*.

SORREL, FRENCH. See *Rumex Scutatus*.

SORREL, ROUNDLEAVED. See *Rumex ſcutatus*.

SORREL WOOD. See *Lujula*.

SOUR DOCK. The common ſorrel is ſometimes ſo called. See *Acetoſa*.

SOUTHERNWOOD. See *Abrotanum*.

SOW-BREAD. See *Arthanita*.

SOW-BREED. See *Cyclamen*.

SPA WATER. This mineral water appears to be a very ſtrongly acidulous chalybeate, containing more iron, and carbonic acid, than any other mineral ſpring. What applies to the uſe of chalybeates will apply to this water.

SPAIN, PELLITORY OF. See *Pyrethrum*.

SPANISH FLY. See *Cantharides*.

SPANISH LIQUORICE. See *Glycyrhiza*.

SPARTIUM SCOPARIUM. The ſyſtematic name of the common broom. See *Geniſta*.

SPASM, (*Spaſmus, i.* m. or Σπασμος from Σπασμα; σπαω, to draw). A ſpaſm or convulſion. An involuntary contraction of the muſcular fibres, or that ſtate of the contraction of muſcles which is not ſpontaneouſly diſpoſed to alternate with relaxation. When the contractions alternate with relaxation, which are frequently and preternaturally repeated, they are called convulſions. Spaſms are diſtinguiſhed by authors into clonic and tonic ſpaſms. In *clonic* ſpaſms, which are the true convulſions, the contractions and relaxations are alternate, as in epilepſy; but in *tonic* ſpaſms the member remains rigid, as in locked jaw. See *Convulſion* and *Tonic ſpaſm*.

SPASMI. Spaſmodic diſeaſes. The third order of the claſs *neuroſes* of Cullen; characteriſed by a morbid contraction or motion of muſcular fibres.

SPASMODIC COLIC. See *Colica*.

SPASMOLOGY, (*Spaſmologia, æ*, f. σπασμολογια, from σπασμος, a ſpaſm, and λογος, a diſcourſe). A treatiſe on convulſions.

SPASMUS CYNICUS. The *ſpaſmus cynicus*, or ſardonic grin, is a convulſive affection of the muſcles of the

face and lips on both ſides, which involuntarily forces the muſcles of thoſe parts into a ſpecies of grinning diſtortion. If one ſide only be affected, the diſorder is nominated tortura oris. When the maſſeter, buccinator, temporal, naſal, and labial muſcles, are involuntarily excited to action, or contorted by contraction or relaxation, they form a ſpecies of malignant ſneer. It ſometimes ariſes from eating hemlock, or other acrid poiſons, or ſucceeds to an apoplectic ſtroke.

SPEARMINT. See *Mentha ſativa*.

SPEARWORT WATER. See *Flammula*.

SPECIFICS. Such remedies as have an infallible efficacy in the cure of diſorders. The exiſtence of ſuch remedies is doubted.

SPĔCŬLUM OCŬLI, (*Speculum, i*, n. from *ſpecio*, to view). An inſtrument uſed by oculiſts to keep the eyelids open and the eye fixed.

SPĔCŬLUM ORIS. An inſtrument to force open the mouth.

SPĔCŬLUM VENĔRIS. See *Millefolium*.

SPEECH. See *Voice*.

SPEEDWELL FEMALE. See *Elatina*.

SPEEDWELL MALE. See *Veronica*.

SPEEDWELL MOUNTAIN. See *Veronica*.

SPERMA-CETI, (*Sperma-ceti, ſpermatis-ceti*, n. from σπερμα, ſeed, *a* σπειρω, to ſow, and *cete* or *cetus*, the whale). An oily, concrete, cryſtalline, ſemi-tranſparent matter, obtained from the cavity of the cranium of ſeveral ſpecies of whales. It was formerly very highly eſteemed, and many virtues were attributed to it; but it is now chiefly employed in affections of the lungs, primæ viæ, kidneys, &c. as a ſoftening remedy, mixed with mucilages. It is alſo employed by ſurgeons as an emollient in form of cerates, ointments, &c.

SPERMATOCĒLE, (*Spermatocele, es*, f. from σπερματοκηλη from σπερμα, ſeed, and κηλη, a tumour). A ſwelling of the teſticle or epididymis from an accumulation of ſemen. It is known by a ſwelling of thoſe organs, pain extending to the loins without inflammation.

SPHĂCĔLUS, (*Sphacelus, i*, m, σφακελος, from σφαζω, to deſtroy). A mortification of any part. See *Gangrene*.

SPHÆNOID BONE, (*Os ſphenoides*, from σφην, a wedge, and ειδος, a likeneſs; becauſe it is fixed in the cranium like a wedge). *Os cuneiforme, os multiforme*. Pterygoid bone. The os ſphenoides, or cuneiforme as it is called from its wedge-like ſituation amidſt the other bones of the head, is of a more irregular figure than any other bone. It has been compared to a bat with its wings extended. This reſemblance is but faint, but it would be difficult perhaps to find any thing it reſembles more.

We diſtinguiſh in this bone its body or middle part, and its wings or ſides, which are much more extenſive than its body.

Each of its wings or lateral proceſſes is divided into two parts. Of theſe the uppermoſt and moſt conſiderable portion, helping to form the deepeſt part of the temporal foſſa on each ſide, is called the *temporal proceſs*. The other portion makes a part of the orbit, and is therefore named the *orbitar proceſs*. The back part of each wing, from its running out ſharp to meet the os petroſum, has been called the *ſpinous proceſs*; and the two proceſſes, which ſtand out almoſt perpendicular to the baſis of the ſcull, have been named *pterygoid* or *aliform* proceſſes, though they may be ſaid rather to reſemble the legs than the wings of the bat.

Each of theſe proceſſes has two plates and a middle foſſa facing backwards; of theſe plates the external one is the broadeſt, and the internal one the longeſt. The lower end of the internal plate forms a kind of hook, over which paſſes the round tendon of the *muſculus circumflexus palati*. Beſides theſe, we obſerve a ſharp middle ridge, which ſtands out from the middle of the bone. The fore part of it, where it joins the naſal lamella of the ethmoidal bone, is thin and ſtraight; the lower part of it is thicker, and is received into the vomer.

The cavities obſervable on the external ſurface of the bone, are where it helps to form the temporal, naſal, and orbitar foſſæ. It has likewiſe two foſſæ in its pterygoid proceſſes. Behind the edge, which ſeparates theſe two foſſæ, we obſerve a ſmall groove, made by a branch of the ſuperior maxillary nerve in its paſſage to the temporal muſcle. Beſides theſe, it has other depreſſions, which ſerve chiefly for the origin of muſcles.

Its foramina are four on each ſide. The three firſt ſerve for the paſſage of the optic, ſuperior maxillary, and inferior maxillary nerves; the fourth tranſmits the largeſt artery of the dura mater. On each ſide we obſerve a conſiderable fiſſure, which, from its ſituation, may be called the ſuperior orbitar fiſſure. Through it paſs the third and fourth pair of nerves, a branch of the fifth, and likewiſe the ſixth pair. Laſtly, at the baſis of each pterygoid proceſs, we obſerve a foramen which is named *pterygoidean* and ſometimes *Vidian*, from Vidius who firſt deſcribed it. Through it paſſes a branch of the external carotid, to be diſtributed to the noſe.

The os ſphenoides on its internal ſurface affords three foſſæ. Two of theſe are conſiderable ones; they are formed by the lateral proceſſes, and make part of the leſſer foſſæ of the baſis of the ſkull. The third, which is ſmaller, is on the top of the body of the bone, and is called *ſella turcica*, from its reſemblance to a Turkiſh ſaddle. In this foſſa the pituitary gland is placed. At each of its four angles is a proceſs. They are called the *clinoid* proceſſes, and are diſtinguiſhed by their ſituation into anterior and poſterior proceſſes. The two latter are frequently united into one.

Within the ſubſtance of the os ſphenoides, immediately under the ſella turcica, we find two cavities, ſeparated by a thin bony lamella. Theſe are the ſphenoidal ſinuſes. They are lined with the pituitary membrane, and, like the frontal ſinuſes, ſeparate a mucus which paſſes into the noſtrils. In ſome ſubjects there is only one cavity; in others, though more rarely, we find three.

In infants the os ſphenoides is compoſed of three pieces, one of which forms the body of the bone and its pterygoid proceſſes, and the other two its lateral proceſſes. The clinoid proceſſes may even then be perceived in a cartilaginous ſtate, though ſome writers have aſſerted the contrary; but we obſerve no appearance of any ſinus.

This bone is connected with all the bones of the cranium, and likewiſe with the oſſa maxillaria, oſſa malarum, oſſa palati, and vomer. Its uſes may be collected from the deſcription we have given of it.

SPHÆNOIDAL SUTURE. *Sutura ſphænoidalis*. The ſphænoidal and ethmoidal ſutures are thoſe which ſurround the many irregular proceſſes of theſe two bones, and join them to each other and to the reſt.

SPHÆNO-SALPINGO-STAPHILINUS. See *Circumflexus*.

SPHÆNO-STAPHILĪNUS. See *Levator palati*.

SPHINCTER, (*Sphincter, eris*, m.

σφιγκτηρ, from σφιγγω, to ſhut up). The name of ſeveral muſcles, whoſe office is to ſhut or cloſe the aperture around which they are placed.

SPHINCTER ANI. *Sphincter externus* of Albinus and Douglas. *Sphincter cutaneus* of Winſlow. A ſingle muſcle of the anus, which ſhuts the paſſage through the anus into the rectum, and pulls down the bulb of the urethra, by which it aſſiſts in ejecting the urine and ſemen. It ariſes from the ſkin and fat that ſurround the verge of the anus on both ſides, near as far as the tuberoſity of the iſchium; the fibres are gradually collected into an oval form, and ſurround the extremity of the rectum. It is inſerted by a narrow point into the perineum, acceleratores urinæ, and tranſverſi perinei; and behind into the extremity of the os coccygis, by an acute termination.

SPHINCTER ANI CUTANĔUS. See *Sphincter ani.*

SPHINCTER ANI EXTERNUS. See *Sphincter ani.*

SPHINCTER ANI INTERNUS. Albinus and Douglas call the circular fibres of the muſcular coat of the rectum which ſurround its extremity by this name.

SPHINCTER LABIŌRUM. See *Orbicularis oris.*

SPHINCTER ORIS. See *Orbicularis oris.*

SPHINCTER VAGĪNÆ. A muſcle which contracts the mouth of the vagina, and compreſſes its corpus cavernoſum.

SPHINCTER VESĪCÆ. *Conſtrictor cunni* of Albinus. *Second muſcle of the clitoris* of Douglas. This muſcle ariſes from the ſphincter ani and from the poſterior ſide of the vagina near the perineum; from thence it runs up the ſide of the vagina, near its external orifice, oppoſite to the nymphæ, covers the corpus cavernoſum, and is inſerted into the crus and body or union of the crura clitoridis. Its uſe is to contract the mouth of the vagina.

SPHONDYLĬUM, (*Sphondylium, i*, n. σφονδυλιον, from σφονδυλος, vertebra; named from the ſhape of its root; or probably becauſe it was uſed againſt the bite of a ſerpent, called σφονδυλις.) This is ſuppoſed to be the branekurſine. See *Banca urſina.*

SPICA, (*Spica, æ*, f.). An ear of corn.

SPICA CELTĬCA. See *Nardus celtica.*

SPICA INDĬCA. See *Nardus indica.*

SPICA NARDI. See *Nardus indica.*

SPIGĒLĬA, (*Spigelia, æ*, f. from *ſpica*, an ear of corn; ſo called from its ſpicated top). The *Spigelia anthelmia, caule herbaceo foliis ſummis quaternis* of Linnæus is the plant directed as an anthelmintic by this name, its virtues are very ſimilar to thoſe of the Indian pink. See *Spigelia marilandica.*

SPIGĒLĬA ANTHELMĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the ſpigelia of ſome pharmacopœias. See *Spigelia.*

SPIGĒLĬA LONICĒRA. See *Spigelia marilandica.*

SPIGELIA MARILANDĬCA, (*Spigelia, æ*, f. from *ſpica*, an ear of corn; ſo called from its ſpicated top). *Spigelia lonicera.* Perennial wormgraſs, or Indian pink. *Spigelia marilandica* of Linnæus. *Spigelia caule tetragono, foliis omnibus oppoſitis.* Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Monogynia.* The whole of this plant, but moſt commonly the root, is employed as an anthelmintic by the Indians and inhabitants of America Dr. Hope has written in favour of this plant, in continued and remitting low worm fevers; beſides its property of deſtroying the worms in the primæ viæ, it acts as a purgative.

SPIGELIAN LOBE. See *Liber.*

SPIGNEL. See *Meum athamanticum.*

SPIKE. See *Nardus indica.*

SPIKENARD. See *Nardus indica.*

SPILANTHUS ACMELLA. The ſyſtematic name of the balm leaved ſpilanthus which, poſſeſſes a bitter taſte and a fragrant ſmell. The herb and ſeed are ſaid to be diuretic and menagogue, and uſeful in dropſies, jaundice, fluor albus, and calculous complaints.

SPINA ACIDA. See *Berberis.*

SPINA BĬFĬDA. A tumour upon the ſpine of new born children immediately about the lower vertebræ of the loins, and upper parts of the ſacrum; at firſt, it is of a dark blue colour; but in proportion as it increaſes in ſize, approaches nearer and nearer to the colour of the ſkin, becoming perfectly diaphanous.

From the ſurface of this tumour a pellucid watery fluid ſometimes exudes, and this circumſtance has been noticed by different authors. It is always attended with a weakneſs, or, more properly ſpeaking, a paralyſis of the lower extremities. The opening of it raſhly has proved quickly fatal to the child. Talpius, therefore, ſtrongly diſſuades us from attempting this operation. Acrel mentions a caſe where a nurſe raſhly opened a tumour, which, as ſhe deſcribed, it was a blood bag on the back of the child at the time of its birth, of a bigneſs equal to a hen's egg, in two hours after which the child died. From the diſſection it appeared that the bladder laid in the middle of the os ſacrum, and conſiſted of a fat, and ſome ſtrong membrane, which proceed from a long fiſſure of the bones. The extremity of the ſpinal marrow lay bare, and the ſpinal duct, in the os ſacrum, was uncommonly wide, and diſtended by the preſſure of the waters. Upon tracing it to the head, the brain was found nearly in its natural ſtate, but the ventricles contained ſo much water that the infundibulum was quite diſtended with it, and the paſſage between the third and fourth ventricle was greatly enlarged.

He likewiſe takes notice of another caſe, where a child lived about eight years labouring under this complaint, during which time it ſeemed to enjoy tolerable health, though pale. Nothing ſeemed amiſs in him, but ſuch a degree of debility as rendered him incapable to ſtand on his legs.

The tumour, as in the former caſe, was in the middle of the os ſacrum, of the bigneſs of a man's fiſt with little diſcolouring; and upon preſſing it became leſs. When opened it was found full of water, and the coats were the ſame as in the former, but the ſeparation of the bones was very conſiderable. The ſpinal marrow, under the tumour, was as ſmall as a pack-thread, and rigid; but there were no morbid appearances in the brain.

SPINA CERVĪNA, (ſo called from its thorns reſembling thoſe of the ſtag). *Rhamnus catharticus. Spina infectoria. Cerviſpina.* Purging buckthorn. The fruit or berries of this ſhrub, *Rhamnus catharticus* of Linnæus (*Rhamnus ſpinis terminalibus floribus quadrifidis dioicis, foliis ovatis, caule erecto.* Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Monogynia.*), have been long received into the materia medica: they contain a pulpy deep green juice, of a faint unpleaſant ſmell, a bitteriſh, acrid, nauſeous taſte, which operate briſkly by ſtool, producing thirſt, dryneſs of the mouth and fauces, and ſevere gripings, unleſs ſome diluting liquor be drank plentifully after it: made into ſyrup, it is the officinal preparation, which at preſent is rarely preſcribed except as a draſtic purge.

SPINĀ INFECTORĬA. See *Spina cervina.*

SPINĀ VENTŌSA. A tumour arising from an internal caries of a bone. It moſt frequently occurs in the carpus and tarſus, and is known by a continual pain in the bone, and a red ſwelling of the ſkin, which has a ſpongy feel,

SPINACHĬA, See *Spinacia.*

SPINĀCĬA, (*Spinacia, æ,* f. σπιναχια quaſi ισπιναχια, from ισπανια Spain, whence it originally came, or from its ſpinous ſeed). *Spinachia.* Spinage. This plant *Spinacia oleracea* of Linnæus is ſometimes directed for medicinal purpoſes in the cure of phthiſical complaints; made into a poultice, by boiling the leaves and adding ſome oil, it forms an excellent emollient. As an article of food it may be conſidered as ſimilar to cabbage and other oleraceous plants. See *Braſſica capitata.*

SPINĀCĬA OLERACĔA. The ſyſtematic name of ſpinage. See *Spinacia.*

SPINAL MARROW. See *Medulla ſpinalis.*

SPINALIS CERVĬCIS. This muſcle, which is ſituated cloſe to the vertebræ at the poſteior part of the neck and upper part of the back, ariſes, by diſtinct tendons, from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the five or ſix uppermoſt vertebræ of the back, and, aſcending obliquely under the complexus, is inſerted, by ſmall tendons, into the ſpinous proceſſes of the ſixth, fifth, fourth, third, and ſecond vertebræ of the neck.

Its uſe is to extend the neck obliquely backwards.

SPINALIS DORSI. This is the name given by Albinus to a tendinous and fleſhy maſs, which is ſituated along the ſpinous proceſſes of the back and the inner ſide of the longiſſimus dorſi.

It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the ſpinous proceſſes of the uppermoſt vertebræ of the loins, and the lowermoſt ones of the back, and is inſerted into the ſpinous proceſſes of the nine uppermoſt vertebræ of the back.

Its uſe is to extend the vertebræ, and to aſſiſt in raiſing the ſpine.

SPINE, (*Spina, æ,* f. from *ſpina,* thorn; ſo called from the ſpine-like proceſſes of the vertebræ). *Spina dorſi. Columna ſpinalis. Columna vertebralis.* A bony column or pillar extending in the poſterior part of the trunk from the great occipital foramen to the ſacrum. It is compoſed of twenty-four bones called vertebræ. The cavity that runs down the middle, and which contains the ſpinal marrow, is called the *ſpecus* or *theca vertebralis.* See *Vertebræ.*

SPIRÆA, (*Spiræa, æ,* f. from *ſpira* a pillar; ſo named from its ſpiral ſtalk). African meadow ſweet.

SPIRĒA FILIPENDŬLA. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal dropwort. See *Filipendula.*

SPIRĒA ULMARĬA. The ſyſtematic name of the meadow ſweet. See *Ulmaria.*

SPIRĬTUS ÆTHĔRIS NITRŌSI. *Spiritus nitroſi dulcis.* A febrifuge, diaphoretic, and diuretic compound moſtly adminiſtered in aſthenia, nervous affections, diſuria, and calculous affections.

SPIRĬTUS ÆTHĔRIS VITRIOLĬCI. *Spiritus vitrioli dulcis.* A diaphoretic, antiſpaſmodic, and tonic preparation moſtly exhibited in nervous debility, and weakneſs of the primæ viæ.

SPIRĬTUS ÆTHERIS VITRĬOLĬCI AROMATĬCUS. An excellent ſtimulating and ſtomachic compound which is adminiſtered in debility of the ſtomach and nervous affections.

SPIRĬTUS ÆTHĔRIS VITRĬOLĬCI COMPOSĬTUS. A ſtimulating anodyne ſuppoſed to be the celebrated *liquor mineralis anodynus* of Hoffman

It is exhibited in fevers, nervous affections, hyſteria, &c.; and in moſt caſes of fever where medicines are rejected by the ſtomach, this is of infinite ſervice.

SPIRĬTUS AMMONĬÆ. *Spiritus ſalis ammoniaci dulcis* A ſtimulating antiſpaſmodic exhibited in caſes of aſphyxia, aſtthenia, and in nervous diſeaſes.

SPIRĬTUS AMMONĬÆ COMPOSĬTUS. *Sal volatile liquidus.* A ſtimulating antiſpaſmodic and ſudorific in very general uſe to ſmell at in faintings and lowneſs of ſpirits. It is exhibited internally in nervous affections, hyſteria, and weakneſs of the ſtomach.

SPIRITUS AMMONIÆ FŒTĬDUS. *Spiritus volatĭlis fætidus* A ſtimulating antiſpaſmodic, often exhibited to children againſt convulſions, and to gouty and aſthmatic perſons.

SPIRĬTUS AMMONĬÆ SUCCINĀTUS. *Eau de luce. Spiritus ſalis ammoniacæ ſuccinatus. Liquor cornu cervi ſuccinatus.* This preparation is nothing more than a compound ſuccinate of ammoniac, and therefore termed *ſuccinus ammoniacæ* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is much eſteemed as a ſtimulant and nervine medicine, and is employed internally and externally againſt ſpaſms, hyſtercal, ſyncope, vertigo, and the ſtings of inſects.

SPIRĬTUS ANĪSI COMPOSĬTUS. A ſtimulating carminative and ſtomachic calculated to relieve flatulency, borborygmus, colic, and ſpaſmodic affections of the bowels.

SPIRĬTUS CAMPHORĀTUS. A ſtimulating medicine only uſed as an external application againſt chilblains, rheumatiſm, palſy, numbneſs, and gangrene.

SPIRĬTUS CARĬCI. This poſſeſſes the virtues of the carraway, and is moſtly given as a dram or in conjunction with other carminatives.

SPIRITUS CINNAMOMI. Spirit of cinnamon is moſtly uſed in conjunction with other carminatives to give a pleaſant flavour; it may be exhibited alone as a carminative and ſtimulant.

SPIRĬTUS CORNU CERVI. liquid carbonate of ammoniac. See *Liquor volatilis cornu cervi.*

SPIRĬTUS EBŎRIS. A liquid carbonate of ammoniac; it poſſeſſes ſimilar virtues to the hartſhorn. See *Liquor volatilis cornu cervi* and *Ammonia preparata.*

SPIRĬTUS LAVENDULE. Though moſtly uſed as a perfume, this ſpirit may be given internally as a ſtimulating nervine and antiſpaſmodic.

SPIRĬTUS LAVENDŬLE COMPOSĬTUS. An elegant and uſeful antiſpaſmodic, and ſtimulant in very general uſe againſt nervous diſeaſes, lowneſs of ſpirits, and weakneſs of the ſtomach, taken on a lump of ſugar.

SPIRĬTUS LUMBRICŌRUM. The ſpirit obtained by the diſtillation of the earthworm is ſimilar to hartſhorn.

SPIRĬTUS MENTHÆ PIPERITĬDIS. This poſſeſſes all the properties of the peppermint with the ſtimulating virtues of the ſpirit.

SPIRĬTUS MENTHÆ SATĪVÆ. This is moſt commonly added to carminative or antiſpaſmodic draughts and ſeldom exhibited alone.

SPIRĬTUS MILLEPEDĀRUM. A fluid volatile alkali, whoſe virtues are ſimilar to hartſhorn.

SPIRĬTUS MYNDERĒRI. See *Aqua ammoniæ acetata.*

SPIRĬTUS MYRĪSTĬCÆ. A ſtimulating and agreeable ſpirit poſſeſſing the virtues of the nutmeg.

SPIRĬTUS NITRI DULCIS. See *Spiritus ætheris nitroſi.*

SPIRĬTUS NITRI DUPLEX. The nitrous acid. See *Acidum nitroſum.*

SPIRĬTUS NITRI FUMANS. See *Acidum nitroſum.*

SPIRĬTUS NITRI GLAUBĒRI. See *Acidum nitroſum.*

SPIRĬTUS NITRI SIMPLEX. The dilute nitrous acid. See *Acidum nitroſum dilutum.*

SPIRĬTUS NITRI VULGĀRIS. This is now called acidum nitroſum dilutum. See *Acidum nitroſum dilutum.*

SPIRĬTUS PIMENTO. A ſtimulating aromatic tincture moſtly employed with adſtringent and carminative medicines.

SPIRĬTUS PULEGII. This is in very general uſe as an emmenagogue amongſt the lower orders. It poſſeſſes nervine and carminative virtues.

SPIRĬTUS RĂPHĂNI COMPOSĬTUS. A very warm ſtimulating compound given in gouty, rheumatic, and ſpaſmodic affections of the ſtomach and in ſcorbutic diſorders.

SPIRĬTUS RŌRISMARTNI. A very fragrant ſpirit moſtly employed for external purpoſes in conjunction with other reſolvents.

SPIRĬTUS SALIS AMMONIACI AQUŌSUS. See *Aqua ammoniæ.*

SPIRĬTUS SALIS AMMONIACI DULCIS. See *Spiritus ammoniæ.*

SPIRĬTUS SALIS AMMONIĀCI SIMPLEX. See *Aqua ammoniæ.*

SPIRĬTUS SALIS GLAUBĒRI. See *Acidum muriaticum.*

SPIRĬTUS SALIS MARĪNI. See *Acidum muriaticum.*

SPIRĬTUS VINŌSUS RECTIFICĀTUS. Rectified ſpirit of wine is in general uſe to diſſolve reſinous and other medicines. It is ſeldom exhibited internally, though it exiſts in the diluted ſtate in all vinous and ſpirituous liquors.

SPIRĬTUS VINŌSUS TENUĬOR. Proof ſpirit, which is half the ſtrength of rectified, is much employed for preparing tinctures of genuine reſinous juices, barks, roots, &c.

SPIRĬTUS VITRIOLI. See *Acidum vitriolicum dilutum.*

SPIRĬTUS VITRIOLI DULCIS. See *Spiritus ætheris vitriolici.*

SPIRĬTUS VOLATĬLIS FŒTĬDUS. See *Spiritus ammoniæ fætidus.*

SPITTING OF BLOOD. See *Hæmatemeſis* and *hæmoptyſis.*

SPLANCHNOLOGY, (*Splanchnologia, æ*, f. σπλαγχνολογια from σπλαγχνον an entrail and λογος, a diſcourſe). The doctrine of the viſcera.

SPLANCHNIC NERVE. The interior intercoſtal nerve. See *Intercoſtal nerve.*

SPLEEN, (*Splen, enis*, m. σπλην). *Lien.* The ſpleen or milt is a ſpongy viſcus of a livid colour, and ſo variable in form, ſituation, and magnitude, that it is hard to determine either. Nevertheleſs, in a healthy man it is always placed on the left ſide, in the left hypocondrium, between the eleventh and twelfth falſe ribs. Its circumference is oblong and round, reſembling an oval figure. It is larger, to ſpeak generally, when the ſtomach is empty, and ſmaller when it is compreſſed evacuated by a full ſtomach.

It ſhould particularly be remembered of this viſcus, that it is convex towards the ribs, and concave internally: alſo, that it has an excavation, into which veſſels are inſerted.

It is connected with the following parts:

1. With the ſtomach, by a ligament and ſhort veſſels.

2. With the omentum, and the left kidney.

3. With the diaphragm, by a portion of the peritonæum.

4. With the beginning of the pancreas, by veſſels.

5. With the colon, by a ligament.

In man the ſpleen is covered with one ſimple, firm membrane, ariſing from the peritonæum, which adheres to the ſpleen, very firmly, by the intervention of cellular ſtructure.

The veſſels of the ſpleen are, the ſplenic artery coming from the celiac artery, which, conſidering the ſize of the ſpleen, is much larger than is requiſite for the mere nutrition of it.

This goes by ſerpentine movements, out of its courſe, over the pancreas, and behind the ſtomach, and after having given off branches to the adjacent parts, it is inſerted into the concave ſurface of the ſpleen. It is afterwards divided into ſmaller branches, which are again divided into other yet ſmaller, delivering their blood immediately to the veins, but emitting it no where elſe. The veins, at length, come together into one, called the ſplenic vein, and having received the large coronary vein of the ſtomach, beſides others, it conſtitutes the left principal branch of the vena portæ.

The nerves of the ſpleen are ſmall; they ſurround the arteries with their branches; they come from the particular plexus, which is formed of the poſterior branches of the eighth pair, and the great intercoſtal nerve.

Lymphatic veſſels are almoſt only ſeen creeping along the ſurface of the human ſpleen.

The uſe of ſpleen has not hitherto been determined; yet if its ſituation and fabric be regarded, one would imagine its uſe to conſiſt chiefly in detaining the blood for ſome ſpace of time, diſſolving it by its warmth and rendering it more fluid.

Spleenwort. See *Ceterach.*

Splenītis, (*Splenitis*, *ĭdis*, f. σπληνίς, from σπλην, the ſpleen). Inflammation of the ſpleen. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *phlegmaſiæ* of Cullen; characterized by pyrexia, tenſion, heat, tumour, and pain in the left hypochondrium, increaſed by preſſure. This diſeaſe, according to Juncker, comes on with a remarkable ſhivering, ſucceeded by a moſt intenſe heat, and very great thirſt; a pain and tumor are perceived in the left hypochondrium, and the paroxyſms for the moſt part aſſume a quartan form, when the patients expoſe themſelves for a little to the free air, their extremities immediately grow very cold. If an hæmorrhagy happen the blood flows out of the left noſtril. The other ſymptoms are the ſame with thoſe of the hepatitis. Like the liver, the ſpleen often is alſo ſubject to a chronic inflammation which often happens after agues, and is called the ague cake, though that name is alſo frequently given to a ſcirrhous tumor of the liver ſucceeding intermittents. The cauſes of this diſeaſe are in general the ſame with thoſe of other inflammatory diſorders; but thoſe which determine the inflammation to that particular part more than another, are very much unknown. It attacks perſons of a very plethoric and ſanguine habit of body rather than others.

Splenĭus, (σπληνιος; from σπλην, the ſpleen; ſo named from its reſemblance in ſhape to the ſpleen or according to ſome it derives its name from *ſplenium*, a *ferula*, or ſplint, which ſurgeons apply to the ſides of a fractured bone). The ſplenius is a flat, broad, and oblong muſcle, in part covered by the upper part of the trapezius, and obliquely ſituated between the back of the ear, and the lower and poſterior part of the neck.

It ariſes tendinous from the four or five ſuperior ſpinous proceſſes of the dorſal vertebræ; tendinous and fleſhy from the laſt of the neck, and tendinous from the ligamentum colli, or rather the tendons of the two ſplenii unite here inſeparably; but about the ſecond or third vertebra of the neck they recede from each other, ſo that part of the complexus may be ſeen.

It is inserted, by two distinct tendons, into the transverse processes of the two first vertebræ of the neck, sending off some few fibres to the complexus and levator scapulæ; tendinous and fleshy into the upper and posterior part of the mastoid process, and into a ridge on the occipital bone, where it joins with the root of that process.

This muscle may easily be separated into two parts. Eustachius and Fallopius were aware of this; Winslow has distinguished them into the *superior* and *inferior* portions; and Albinus has described them as two distinct muscles, calling that part which is inserted into the mastoid process and os occipitis, *splenius capitis*, and that which is inserted into the vertebræ of the neck, *splenius colli*. We have here followed Douglas, and the generality of writers, in describing these two portions as one muscle, especially as they are intimately united near their origin.

When this muscle acts singly, it draws the head and upper vertebræ of the neck obliquely backwards; when both act, they pull the head directly backwards.

SPLENOCĒLE, (*Splenocele, es*, f. σπληνοκηλη; from σπλην, the spleen, and κηλη, a tumour). A rupture of the spleen.

SPONGE. See *Spongia*.

SPONGĬA, (*Spongia, æ*, f. σπογγος, or σπομτια). Sponge. A sea production. The *Spongia officinalis* of Linnæus; the habitation of insects. Burnt sponge is said to cure effectually the bronchocele, and to be of infinite utility in scrophulous complaints. Sponge tents are employed by surgeons to dilate fistulous ulcers, &c.

SPONGĬA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the sponge. See *Spongia*.

SPONGĬA USTA. Burnt sponge. This preparation is exhibited with bark in the cure of scrophulous complaints, and forms the basis of a lozenge which has been known to cure the bronchocele in many instances.

SPORADIC, (Σποραδικος; from σπειρω, to sow). An epithet for such diseases as seize particular persons, at the same time or season.

SPOTTED LUNGWORT. See *Pulmonaria*.

SPURGE FLAX. See *Thymalæa*.

SPURGE LAUREL. See *Laureola*.

SPURGE OLIVE. See *Mezereum*.

SPRAIN. See *Subluxatio*.

SQAMOSE SUTURE, (*Sutura squamosa*, from *squama*, a scale; because the bones lie over each other like scales). The suture which unites the squamose portion of the temporal bone with the parietal.

SQUILL. See *Scilla*.

SQUILLA. See *Scilla*.

SQUINANTHUS, (*Squinanthus, i.* from *squinanthia*, the quincey; so named from its uses in the quincey). The sweet rush was once so called. See *Juncus odoratus*.

STANNI PULVIS. Tin finely filed is exhibited internally as a vermifuge.

STANNUM, (*Stannum, i.* n.). See *Tin*.

STAPĒDĬUS, (*Stapedius, sc. musculus*; from *stapes*, one of the bones of the ear). *Stapedæus* of Douglas. *Musculus stapedis* of Winslow. A muscle of the internal ear, which draws the stapes obliquely upwards towards the cavern, by which the posterior part of its base is moved inwards, and the anterior part outwards.

STAPES, (*Stapes, ĕdis*, m. *in quo pes stat*). A bone of the internal ear, so called from its resemblance to a stirrup.

STAPHILĪNUS EXTERNUS. See *Circumflexus*.

STAPHISĀGRĬA, (*Staphisagria, æ.*

. ραδις αγρια, wild vine; from the resemblance of its leaves to those of the vine). *Staphys. Pedicularia,* Staves acre. *Delphinum staphisagria* of Linnæus. *Delphinum nectariis tetraphyllis petalo brevioribus, foliis palmatis, lobis otusis.* Class *Polyandria.* Order *Trigynia.* The seeds, which are the only part directed for medicinal use, are usually imported here from Italy; they are large, rough, of an irregular triangular figure, and of a blackish colour on the outside, but yellowish within; their smell is disagreeable, and somewhat fetid; to the taste they are very bitter, acrid, and nauseous. It was formerly employed as a masticatory, but is now confined to external use in some kinds of cutaneous eruptions, but more especially for destroying lice and other insects; hence by the vulgar it is called louse-wort.

STAPHYLĪNUS, (*Staphilinus, sc. musculus,* ραφυλινος; from ραφυλη, the uvula). *Azygos uvulæ. Epistaphylinus. Palato staphylinus.* An azygos muscle of the uvula: it arises fleshy from the extremity of the suture which joins the palate bones, runs down the whole length of the velum pendulumpalati, and uvula, resembling an earth worm, and adhering to the tendons of the circumflexi; is inserted into the tip of the uvula, which, by contracting, it raises upwards, and forwards and shortens it.

STAPIDÆUS. See *Stapedius.*

STAPHYLŌMA, (*Staphyloma, atis,* n. ραφυλωμα; from ραφυλη, a grape). A disease of the cornea of the eye, in which this membrane acquires a preternatural thickness and opacity in its substance. The proximate cause is an effusion of thick humor between the lamellæ of the cornea, so that the internal and external superficies of the cornea, very much protuberates. The remote causes are, an habitual ophthalmia, great contusion, and frequently a deposition of the variolous humor in the small-pox. The species are; 1st. *Staphyloma totale,* which occupies the whole transparent cornea; this is the most frequent species. The symptoms are, the opaque cornea protuberates, and if in the form of a cone increasing in magnitude, it pushes out and inverts the lower eyelid; and sometimes the morbid cornea is so elongated, as to lay on the cheek, causing friction and excoriation. The bulb of the eye being exposed to the air, sordes generate, the inferior palpebra is irritated by the cilia, and very painful red and small papillæ are observable. 2nd. *Staphyloma racemosum,* is a staphyloma formed by carnous tubercles, about the size of a small pin's head. 3rd. *Staphyloma partiale,* which occupies some part of the cornea: it exhibits an opaque tumor prominent from the cornea, similar to a small blueish grape. 4th. *Staphyloma sclerotica,* is a bluish tumor attached to some part of the sclerotica, but arising from the tunica albuginea. 5th. *Staphyloma pellucidum,* in which the cornea is not thickened or incrassated, but very much extended and pellucid. 6th. *Staphyloma complicatum,* which is complicated with an ulcer, ectropium, caruncles, or any other disorder of the eye. 7th. *Staphyloma iridis.* For this species see *Ptosis iridis.*

STARCH, *Amylum.* The fecula of wheaten flour. See *Amylum.*

Starch is one of the constituent parts in all mealy farinaceous seeds, fruits, roots, and other parts of plants. Of these the fæculæ of the ancients for medicinal use are an example. They are mere starch; as for instance the fecula of wake robin, (radix arisaronis); of bryony (bryonia alba); the starch of potatoes; (solanum tuberosum); of sago, from the pith of the palm landanum; the cassava of the Americans, from the manioc root (jatropha manicot).

The ſalep roots, from a ſpecies of orchis conſiſts for the greateſt part of ſtarch. Our common ſtarch is made from wheat. It is not neceſſary that the grain be firſt bruiſed in mills. The entire corn, well cleanſed, is ſoaked in cold water until the huſk ſeparates; and the grains, having become quite ſoft, give out by preſſure a milky fluid. The grains are then taken out of the water by means of a ſieve, put into a coarſe linen ſack, and transferred into the treading tub; where they are trodden, after cold water has been poured upon them.

By this operation the ſtarchy part is waſhed out, and mingling with the water makes it milky. The water is now drawn off, running through a ſieve into the ſettling tub. Freſh water is again effuſed upon the grains, and the ſame operation is continued, till the water in the treading tub is no longer rendered milky. The ſtarch here precipitates by repoſe from the water that held it ſuſpended; during which, eſpecially in a warm ſeaſon, the mucilaginous ſaccharine matter of the flour, that was diſſolved by the water, goes into the acetous fermentation. From this cauſe the ſtarch grows ſtill purer and whiter. The water is next let off from the ſtarch, which is ſeveral times more waſhed with clear freſh water; the remaining part of which is ſuffered to drip through linen cloths ſupported by hurdles, upon which the wet ſtarch is placed. When the ſtarch has fully ſubſided, it is wrapt in, wrung between theſe cloths, or preſſed, to extort ſtill more of the remaining liquid.

It is afterwards cut into pieces, which are laid in airy places on ſlightly burnt bricks to be completely dried, partly by the free currency of air, and partly by the bricks imbibing their moiſture. Laſtly, the outer cruſt is ſcraped off, and they are broken into ſmaller pieces.

In the ſacks wherein the corn was trodden there remain its huſks and glutinous parts; and this riſiduum is employed as food for cattle.

STATĬCE, (*Statice, es.* f. στατικη; from στατιζω, to ſtop, ſo named from its ſuppoſed property of reſtraining hæmorrhages). The herb Sea-thirſt.

STATĬCE LIMONĬUM. The ſyſtematic name of the thrift or ſea friſk. See *Behen rubrum.*

STAVESACRE. See *Staphiſagria.*

STEATOCĒLE, (*Steatocele, es,* f. στεατοκηλη; from στεαξ, ſuet, and κηλη, a tumor). A collection of a ſuetty ſubſtance in the ſcrotum.

STEATŌMA, (*Steatoma, atis,* n. στεατωμα; from στεαξ, ſuet). An encyſted tumur, whoſe contents are of a ſuetty conſiſtence.

STEEL. *Chalybs.* The beſt, hardeſt, fineſt, and cloſeſt grained iron, combined with carbon by a particular proceſs.

STELOCHITES. See *Oſteocolla.*

STEMLESS MILKVETCH. See *Aſtragalus excapus.*

STERNO. Names compounded of this word belong to muſcles which are attached to the ſternum; as,

STERNO-CLEIDO HYOIDEUS. See *Sterno-hyoideus.*

STERNO-CLEIDO MASTOIDĒUS. *Sterno-maſtoideus* and *Cleido-maſtoideus* of Albinus. *Maſtoideus* of Winſlow. A muſcle, on the anterior and lateral part of the neck, which turns the head to one ſide and bends it forward. It ariſes by two diſtinct origins; the anterior tendinous and fleſhy, from the top of the ſternum near the junction with the clavicle; the poſterior fleſhy, from the upper and anterior part of the clavicle; both unite a little above the anterior articulation of the clavicle, to form one muſcle, which runs obliquely upwards and outwards to be inſerted, by a thick ſtrong tendon, into the maſtoid pro-

ceſs of the temporal bone, which it ſurrounds; and gradually becoming thinner, is inſerted as far back as the lambdoidal ſuture.

Sterno costales. Veſalius conſidered theſe as forming a ſingle muſcle on each ſide, of a triangular ſhape; hence we find the name of *triangularis* adopted by Douglas and Albinus; but Verheyen, who firſt taught that they ought to be deſcribed as four or five diſtinct muſcles, gave them the name of *ſterno coſtales*; and in this he is very properly followed by Winſlow, Haller, and Lieutaud.

Theſe muſcles are ſituated at each ſide of the under ſurface of the ſternum, upon the cartilages of the third, fourth, fifth, and ſixth ribs. Their number varies in different ſubjects; very often there are only three, ſometimes five, and even ſix, but moſt uſually we find only four.

The lowermoſt of the ſterno coſtales, or what would be called the inferior portion of the triangularis, ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the edge and inner ſurface of the lower part of the cartilago enſiformis, where its fibres intermix with thoſe of the diaphragm and tranſverſalis abdominis. Its fibres run nearly in a tranſverſe direction, and are inſerted, by a broad thin tendon, into the inner ſurface of the cartilage of the ſixth rib, and lower edge of that of the fifth.

The ſecond and largeſt of the ſterno coſtales, ariſes tendinous from the cartilago enſiformis and lower part of the ſternum, laterally, and, running a little obliquely outwards, is inſerted into the lower edge of the cartilage of the fifth, and ſometimes of the fourth rib.

The third ariſes tendinous from the ſides of the middle part of the ſternum, near the cartilages of the fourth and fifth ribs, and, aſcending obliquely outwards, is inſerted into the cartilage of the third rib.

The fourth and uppermoſt, which is the moſt frequently wanting, ariſes tendinous from the beginning of the cartilage of the third rib and the adjacent part of the ſternum, and running almoſt perpendicularly upwards, is inſerted by a thin tendon (which covers a part of the ſecond internal intercoſtal), into the cartilage and beginning of the bony part of the ſecond rib.

All theſe muſcles are more or leſs intermixed with one another at their origin, and this probably occaſioned them to be conſidered as one muſcle. Fallopius informs us, that the plate Veſalius has given of them was taken from a dog, in which animal they are much larger than in man. Douglas has endeavoured to account for this difference, but his explanation is far from being ſatisfactory.

Sterno hyoidēus. As this muſcle ariſes from the clavicle, as well as from the ſternum, Winſlow calls it *ſterno-cleido-hyoideus*. It is a long, flat, and thin muſcle, ſituated obliquely between the ſternum and os hyoides, behind the lower part of the maſtoideus, and covering the *ſterno-thyroideus* and the *hyo-thyroideus*. It ariſes, by very ſhort tendinous fibres, from the cartilaginous part of the firſt rib, from the upper and inner part of the ſternum, from the capſular ligament that connects that bone with the clavicle, and commonly from a ſmall part of the clavicle itſelf; from thence, aſcending along the anterior and lateral part of the neck, we ſee it united to its fellow, oppoſite to the inferior part of the larynx, by means of a thin membrane, which forms a kind of *linea alba*. After this the two muſcles ſeparate again, and each paſſing over the ſide of the thyroid cartilage, is inſerted into the baſis of

the os hyoides, immediately behind the inſertion of the laſt deſcribed muſcle.

Its uſe is to draw the os hyoides downwards.

STERNO MASTOIDĒUS. See *Sterno-cleido-maſtoideus*.

STERNO THYROIDĒUS, (*muſculus ſterno-thyroideus*). This is flat and thin, like the preceding muſcle, but longer and broader. It is ſituated at the fore part of the neck, between the ſternum and thyroid cartilage, and behind the ſterno hyoideus. It ariſes broad and fleſhy from the upper and inner part of the ſternum, between the cartilages of the firſt and ſecond ribs, from each of which it receives ſome few fibres, as well as from the clavicle, where it joins with the ſternum. From thence, growing ſomewhat narrower, it aſcends, and, paſſing over the thyroid gland and the cricoid cartilage, is inſerted tendinous into the lower and poſterior edge of the rough line of the thyroid cartilage, immediately under the inſertion of the laſt deſcribed muſcle. Now and then a few of its fibres paſs on to the os hyoides. Its uſe is to draw the thyroid cartilage, and conſequently the larynx, downwards.

STERNUM, (*Sternum, i*, n.). The breaſt-bone. The ſternum, os pectoris, or breaſt-bone, is the oblong, flat bone, placed at the fore part of the thorax. The oſſification of this bone in the fœtus beginning from many different points at the ſame time, we find it, in young ſubjects, compoſed of ſeveral bones united by cartilages; but as we advance in life, moſt of theſe cartilages oſſify, and the ſternum, in the adult ſtate, is found to conſiſt of three, and ſometimes only of two pieces, the two lower portions being united into one; and very often, in old ſubjects, the whole is formed into one bone. But, even in the latter caſe, we may ſtill obſerve the marks of its former diviſions; ſo that, in deſcribing the bone, we may very properly divide it into its upper, middle, and inferior portions.

The upper portion forms an irregular ſquare, which, without much reaſon, has, by many writers, been compared to the figure of a heart as it is painted on cards. It is of conſiderable thickneſs, eſpecially at its upper part. Its anterior ſurface is irregular, and ſlightly convex; poſteriorly, it is ſomewhat concave. Its upper middle part is hollowed, to make way for the trachea arteria. On each ſide, ſuperiorly, we obſerve an oblong articulating ſurface, covered with cartilage in the recent ſubject, for receiving the ends of the clavicles. Immediately below this, on each ſide, the bone becomes thinner, and we obſerve a rough ſurface for receiving the cartilage of the firſt rib, and, almoſt cloſe to the inferior edge of this, we find the half of ſuch another ſurface, which, combined with a ſimilar ſurface in the middle portion of the ſternum, ſerves for the articulation of the cartilage of the ſecond rib.

The middle portion is much longer, narrower, and thinner than the former; but is ſomewhat broader and thinner below than above, where it is connected with the upper portion. The whole of its anterior ſurface is ſlightly convex, and within it is ſlightly concave. Its edge, on each ſide, affords four articulating ſurfaces, for the third, fourth, fifth, and ſixth ribs; and parts of articulating ſurfaces at its upper and lower parts, for the ſecond and ſeventh ribs. About the middle of this portion of the ſternum we ſometimes find a conſiderable hole, large enough in ſome ſubjects to admit the end of the little finger. Sylvius ſeems to have been the firſt who deſcribed it. Riolanus and ſome others after him have, without reaſon, ſuppoſed it to be more

frequent in women than in men. In the recent ſubject it is cloſed by a cartilaginous ſubſtance; and, as it does not ſeem deſtined for the tranſmiſſion of veſſels, as ſome writers have aſſerted, we may, perhaps very properly, with M. Hunauld, conſider it as an accidental circumſtance, occaſioned by an interruption of the oſſification, before the whole of this part of the bone is completely oſſified.

The third and inferior portion of the ſternum is ſeparated from the former by a line, which is ſeldom altogether obliterated, even in the oldeſt ſubjects. It is ſmaller than the other parts of the bone, and deſcends between the ribs, ſo as to have been conſidered as an appendix to the reſt of the ſternum. From its ſhape, and its being conſtantly in a ſtate of cartilage in young ſubjects, it has been commonly named *cartilago xiphoides*, *enſiformis*, or ſword-like cartilage; though many of the ancients gave the name of xiphoides to the whole ſternum; comparing the two firſt bones to the handle, and this appendix to the blade of the ſword. The ſhape of this appendix varies in different ſubjects; in ſome it is longer and more pointed, in others ſhorter and more obtuſe. Veſlingius has ſeen it reaching as low as the navel, and incommoding the motion of the trunk forwards. In general it terminates obtuſely, or in a ſingle point; ſometimes, however, it is bifurcated, and Euſtachius and Haller have ſeen it trifid. Very often we find it perforated, for the tranſmiſſion of branches of the mammary artery. In the adult it is uſually oſſified and tipped with cartilage, but it very often continues cartilaginous through life, and Haller once found it in this ſtate in a woman who died in her hundredth year.

The ſubſtance of the ſternum, internally, is of a light, ſpongy texture, covered externally with a thin bony plate; hence it happens that this bone is eaſily fractured. From the deſcription we have given of it, its uſes may be eaſily underſtood. We have ſeen it ſerving for the articulation of ſeven true ribs on each ſide, and hence we ſhall find it of conſiderable uſe in reſpiration. We likewiſe obſerved, that it is articulated with each of the clavicles. It ſerves for the origin and inſertion of ſeveral muſcles; it ſupports the mediaſtinum; and laſtly, defends the heart and lungs: and it is obſervable, that we find a ſimilar bone in almoſt all animals that have lungs, and even in ſuch as have no ribs, of which latter we have an inſtance in the frog.

STERNUTAMENTORIA. See *Ptarmica*.

STERTOR, (*Stertor, oris*, m.). A noiſy kind of reſpiration as is obſerved in apoplexy. A ſnoring or ſnorting.

STIBĬUM, (*Stibium i.* n.). An ancient name of antimony. See *Antimonium*.

STIGMA, (*ſtigma, atis*, n.). A ſmall red ſpeck in the ſkin, occaſioning no elevation of the cuticle. Stigmata are generally diſtinct or apart from each other. They ſometimes aſſume a livid colour and are then termed *petechiæ*.

STIMULANTS, (*Stimulantia*, ſc. *medicamenta*, from *ſtimulo*, to ſtir up). Medicines are ſo termed which poſſeſs a power of exciting the animal energy. They are divided into, 1. *Stimulantia tonica*, as *ſinapi*, *cantharides*, *mercurii præparationes*. 2. *Stimulantia defuſibilia*, as *alkali volatile*, *electricity*, *heat*, &c. 3. *Stimulantia cardiaca*, as *cinnamomum*, *nux moſchata*, *wine*, &c.

STĬMŬLUS, (*Stimulus, i*, m.). Any thing which irritates.

STINKING LETTUCE. See *Lactuca graveolens*.

STIZOLOBĬUM. The cowage is ſometimes ſo called. See *Dolichos*.

STOECHAS, (*Stœchas*, στοιχας; from στοιχαδες, the iſlands on which it grew). French lavender.

STOECHAS ARABICA. French lavender. *Lavendula ſtœchas* of Linnæus. This plant is much leſs grateful in ſmell and flavour than the common lavender to which it is allied in its properties.

STOECHAS CITRĬNA. See *Elichryſum*.

STOMĀCĂCE, (*Stomacace, es*, f. στομακακη; from στομα, the mouth, and κακος, evil). A fetor in the mouth with a bloody diſcharge from the gums.

STOMACH. *Ventriculus*. A membranous receptacle, ſituated in the epigraſtic region, which receives the food from the œſophagus; its figure is ſomewhat oblong and round: it is largeſt on the left ſide, and gradually diminiſhes towards its lower orifice, where it is the leaſt. Its ſuperior orifice, where the æſophagus terminates, is called the *cardia*; the inferior orifice, where the inteſtine begins, the *pylorus*. The anterior ſurface is turned towards the abdominal muſcles, and the poſterior oppoſite the lumbar vertebræ. It has two curvatures: the firſt is called the great curvature of the ſtomach, and extends downwards from one orifice to the other, having the omentum adhering to it: the ſecond is the ſmall curvature, which is alſo between both orifices, but ſuperiorly and poſteriorly. The ſtomach, like the inteſtinal canal, is compoſed of three coats or membranes: 1. The *outermoſt*, which is very firm and from the peritonæum: 2. The *muſcular*, which is very thick, and compoſed of various muſcular fibres: and, 3. The *innermoſt* or *villous coat*, which is covered with exhaling and inhaling veſſels, and mucus. Theſe coats are connected together by cellular membrane. The glands of the ſtomach which ſeparate the mucus, are ſituated between the villous and muſcular coat, in the cellular ſtructure. The arteries of the ſtomach come chiefly from the cœliac artery, and are diſtinguiſhed into the coronary, gaſtro-epiploic, and ſhort arteries; they are accompanied by veins which have ſimilar names, and which terminate in the vena portæ. The nerves of the ſtomach are very numerous, and come from the eighth pair and intercoſtal nerves. The lymphatic veſſels are diſtributed throughout the whole ſubſtance, and proceed immediately to the thoracic duct. The uſe of the ſtomach is to excite hunger and partly thirſt, to receive the food from the œſophagus, and to retain it, till by the motion of the ſtomach, the admixture of various fluids, and many other changes, it is rendered fit to paſs the right orifice of the ſtomach, and afford chyle to the inteſtines.

STOMACH, INFLAMMATION OF, See *Gaſtritis*.

STOMACHICS, (*Stomachia*, ſc. *medicamenta*, from στομαχος, the ſtomach). Medicines which excite and ſtrengthen the action of the ſtomach.

STONE. See *Calculus*.

STONECROSS. See *Illecebra*.

STORAX, (*Storax, acis*, f. στοραξ). See *Styrax*.

STORAX LIQUID. See *Liquidambra*.

STORAX LIQUĬDA. See *Liquidambra*.

STORAX WHITE. See *Balſamum peruvianum*.

STRABISMUS, (*Strabiſmus, i*, m. στραβισμος, from στραβιζω, to ſquint). Squinting. An affection of the eye, by which the perſon ſees objects in an oblique manner, from the axis of viſion being diſtorted. Cullen arranges this diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *dyſcineſiæ*.

STRAMMONĬUM. See *Stramonium*.

STRAMŌNĬUM, (*Stramonium, i*, n. from *ſtramen*, ſtraw; ſo called from its fibrous roots). Common thorn-apple. *Datura ſtramonium* of Linnæus. *Datura pericarpiis ſpinoſis erectis ovatis, foliis ovatis glabris.* Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Monogynia.* This plant has been long known as a powerful narcotic poiſon. In its recent ſtate it has a bitteriſh taſte, and a ſmell ſomewhat reſembling that of poppies, eſpecially if the leaves be rubbed between the fingers. Inſtances of the deleterious effects of the plant are numerous, more particularly of the ſeed. An extract prepared from the ſeeds is recommended by Baron Stoerck in maniacal, epileptic, and convulſive affections. Externally the leaves of ſtramonium have been applied to inflammatory tumors and burns, and it is ſaid with ſucceſs.

STRANGURY, (*Stranguria, æ*, f. στραγγουρια, from στραγξ, a drop, and ουρον, urine). A difficulty of making water, attended with pain and dripping.

STRATIŌTES, (*Stratiotes, æ*, m. στρατιωτης, from στρατος, an army, ſo named from its virtues in healing freſh wounds, and its uſefulneſs to ſoldiers.) See *Millefolium.*

STRAWBERRY. See *Fragaria.*

STROPHULUS, (*Strophulus, i*, m.) A papulous eruption, peculiar to infants, and exhibiting a variety of forms, which are deſcribed by Dr. Willan, under the titles of *intertinctus, albidus, confertus, volaticus*, and *candidus.*

1. *Strophulus Intertinctus*, uſually called the red gum, and by the French, *Efflorescence Benigne.* The papulæ characterizing this affection, riſe ſenſibly above the level of the cuticle, are of a vivid red colour, and commonly diſtinct from each other. Their number and extent varies much in different caſes. They appear moſt conſtantly on the cheeks, fore-arm, and back of the hand, but are ſometimes diffuſed over the whole body. The papulæ are, in many places, intermixed with ſtigmata, and often with red patches of a larger ſize, which do not, however, occaſion any elevation of the cuticle. A child's ſkin thus variegated, ſomewhat reſembles a piece of red printed linen; and hence this eruption was formerly called the *red gown*, a term which is ſtill retained in ſeveral counties of England, and may be found in old dictionaries. Medical writers have changed the original word for one of a ſimilar ſound, but not more ſignificant. The *Strophulus Intertinctus* has not, in general, any tendency to become puſtular, a few ſmall puſtules containing a ſtraw-coloured, watery fluid, occaſionally appear on the back of the hand, but ſcarcely merit attention, as the fluid is always re-abſorbed in a ſhort time, without breaking the cuticle. The eruption uſually terminates in ſcurf, or exfoliation of the cuticle; its duration, however, is very uncertain, the papulæ and ſpots ſometimes remain for a length of time, without an obvious alteration, ſometimes diſappear and come out again daily; but, for the moſt part, one eruption of them ſucceeds another, at longer intervals, and with more regularity. This complaint occurs chiefly within the two firſt months of lactation. It is not always accompanied with, or preceded by any diſorders of the conſtitution, but appears occaſionally in the ſtrongeſt and moſt healthy children. Some authors connect it with aphthou ulcerations common in children, ſuppoſing the latter to be a part of the ſame diſeaſe diffuſed along the internal ſurfaces of the mouth and inteſtines. The fact however ſeems to be, that the two affections alternate with each other; for thoſe infants, who have the papulous eruption on the ſkin are leſs

liable to aphthæ; and when the aphthæ take place to a conſiderable degree, the ſkin is generally pale and free from eruption. The *Strophulus Intertinctus* is, by moſt writers, ſaid to originate from an acidity, or acrimonious quality of the milk taken into a child's ſtomach, communicated afterwards to the blood, and ſtimulating the cutaneous excretories. This opinion might, without difficulty, be proved to have little foundation. The pre-diſpoſition to the complaint may be deduced from the delicate and tender ſtate of the ſkin, and from the ſtrong determination of blood to the ſurface, which evidently takes place in infants. The papulous eruption is, in many caſes, connected with a weak, irritable ſtate of the alimentary canal, and conſequent indigeſtion. For if it be, by any means ſuddenly repelled from the ſurface, diarrhea, vomiting, ſpaſmodic affections of the bowels, and often general diſturbance of the conſtitution ſucceed; but as ſoon as it reappears, thoſe internal complaints are wholly ſuſpended. Dr. Armſtrong and others have particularly noted this reciprocation, which makes the red gum, at times, a diſeaſe of ſome importance, though in its uſual from it is not thought to be in any reſpect dangerous. On their remarks a neceſſary caution is founded, not to expoſe infants to a ſtream of very cold air, nor to plunge them unſeaſonably in a cold bath. The moſt violent, and even fatal ſymptoms have often been the conſequence of ſuch imprudent conduct.

2. The *Strophulus Albidus*, by ſome termed the *white gum*, is merely a variety of ſtrophulus intertinctus, but deſerves ſome notice on account of the different appearance of its papulæ. In place of thoſe deſcribed as characterizing the red gum, there is a number of minute, whitiſh ſpecks, a little elevated, and ſometimes, though not conſtantly ſurrounded by a ſlight redneſs. Theſe papulæ, when their tops are removed, do not diſcharge any fluid; it is however probable that they are originally formed by the depoſition of a fluid, which afterwards concretes under the cuticle. They appear chiefly on the face, neck, and breaſt, and are more permanent than the papulæ of the red gum. In other reſpects they have the ſame nature and tendency, and require a ſimilar plan of treatment. Although a diſtinctive name has been applied to this eruption, when occurring alone, yet it is proper to obſerve that in a great number of caſes, there are red papulæ and ſpots intermixed with it, which prove its connexion with the ſtrophulus Intertinctus.

3. The *Strophulus Confertus*. An eruption of numerous papulæ, varying in their ſize, appears on different parts of the body in infants during dentition, and has thence been denominated the tooth raſh: it is ſometimes alſo termed, the *rank red gum*. About the fourth or fifth month after birth, and eruption of this kind uſually takes place on the cheeks and ſides of the noſe, extending ſometimes to the forehead and arms, but rarely to the trunk or body. The papulæ on the face are ſmaller, and ſet more cloſely together than in the red gum; their colour is not ſo vivid, but they are generally more permanent. They terminate at length with ſlight exfoliations of the cuticle, and often appear again in the ſame places, a ſhort time afterwards. The papulæ which in this complaint occaſionally appear on the back or loins are much larger and ſomewhat more diſtant from each other, than thoſe on the face. They are often ſurrounded by an extenſive circle of inflammation, and a few of them contain a ſemi-pellucid watery fluid;

which is re-abſorbed when the inflammation ſubſides. In the ſeventh or eighth, the ſtrophulus confertus aſſumes a ſomewhat different form: one or two large irregular patches appear on the arms, ſhoulder, or neck; in which the papulæ are hard, of a conſiderable ſize, and ſet ſo cloſe together that the whole ſurface is of a high red colour. Moſt commonly the fore-arm is the ſeat of this eruption, the papulæ riſing firſt on the back of the hand, and gradually extending upwards along the arm. Sometimes, however, the eruption commences at the elbow, and proceeds a little upwards and downwards on the outſide of the arm. It arrives at its height in about a fortnight, the papulæ then begin to fade, and become flat at the top, afterwards the cuticle exfoliates from the part affected, which remains diſcoloured rough, and irregular, for a week or two longer.

An obſtinate and very painful modification of this diſeaſe takes place, though not often, on the lower extremities. The papulæ ſpread from the calves of the legs to the thighs, nates, loins, and round the body as high as the navel: being very numerous and cloſe together, they produce a continuous redneſs over all the parts above mentioned.

The cuticle preſently however ſhrivelled, cracks in various places, and finally ſeparates from the ſkin in large pieces. During this proceſs a new cuticle is formed, notwithſtanding which the complaint recurs in a ſhort time, and goes through the ſame courſe as before. In this manner ſucceſſive eruptions take place, during the courſe of three or four months, and perhaps do not ceaſe till the child is one year old, or ſomewhat more. Children neceſſarily ſuffer great uneaſineſs from the heat and irritation occaſioned by ſo extenſive an eruption, yet, while they are affected with it, they often remain free from any internal or febrile complaint. This appearance ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the intertrigo of infants, which exhibits an uniform, red, ſmooth, ſhining ſurface, without papulæ; and which affects only the lower part of the nates and inſide of the thighs, being produced by the ſtimulus of the urine, &c. with which the child's cloaths are almoſt conſtantly wetted. The ſtrophulus confertus where the child is otherwiſe healthy, is generally aſcribed to a ſtate of indigeſtion, or ſome feveriſh complaint of the mother or nurſe. Dr. Willan however aſſerts that he has more frequently ſeen the eruption, when no ſuch cauſe was evident. It may with more probability, be conſidered as one of the numerous ſymptoms of irritation, ariſing from the inflamed and painful ſtate of the gums in dentition: ſince it always occurs during that proceſs, and diſappears ſoon after the firſt teeth have cut the gums.

4. The *Strophulus Volaticus* is characterized by an appearance of ſmall circular patches, or cluſters of papulæ, ariſing ſucceſſively on different parts of the body. The number of papulæ in each cluſter is from ſix to twelve. Both the papulæ and their interſtices are of a high red colour. Theſe patches continue red with a little heat or itching, for about four days, when they turn brown, and begin to exfoliate. As one patch declines another appears at a ſmall diſtance from it, and in this manner the complaint often ſpreads gradually over the face, body, and limbs, not terminating in leſs than three or four weeks. During that time the child has ſometimes a quick pulſe, a white tongue, and ſeems uneaſy and fretful. In many caſes, however, the eruption takes place without any ſymptoms of internal diſorder. The above complaint has been by ſome

writers denominated *ignis volaticus Infantum*: under this title Aſtruc and Lorry have deſcribed one of the forms of cruſta lactea, in which a ſucceſſive eruption of puſtules takes place on the ſame ſpot generally about the mouth or eyes, in children of different ages, and ſometimes in adults. The *maculæ volaticæ infantum* mentioned by Wittichius, Sennertus, and Sebizeus, agree in ſome reſpect with the ſtrophulus volaticus; but they are deſcribed by other German authors as a ſpecies of eryſipelas, or as irregular efflorescences affecting the genitals of infants, and often proving fatal. The ſtrophulus volaticus is a complaint by no means frequent. In moſt caſes which have come under Dr. Willan's obſervation, it appeared between the third and ſixth month; in one inſtance, however, it occurred about ten days after birth, and continued three weeks, being gradually diffuſed from the cheeks and forehead to the ſcalp, afterwards to the trunk of the body, and to the extremities, when the patches exfoliated a red ſurface was left, with ſlight border of detached cuticle.

5. *Strophulus Candidus.* In this form of ſtrophulus the papulæ are larger than in any of the foregoing ſpecies. They have no inflammation round their baſe; their ſurface is very ſmooth and ſhining, whence they appear to be of a lighter colour than the adjoining cuticle. They are diffuſed, at a conſiderable diſtance from each other, over the loins, ſhoulders, and upper part of the arms; in any other ſituation they are ſeldom found.

This eruption affects infants about a year old, and moſt commonly ſucceeds ſome of the acute diſeaſes to which they are liable. Dr. Willan has obſerved it on their recovery from a catarrhal fever, and after inflammations of the bowels or lungs The papulæ continue hard and elevated for about a week, then gradually ſubſide and diſappear.

STRŪMA, (*Struma, æ*, f. from *ſtruo*, to heap up). This term is applied by ſome authors to ſcrofula, and by others to an induration of the thyroid gland, which is endemial to the Tyroleſe and Swiſs.

STRUTHĬUM, (*Struthium, i*, n. στρουθιον, from στρουθος; a ſparrow, ſo named from the reſemblance of its flowers to an unfledged ſparrow). The maſter-wort or ſoap-wort. See *Imperatoria.*

STRYCHNOS NUX VOMĬCA. The ſyſtematic name of the tree whoſe ſeed is called the poiſon nut. See *Nux vomica.*

STRYCHNOS VOLUBĬLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which is ſuppoſed to afford the Jeſuits bean. See *Faba indica.*

STUPOR, (*Stupor, oris*, m, from *ſtupeo*, to be ſenſeleſs). Inſenſibility.

STYLIFORM, (*Stỳliformis*, from *ſtylus*, a bodkin, and *forma*, a likeneſs). Shaped like a bodkin or ſtyle.

STYLO. Names compounded of this word belong to muſcles which are attached to the ſtiloid proceſs of the temporal bone; as,

STYLO-GLOSSUS, (*Muſculus ſtylogloſſus*). A muſcle, ſituated between the lower jaw and os hyoides laterally, which draws the tongue aſide and backwards. It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from the ſtyloid proceſs, and from the ligament which connects that proceſs to the angle of the lower jaw, and is inſerted into the root of the tongue, runs along its ſides and is inſenſibely loſt near its tip.

STYLO-HYOIDĒUS. (*Muſculus hyoideus*). A muſcle, ſituated between the lower jaw and os hyoides laterally, which pulls the os hyoides to one ſide and a little upwards.

It is a ſmall, thin, fleſhy muſcle,

ſituated between the ſtyloid proceſs and os hyoides, under the poſterior belly and middle tendon of the digaſtricus, near the upper edge of that muſcle.

It ariſes by a long thin tendon, from the baſis and poſterior edge of the ſtyloid proceſs, and, deſcending in an oblique direction, is inſerted into the lateral and anterior part of the os hyoides, near its horn.

The fleſhy belly of this muſcle is uſually perforated, on one or both ſides, for the paſſage of the middle tendon of the digaſtricus.

Sometimes, though not always, we find another ſmaller muſcle placed before the ſtylo-hyoideus, which, from its having nearly the ſame origin and inſertion, and the ſame uſe, is called *ſtylo-hyoideus-alter*. It ſeems to have been firſt known to Euſtachius; ſo that Douglas was not aware of this circumſtance, when he placed it amongſt the muſcles diſcovered by himſelf. It ariſes from the apex of the ſtyloid proceſs, and ſometimes, by a broad and thin aponeuroſis, from the inner and poſterior part of the angle of the lower jaw, and is inſerted into the appendix or little horn of the os hyodes.

The uſe of theſe muſcles is to pull the os hyoides to one ſide, and a little upwards.

STYLO-HYOIDĒUS ALTER. See *Stylo-hyoideus*.

STYLO-MASTOID FORAMEN. A hole between the ſtyloid and maſtoid proceſs of the temporal bone, through which the portio dura of the auditory nerve paſſes to the temples.

STYLO-PHARYNGĒUS, (*Muſculus pharyngeus*). A muſcle, ſituated between the lower jaw and os hyoides laterally, which dilates and raiſes the pharynx and thyroid cartilage upwards. It ariſes fleſhy from the root of the ſtyloid proceſs, and is inſerted into the ſide of the pharynx and back part of the thyroid cartilage.

STYPTICS, (*Styptica, a* στυφω, to adſtringe). A term given to thoſe ſubſtances which poſſeſs the power of ſtopping hæmorrhages, ſuch as turpentine, alum, &c.

STYRAX, (*Styrax, ăcis*, f. from στυραξ, a reed, in which it was uſed to be preſerved). *Styrax calamita*. Officinal ſtorax. *Styrax officinalis* of Linnæus. *Styrax foliis ovatis, ſubtus villoſis, racemis ſimplicibus folio brevioribus*. Hort. Kew. Claſs *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*. There are two kinds of ſtorax to be found in the ſhops; the one is uſually in irregular compact maſſes, free from impurities, of a reddiſh brown appearance, and interſperſed with whitiſh tears, ſomewhat like gum ammoniac or benzoin; it is extremely fragrant, and upon the application of heat readily melts. This has been called *ſtorax in lump, red ſtorax*; and in ſeparate tears, *ſtorax in tears*. The other kind, which is called the *common ſtorax*, is in large maſſes, very light, and bears no external reſemblance whatever to the former ſtorax, as it ſeems almoſt wholly compoſed of dirty ſaw duſt, caked together by reſinous matter. Storax was formerly uſed in catarrhal complaints, coughs, aſthmas, obſtructions, &c. In the preſent practice it is almoſt totally diſregarded, notwithſtanding it is an efficacious remedy in nervous diſeaſes.

STYRAX ALBA. See *Balſamum perivianum*.

STYRAX BENZOIN. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the gum benzoin. See *Benzoin*.

STYRAX CALAMĪTA. See *Styrax*.

STYRAX LIQUĬDA. See *Liquidambra*.

STYRAX OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords the ſolid ſtyrax. See *Styrax*.

SUBCLAVIAN ARTERY, (from *ſub*, under, and *clavis*, a key, becauſe

the clavicles were ſuppoſed to reſemble the key of the ancients). The right ſubclavian ariſes from the arteria innominata, and proceeds under the clavicle to the axilla. The left ſubclavian ariſes from the arch of the aorta, and aſcends under the left clavicle to the axilla. The ſubclavians in their courſe give off the internal mammary, the cervical, the vertebral, and the ſuperior intercoſtal arteries.

SUBCLAVĬUS, (*Muſculus ſubclavius*). A muſcle, ſituated on the anterior part of the thorax, which pulls the clavicle downwards and forwards. It ariſes tendinous from the cartilage that joins the firſt rib to the ſternum, is inſerted after becoming fleſhy into the inferior part of the clavicle, which it occupies from within an inch of the ſternum as far outwards as to its connexion, by a ligament, with the coracoid proceſs of the ſcapula.

SUBCUTANEOUS GLANDS. Theſe are ſebaceous glands, lying under the ſkin, which they perforate by their excretory ducts.

SUBER, (*Suber, eris*, n.) The cork tree. The fruit of this tree, *Quercus ſuber* of Linnæus are much more nutritious than our acorns, and are ſweet and often eaten when roaſted in ſome parts of Spain. The bark called cork when burnt, is employed as an adſtringent application to bleeding piles, and to allay the pain uſually attendant on hæmorrhoids, when mixed with an ointment. Peſſaries and other chirurgical inſtruments are alſo made of this uſeful bark.

SUBLIMATE. See *Hydrargyrus muriatus*.

SUBLIMATION, (*Sublimatio, onis*, f. from *ſublimo*, to raiſe or ſublime). This chemical proceſs differs from evaporation only in being confined to ſolid ſubſtances. It is uſually performed either for the purpoſe of purifying certain ſubſtances, and diſengaging them from extraneous matters; or elſe to reduce into vapour, and combine, under that form, principles which would have united with greater difficulty if they had not been brought to that ſtate of extreme diviſion.

As all fluids are volatile by heat, and conſequently capable of being ſeparated, in moſt caſes, from fixed matters, ſo various ſolid bodies are ſubjected to a ſimilar treatment. Fluids are ſaid to diſtil, and ſolids to ſublime, though ſometimes both are obtained in one and the ſame operation. If the ſubliming matter concretes into a ſolid, hard maſs, it is commonly called a ſublimate; if into a powdery form, flowers.

The principal ſubjects of this operation are, volatile alkaline ſalts; neutral ſalts, compoſed of volatile ſalts and acids, as ſal ammoniac, the ſalt of amber, and flowers of benzoin, mercurial preparations, and ſulphur. Bodies of themſelves not volatile are frequently made to ſublime by the mixture of volatile ones, thus iron is carried by ſal ammoniac in the preparations of the flores martialis, or ferrum ammoniacale.

The fumes of ſolid bodies in cloſe veſſels riſe but a little way, and adhere to that part of the veſſel where they concrete. Hence a receiver or condenſer is leſs neceſſary here than in the preceding operation; a ſingle veſſel, as a mattraſs, or tall vial, or the like being frequently ſufficient.

SUBLĪMIS, (*Muſculus ſublimis*). See *Flexor brevis digitorum pedis*, and *Flexor ſublimis perforatus*.

SUBLINGUAL GLANDS, *Glandulæ ſublinguals*. The glands which are ſituated under the tongue, and ſecrete ſaliva. Their excretory ducts are called *Riverian*, from their diſcoverer.

SUBLUXATIO. A ſprain. Sprains are always attended with inflammation and often with an ecchymoſis.

SUBMERSION, (*Submerſio, onis*, f. from *ſub*, under, and *mergo*, to ſink). Drowning.

SUBSCAPŬLĀRIS, (*Muſculus ſubſcapularis*, from *ſub*, under, and *ſcapula*, the ſhoulder-blade). The name of this muſcle ſufficiently indicates its ſituation. It is compoſed of many faſciculi of tendinous and fleſhy fibres, the marks of which we ſee imprinted on the under ſurface of the ſcapula. Theſe faſciculi, which ariſe from all the baſis of that bone internally, and likewiſe from its ſuperior, as well as from one half of its inferior coſta, unite to form a conſiderable flat tendon which adheres to the capſular ligament, and is inſerted into the upper part of the leſſer tuberoſity at the head of the os humeri.

The principal uſe of this muſcle is to roll the arm inwards. It likewiſe ſerves to bring it cloſe to the ribs; and, from its adheſion to the the capſular ligament, it prevents that membrane from being pinched.

SUBSULTUS TENDĪNUM, (*Subſultus, us*, m. from *ſubſulto*, to leap). Weak convulſive motions or twitchings of the tendons, moſtly of the hands, generally obſerved in the extreme ſtages of putrid fever.

SUCCĪNAS AMMŌNIĂCÆ. See *Spiritus ammoniæ ſuccinatus*.

SUCCINATES, (*Succinas, tis*, m.) Salts formed by the combination of the acid of amber, or ſuccinic acid, with different baſes; as, *ſuccinate of potaſh, ſuccinate of copper*, &c

SUCCINIC ACID. *Ăcĭdum ſuccĭnicum. Sal ſuccini.* The ſuccinic acid is drawn from amber by ſublimation in a gentle heat, and riſes in a concrete form into the neck of the ſubliming veſſel. The operation muſt not be puſhed too far, nor by too ſtrong a fire, otherwiſe the oil of amber riſes along with the acid.

SUCCĪNUM, (*Succinum, i*, n. from *ſuccus*, juice; becauſe it was thought to exude from a tree. See *Amber*.

SUCCĪNUM CINERĔUM. The ambergris is ſo called by ſome authors. See *Ambergriſea*.

SUCCĪNUM GRISĔUM. The ambergris is ſometimes ſo called. See *Ambergriſea*.

SUCCĪNUM PREPĂRĀTUM. Prepared amber. See *Amber*.

SUCCORY. See *Cichorium*.

SUCCUS ACACĬE VERÆ. See *Acacia vera*.

SUCCUS ACONĪTI SPISSĀTUS. See *Aconitum*.

SUCCUS BACCÆ SAMBŪCI SPISSĀTUS. An aperient and deobſtruent extract, often employed diluted with water in the cure of catarrhal affections.

SUCCUS BELLADONNÆ SPISSĀTUS. See *Belladonna*.

SUCCUS CICŬTÆ SPISSĀTUS. *Extractium cicutæ.* See *Cicuta*.

SUCCUS COCHLIĀRIÆ COMPOSĬTUS. A warm aperient and diuretic, moſtly exhibited in the cure of diſeaſes of the ſkin ariſing from ſcurvy.

SUCCUS GASTRĪCUS. See *Gaſtric juice*.

SUCCUS HELIOTROPĬI. See *Bezetta cærulia*.

SUCCUS HYOSCIĂMUS SPISSĀTUS. See *Hyoſciamus*.

SUCCUS LACTŪCÆ VIRŌSÆ SPISSĀTUS. See *Lactuca graveolens*.

SUCCUS LIMŌNIS SPISSĀTUS. See *Limon*.

SUDĀMĪNA, (*Sudamen, inis*, n. from *ſudor*, ſweet). *Hidroa. Boa.* Veſicles reſembling millet-ſeeds in form and magnitude, which appear ſuddenly, without fever, eſpecially in the ſummer-time after much labour and ſweating.

SUDATIO, (*Sudatio, onis*, f. from *ſudor* ſweat). A ſweating. See *Ephidroſis*.

SUDORIFICS, (*Sudorifica*, ſc. *medi-*

camenta, from *ſudor*, ſweat, and *facio*, to make). A ſynonym of Diaphoretics. See *Diaphoretics*.

SUGAR. See *Saccharum*.

SULCUS, (*Sulcus*, *i*, m.). A groove or furrow; generally applied to the bones.

SULPHAS ALUMĬNŌSUS. Alum. See *Alumin*.

SULPHAS AMMŌNIĂCÆ. *Alkali volatile vitriolatum* of Bergman. *Sal ammoniacum ſecretum* of Glauber. *Vitriolum ammoniacale*. This ſalt has been found native in the neighbourhood of ſome volcanoes. It is eſteemed diuretic and deobſtruent, and exhibited in the ſame diſeaſes as the muriate of ammonia. See *Ammonia muriata*.

SULPHAS CUPRI. *Vitriolum cupri*. *Vitriolum cæruleum*. *Vitriolum Romanum*, &c. *Cuprum vitriolatum* Pharm. Lond. The ſulphat of copper poſſeſſes acrid and ſtyptic qualities; is eſteemed as a tonic, emetic, adſtringent, and eſcharotic, and is exhibited internally in the cure of dropſies, hæmorrhages, and as a ſpeedy emetic. Externally it is applied to ſtop hæmorrhages, to hæmorrhoids, leucorrhœa, phagedenic ulcers, proud fleſh, and condylomata.

SULPHAS CUPRI AMMŌNIĂCĀLIS. *Cuprum ammoniacale*. This preparation of copper poſſeſſes adſtringent and antieleptic virtues; with which views it is given internally in the cure of weakneſs of the primæ viæ, intermittents, and hyſterical affections.

SULPHAS FERRI. See *Ferrum vitriolatum*.

SULPHAS HYDRARGŸRI. See *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus*.

SULPHAS MAGNESĬÆ. See *Magneſia vitriolata*.

SULPHAS POTASSÆ. See *Kali vitriolatum*.

SULPHAS SODÆ. See *Natron vitriolatum*.

SULPHAS ZINCI. See *Zincum vitriolatum*.

SULPHATES, (*Sulphas*, *tis*, m.) Salts formed by the combination of the ſulphuric acid with different baſes as, *ſulphat of alumin*, *ſulphat of iron* &c.

SULPHITES, (*Sulphis*, *tis*, m.) Salts formed by the combination of the ſulphureous acid with different baſes: as, *aluminous ſulphite*, *ammoniacal ſulphite*, &c.

SULPHUR, (*Sulphur*, *ŭris*, n.) Brimſtone. A combuſtible, dry, very brittle ſubſtance, of a lemon-yellow colour, inſoluble in water, deſtitute of ſmell unleſs heated, and of a peculiar faint taſte. It becomes electric by friction. Nature abounds with ſulphur, both pure and in a ſtate of combination. The former is found near the craters of volcanoes and the ſources of ſome mineral waters; and in larger maſſes mixed with gypſum and calcareous earth in Sicily, Spain, Switzerland, and other countries. The latter is found in metallic ores, and combined with hydrogen and lime, in various mineral waters. The ſulphur of commerce is either ſuch as is found ready formed, or ſuch as is extracted from copper or iron pyrites. Of late it has been aſſerted, that ſulphur is often ſeparated during the putrefaction of animal and vegetable matter, and even that it has been extracted from them by chemical means. Sulphur till within theſe few years, was thought to be a compound body, the conſtituent parts of which were ſaid to be vitriolic acid and phlogiſton; but it can now be demonſtrated by experiment, that ſulphur is a ſimple body, which, during combuſtion, or in other words, during its combination with oxygen, produces ſulphuric acid. It is a medicine in frequent uſe in cutaneous diſeaſes, as hæmorrhoids, ſcurvy, ulcers of the legs, tinea, &c. and is the only ſpecific againſt the itch. Sulphur ſeparated from its impurities by ſu-

nation, when it is called *flores sulphuris*, and the remaining drofs *sulphur vivum*. Sulphur combined with kalis, lime, and the oxyds of mercury, forms the following fulphurets: ith potaſh or ſoda, the kali ſulphutum or hepar ſulphuris; ſee *Sulphuretum potaſſæ:* with ammonia, the olatile ſulphuret of ammonia, hepar lphuris volatile; ſee *Sulphuretum mmoniacæ:* with lime, the ſulphuret lime, *hepar calcis*; ſee *Sulphuretum lcis:* with the black oxyd of mercury per ſe, it forms what is comonly called æthiops mineral; ſee *Sulphuretum hydrargyri nigrum:* with e red oxyd, cinnabar; ſee *Sulphutum hydrargyri rubrum:* with black ibiated quickſilver, æthiops antimoal; ſee *Sulphuretum hydrargyri ſtibium nigrum:* and with the red ſtibied quickſilver, the red cinnabar of ntimony; ſee *Sulphuretum hydrarri ſtibiatum rubrum*. Sulphur unites ith the oxyds of antimony, and rms kermes mineral; ſee *Hydrolphuretum ſtibii rubrum:* See alſo *ydro-ſulphuretum ſtibii luteum*, and *ntimony*. Theſe, with a wine, ſyp, &c. are the principal combiations of ſulphur uſed in medicine. or the virtues of the different lphurets, ſee their reſpective eads.

SULPHUR ANTIMONĬI PRÆCĬPITĀTUM. *Sulphur auratum antimonii.* his preparation of antimony appears have rendered that called *kermes ineral* unneceſſary. It is a yellow ydro-ſulphuret of antimony, and erefore called *hydro-ſulphuretum ſtibii teum* in the new chemical nomenature. As an alterative and ſudofic it is in high eſtimation, and iven in diſeaſes of the ſkin and lands; and, joined with calomel, it one of the moſt powerful and pe-etrating alteratives we are in poſſeſon of.

SULPHUR AURĀTUM ANTIMOii. The yellow hydro-ſulphuret of antimony. See *Sulphur antimonii præcipitatum.*

SULPHUR PRÆCĬPITĀTUM. *Lac ſulphuris.* This preparation is moſtly preferred to the flowers of ſulphur, in conſequence of its being freed from its impurities.

SULPHURWORT. See *Peucedanum.*

SULPHURATED HYDROGEN. See *Hepatic air.*

SULPHUREOUS ACID. *Acidum ſulphurōſum.* Phlogiſticated vitriolic acid. Volatile ſulphuric acid. Sulphurous acid. Volatile acid of vitriol. Sulphur is capable of being oxygenated in different degrees. In the ſulphuric acid it is ſaturated, or nearly ſaturated, with oxygen, and is therefore reckoned a perfect acid. With a ſmaller portion of oxygen i exhibits an acid of a different nature and of different properties, which ought to be regarded as an imperfect ſulphuric acid, and to which we give the name of *ſulphureous acid.* This ſulphureous acid is obtained by ſlow combuſtion of ſulphur, when it burns only with a blue flame. The acid generated by this proceſs is of much leſs acidity than ſulphuric acid, and it is at the ſame time exceedingly volatile, as it is apparent from the very ſuffocating ſmell iſſuing from the combuſtion, and even aſſuming the aërial form if moiſture is excluded. This acid may be procured, when to the ſulphuric acid any body is preſented, that by its attraction for oxygen deprives the ſulphur of part of that acidifying principle, in combination with which it conſtitutes the ſulphuric acid.

SULPHURES, (*Sulphuretum, i*, n.) Sulphurets. Combinations of ſulphur with different alkaline, earthy, and metallic baſes.

SULPHURĒTUM AMMŌNIĂCÆ. *Hepar ſulphuris volatile.* Boyle's or Beguine's fuming ſpirit. Sulphuret of ammoniac is obtained in the form of a yellow fuming liquor, by the

ammoniac and ſulphur uniting whilſt in a ſtate of gaz during diſtillation. It excites the action of the abſorbent ſyſtem and diminiſhed arterial action, and is given internally in diſeaſes ariſing from the uſe of mercury, phthiſis, diſeaſes of the ſkin, and phlegmaſiæ: externally it is preſcribed in the form of bath in paralyſis, contractura, pſora, and cutaneous diſeaſes.

SULPHURĒTUM CALCIS. *Hepar calcis.* Sulphuret of lime. It is principally uſed as a bath in various diſeaſes of the ſkin.

SULPHURETUM HYDRARGŸRI NIGRUM. See *Hydrargyrus cum Sulphure.*

SULPHURĒTUM HYDRARGŸRI RUBRUM. See *Hydrargyrus ſulphuratus ruber.*

SULPHURĒTUM HYDRARGYRI STIBĬĀTUM NIGRUM. *Æthiops antimonialis. Kermes mineral.* It conſiſts of three parts of quickſilver, and two parts of the red antimoniated hydroſulphuret, rubbed together. It is an efficacious remedy in worms, in atrophy of infants, diſeaſes of the ſkin, amauroſis, &c.

SULPHURĒTUM HYDRARGŸRI STIBĬATUM RUBRUM. *Cinnabaris antimonii.* This preparation was formerly much eſteemed in diſeaſes of the ſkin, but is fallen into diſuſe in this country.

SULPHURĒTUM POTASSÆ. Hepar ſulphuris. Sulphuret of potaſh. Liver of ſulphur, having for its baſis the vegetable alkali. The virtues and uſes of this preparation are ſimilar to thoſe of the *ſulphuretum ammoniacæ.*

SULPHURĒTUM SODÆ. See *Hepar ſulphuris.*

SULPHURĒTUM STIBĬI NATĪVUM. *Sulphuretum ſtibii nigrum. Antimonium crudum.* Its virtues are ſtimulant, diaphoretic, and alterative.

SULPHURIC ACID. *Acidum ſulphuricum.* Oil of vitriol. Vitriolic acid. Sulphuric acid conſiſts of ſulphur, which conſtitutes its baſis, and of oxygen. It frequently occurs in combination with alkalis, earths, and metals; but ſeldom in a ſtate of purity, and whether at all, has been doubted. For chemical, medical, and other purpoſes, it is obtained by the rapid combuſtion of ſulphur and the decompoſition of metallic and earthy ſulphuric acid ſalts by fire. If melted ſulphur be expoſed in open air to an increaſed heat, it takes fire, is entirely conſumed, and burns with a flame, and an acid ſuffocating vapour. The ſulphur is by this combuſtion changed to an acid. If the heat by which burning ſulphur is conſumed be only weak, its flame is blue, and the acid then generated is imperfect, very volatile, and aëriform. This imperfect ſulphuric acid is called *ſulphureous acid.* But if the heat be ſtronger, the flame of the ſulphur is white and lively, and a perfect ſulphuric acid in the vaporous ſtate is formed. The ſulphuric acid may be obtained by different methods: that prepared in England is by the combuſtion of ſulphur; for which purpoſe peculiar apartments, with their inſides lined with lead, are conſtructed, in order to encloſe the burning ſulphur. But becauſe the ſulphur would in that ſituation be ſoon extinguiſhed, and never burn with due vivacity, about the eighth part of its weight of nitre is mingled with it to ſupply vital air, without which no combuſtion can exiſt. Both the water at the bottom of the chamber, and alſo the aqueous vapours conveyed into it, imbibe the ſulphuric acid as it forms. The weak or diluted acid thus obtained is collected and concentrated by evaporating the ſuperfluous water in glaſs veſſels. Sulphuric acid, concentrated in this manner, is ſold under the name of *Engliſh oil of vitriol, oleum vitrioli,* to diſtinguiſh it from another ſpecies

called *Saxon oil of vitriol*, which is obtained from green vitriol by diſtillation. Every kind of concentrated ſulphuric acid, formerly found in commerce, was prepared by diſtillation from green vitriol, or copper: and it is on this account that the ſulphuric acid is generally called *vitriolic acid*. Oil of vitriol is a very ſtrong acid, burns and corrodes the ſkin. When pure, it has neither colour nor ſmell, but is very apt to turn more or leſs brown, and of a ſulphureous odour, by combuſtible, animal, and vegetable matter, as is uſually the caſe with what is ſold in the ſhops. If ſulphuric acid be highly concentrated, it congeals at a temperature of 150°, and becomes a cryſtalline maſs, formerly termed glacial oil of vitriol. Mixed with water it becomes hot, and is then termed ſpirit of vitriol.

SULPHŬRIS FLORES. See *Sulphur*.

SULPHUROUS ACID. See *Sulphureous acid*.

SULTAN FLOWER. The *Centaurea moſchata* of Linnæus.

SUMACH, (*Sumach*, n. ind. *ſumak*, from *ſamak*, to be red; Heb. ſo called from its red berry). Elm-leaved ſumach. This plant, *Rhus coriaria; foliis pinnatis obtuſis, caule ſerratis corolibus ſubtus villoſis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Pentandria*. Order *Triginia*, is a ſmall tree, a native of the ſouth of Europe. It is ſingular that this is the only ſpecies of the genus rhus which is perfectly innocent; the others being active poiſons. Both the leaves and berries of this plant are uſed medicinally, as aſtringents and tonics; the former are the moſt powerful, and have been long in common uſe, where they may be eaſily obtained in various complaints indicating this claſs of remedies. The berries, which are red, and of a roundiſh compreſſed figure, contain a pulpy matter, in which is lodged a brown, hard, oval ſeed, manifeſting a conſiderable degree of adſtringency. The pulp, even when dry, is grateful, and has been diſcovered to contain an eſſential ſalt, ſimilar to that of woodſorrel. An infuſion of the dried fruit is not rendered black by a ſolution of iron: hence it appears to be deſtitute of aſtringency. But its acidity is extremely grateful; therefore, like many other fruits, theſe berries may be advantageouſly taken to allay febrile heat, and to correct bilious putreſcency.

SUMACH, ELM LEAVED. See *Sumach*.

SUN DEW. See *Ros ſolis*.

SUPERBUS, (*muſculus ſuperbus*). See *Rectus ſuperior oculi*.

SUPERCILĬUM, (*Supercilium, i*, n.). The eyebrow. See *Eyebrow*.

SUPERCILĬUM VENĔRIS. The milfoil or yarrow was once ſo termed. See *Millefolium*.

SUPERFŒTATION, (*Superfœtatio, onis*, f. from *ſuper*, above or upon, and *fœtus*, a fœtus). The impregnation of a woman already pregnant.

SUPINATION. The act of turning the palm of the hand upwards, by rotating the radius upon the ulna.

SUPINĀTOR, (*Supinator, oris*, m. from *ſupinus*, upwards). A name given to thoſe muſcles which turn the hand upwards.

SUPINATOR LONGUS. See *Supinator radii longus*.

SUPINATOR RADĬI BREVIS. This ſmall muſcle, which is tendinous externally, is ſituated at the upper part of the fore arm under the ſupinator longus, the extenſor carpi radialis brevis, the extenſor carpi ulnaris, the extenſor digitorum communis, and the extenſor minimi digiti.

It ariſes tendinous from the lower and anterior part of the outer condyle

of the os humeri, and tendinous and fleſhy from the outer edge and poſterior ſurface of the ulna, adhering firmly to the ligament that joins the radius to that bone. From theſe origins its fibres deſcend forwards and inwards, and are inſerted into the upper, inner, and anterior part of the radius around the cartilaginous ſurface upon which ſlides the tendon of the biceps, and likewiſe into a ridge that runs downwards and outwards below this ſurface.

This muſcle aſſiſts in the ſupination of the hand by rolling the radius outwards.

SUPINĀTOR RADĬI LONGUS. *Supinator longus* of Albinus, Winſlow, and Douglaſs. A long flat muſcle, covered by a very thin tendinous faſcia, and ſituated immediately under the integuments along the outer convex ſurface of the radius. It ariſes, by very ſhort tendinous fibres, from the anterior ſurface and outer ridge of the os humeri, about two or three inches above its external condyle, between the brachialis internus and the triceps brachii; and likewiſe from the anterior ſurface of the external intermuſcular membrane, or ligament, as it is called. About the middle of the radius, its fleſhy fibres terminate in a flat tendon, which is inſerted into the inner ſide of the inferior extremity of the radius, near the root of its ſtyloid proceſs.

This muſcle not only aſſiſts in rolling the radius outwards, and turning the palm of the hand upwards, on which account Riolanus firſt gave it the name of *ſupinator*, but it likewiſe aſſiſts in pronation, and in bending the fore arm.

SUPPOSITORIUM, (*Suppoſitorium, i*, n. from *ſub*, under, and *pone*, to put). A ſuppoſitory, *i. e.* a ſubſtance to put into the rectum, there to remain and diſſolve gradually.

SUPPRESSED MENSES. See *Amenorhœa*.

SUPPURATION, (*Suppuratio, onis*, f. from *ſuppuro*, to ſuppurate). That morbid action by which pus is depoſited in inflammatory tumours. See *Pus*.

SUPRA COSTALES. A portion of the intercoſtal muſcles. See *Intercoſtal muſcles*.

SUPRA SPINĀTUS, (*muſculus ſupra-ſpinatus*). This muſcle, which was firſt ſo named by Riolanus, from its ſituation, is of conſiderable thickneſs, wider behind than before, and fills the whole of the cavity or foſſa that is above the ſpine of the ſcapula.

It ariſes fleſhy from the whole of the baſe of the ſcapula that is above its ſpine, and likewiſe from the ſpine itſelf, and from the ſuperior coſta. Oppoſite to the baſis of the coracoid proceſs, it is found beginning to degenerate into a tendon, which is at firſt covered by fleſhy fibres, and then paſſing under the acromion, adheres to the capſular ligament of the os humeri, and is inſerted into the upper part of the large tuberoſity at the head of the os humeri.

This muſcle is covered by a thin faſcia, which adheres to the upper edge and ſuperior part of the baſis, as well as to the upper edge of the ſpine of the ſcapula.

The principal uſe of the ſupra-ſpinatus ſeems to be to aſſiſt in raiſing the arm upwards; at the ſame time, by drawing the capſular ligament upwards, it prevents it from being pinched between the head of the os humeri and that of the ſcapula. It may likewiſe ſerve to move the ſcapula upon the humerus.

SUS SCROFA. The ſyſtematic name of the hog which affords the lard.

SUCCĪNUM OLĔUM. See *Oleum ſuccĭni*.

SUTURE, (*Sutura, æ*, f. from *ſuo*, to join together). In ſurgery this term ſignifies the uniting the lips of

a wound by ſewing. A number of different kinds of ſutures have been recommended by writers on ſurgery, but all of them are now reduced to two: namely, the twiſted, and the interrupted. The twiſted ſuture is made in the following manner: having brought the divided parts nearly into contact, a pin is to be introduced from the outſide inwards, and carried out through the oppoſite ſide to the ſame diſtance from the edge that it entered at on the former ſide; a firm wax ligature is then to be paſſed around it, making the figure of 8, by which the wounded parts are drawn gently into contact. The number of pins is to be determined by the extent of the wound; half an inch, or at moſt three quarters, is the proper diſtance between two pins. The interrupted ſuture is practiſed where a number of ſtitches is requiſited, and the interruption is only the diſtance between the ſtitches.

In anatomy the word ſuture is applied to the union of bones by means of dentiform margins, as in the bones of the cranium. See *Temporal*, *Sphænoidal*, *Zygomatic*, *Tranſverſe*, *Coronal*, *Lambdoidal*, and *Sagittal ſutures*.

SWALLOWWORT. See *Vincetoxicum*.

SWEAT. See *Perſpiration*.

SWEATING, IMMENSE. See *Epydroſis*.

SWEET MARGORAM. See *Marorana*.

SWEET NAVEW. See *Rapus*.

SWEETRUSH. See *Juncus odoratus*.

SWEET SULTAN. The *Centaurea noſchata* of Linnæus.

SWEET WILLOW. See *Myrtus Brabantica*.

SWIETENIA, (*Swietenia*, æ, f. named after ſwieten). See *Mahagoni*.

SWIETENĬA MAHAGONI. The ſyſtematic name of the mahogany tree. See *Mahogani*.

SYCAMORE. The maple tree is ſometimes improperly ſo termed.

SYLPHIUM. Aſafætida is ſo termed by ſome writers. See *Aſafætida*.

SYMBLEPHĂRUM, (*Symblepharum*, *i*, n. συμβλεφαρον, from συν, with, and βλεφαρον, the eyelid). A concretion of the eyelid to the globe of the eye: alſo a concretion of the palpebræ with the eye. This chiefly happens in the ſuperior, but very rarely in the inferior palpebræ.

The cauſes of this concretion are a bad conformation of the parts, or from ulcers of the cornea, the membrana conjunctiva, or internal ſuperficies of the palpebræ, or imprudent ſcarifications, or burns, eſpecially if the eye remains long cloſed.

There are two ſpecies, the partial or total; in the former the adheſion is partial, in the latter, the membrana conjunctiva and cornea are concreted together.

SYMMETRY. The exact and beautiful proportion of parts to one another.

SYMPATHETIC NERVE. Intercoſtal nerve. See *Intercoſtal nerve*.

SYMPATHY. (Συμπαθε, from συμπασχω, to ſuffer together, to ſympathiſe). All the body is ſympathetically connected together, and dependent, the one part upon the reſt, conſtituting a general ſympathy. But ſometimes we find particular parts more intimately dependent upon each other than upon the reſt of the body, conſtituting a particular ſympathy. Action cannot be greatly increaſed in any one organ, without being diminiſhed in ſome other; but certain parts are more apt to be affected by the derangement of particular organs, than others; and it was the obſervance of this fact, which gave foundation to the old and well known doctrine of ſympathy, which was ſaid to proceed, "*tum ob communionem et ſimili-*

litudinem generis, tum ob viciniam." It may be thought that this position of action being diminished in one organ, by its increase, either in the rest or in some other part, is contradicted by the existence of general diseases or actions affecting the whole system. But in them we find, in the first place, that there is always some part more affected than the rest. This local affection is sometimes the first symptom, and affects the constitution in a secondary way, either by the irritation which it produces, or by an extension of the specific action. At other times the local affection is coeval with the general disease, and is called sympathetic; in the second, idiopathic. It is observed in the second place, that as there is some part which is always more affected than the rest, so also is there some organ which has its action, in consequence of this, diminished lower than that of the rest of the system, and most commonly lower than its natural standard. From the extensive sympathy of the stomach with almost every part of the body, we find that this most frequently suffers, and has its action diminished in every disease, whether general or local, provided that the diseased action arises to any considerable degree. There are also other organs which may, in like manner, suffer from their association or connection with others which become diseased, as will be immediately explained. Thus, for instance, we see, in the general disease called puerperal fever, that the action of the breasts is diminished by the increased inflammatory action of the uterus.

In consequence of this balance of action, or general connection of the system, a sudden pain, consequent to violent action of any particular part, will so weaken the rest as to produce fainting, and occasionally death. But this dependence appears more evidently in what may be called the smaller systems of the body, or those parts which seem to be more intimately connected with each other than they are with the general system. Of this kind is the connection of the breasts with the uterus of the female; of the urethra with the testicles of the male; of the stomach with the liver; and of the intestines with the stomach, and of this again with the brain; of the one extremity of the bone with the other; and of the body of the muscle with its insertion; of the skin with the parts below it.

These smaller systems or circles, shall be treated regularly; but, first, it may be proper to observe that these are not only intimately connected with themselves, but also with the general system, an universal sympathy being thus established.

That there is a very intimate connection between the breasts and uterus has been long known; but it has not been very satisfactorily explained. Fallopius, and all the older authors, declare plainly that the sympathy is produced by an anastomosis of vessels; Bartholin adding, that the child being born, the blood no longer goes to the uterus, but is directed to the breasts, and changed into milk. But none of all those who talk of this derivation assign any reasonable cause which may produce it.

In pregnancy, and at the menstrual periods, the uterus is active; but, when the child is delivered, the action of the uterus subsides, whilst the breasts in their turn become active, and secrete milk.

If, at this time, we should again produce action in the uterus, we diminish that of the breasts, and destroy the secretion of milk, as is well illustrated by the case of inflammation of the uterus, which is incident to lying-in women. When the uterus, at the cessation of the menses, ceases to be active, or to secrete, we

ften find that the breaſts have an
ction excited in them, becoming
owly inflamed, and aſſuming a can-
rous diſpoſition. The uterus and
reaſts ſeem to be a ſet of glands
alancing each other in the ſyſtem,
ne only being naturally active, or
ereting properly at a time; and ac-
ordingly we ſeldom, if ever, find
hat when the uterus yields the
henſtrual diſcharge, the milk is ſe-
reted in perfection, during the con-
nuance of this diſcharge, nor do we
ver find them both inflamed at the
me time.

The uterus has not only this con-
ection with the breaſts, but it has
lſo a very particular ſympathy with
he ſtomach, which again ſympathiſes
vith the brain; and thus we ſee how
diſorder of the uterus may induce
n extenſive ſeries of affections, each
lependent on the other. The uterus
as been known, ever ſince the founda-
ion of phyſic, to produce very exten-
ive diſeaſe in the nervous ſyſtem; and
t is amuſing to hear how this was ex-
lained. The diſeaſe called "ſuffo-
ation of the uterus," with many
ther hyſterical ailments, were atribut-
d to the ſwelling or choaking up of
he uterus, by winds and vapours ge-
rated from the retention of the men-
es, or by the corruption of the ſemen,
nd the putrefaction of the bad hu-
nours which came there to be diſ-
charged; for this organ was conſider-
ed by many as a common cloaca.

Theſe ventoſities being once gene-
rated, it was believed that they
mounted up to the ſtomach, the li-
ver, and at laſt to the brain. The
cure conſiſted in expelling theſe;
and one of theſe remedies which was
employed for this purpoſe, was warm
aromatic fumes, conveyed by tubes
to the os uteri; for there was no
ſafety they imagined, until the vile
ſtuff was diſcharged; this "occult
odour," as Van Helmont calls it.

The organs of generation in the male form likewiſe a little ſyſtem, in which all the parts exhibit this ſympathy with each other. They likewiſe give us a very good inſtance of the aſſociation of action, or ſympathy in the common acceptation of that word.

Sympathy has been divided into the contiguous, where parts become affected. It will be more conformable to the preſent doctrine, which is preſumed to be true, to divide it into firſt, the ſympathy of equilibrium in which one part is weakened by the increaſed action of another; and, ſecond, the ſympathy of aſſociation in which two parts act together at the ſame time.

The ſympathy of aſſociation is produced ſuddenly, and for a ſhort time. The ſympathy of equilibrium is produced more ſlowly, and continues to operate for much longer time.

It is curious enough that moſt, or at leaſt many, of thoſe organs, which ſeem to be connected by the ſympathy of equilibrium, exhibit likewiſe more or leſs of the ſympathy of aſſociation, when under the circumſtances in which this can take place.

The ſympathy of equilibrium is ſeen in the effects of inflammation of the end of the urethra on the teſticle; which often diminiſhes its action, and produces a very diſagreeable ſenſation of dullneſs, or if this inflammation be ſuddenly diminiſhed, the action of the teſticle is as ſuddenly increaſed, and ſwelling takes place. The ſame is ſeen in the connection of the urethra with the bladder and proſtate gland, as is mentioned in all the diſſertation on gonorrhœa. Theſe parts likewiſe affect the ſtomach greatly, increaſed action in them weakening that organ much. This is ſeen in the effects of ſwelled teſticle or exceſſive venery, or inflamed bladder, and in a ſtone; all which weaken the ſtomach, and in and pro-

duce dyſpepſia. The ſame remark applies to the kidney; vomiting and flatulence being produced by nephritis.

The ſympathy of aſſociation, or an inſtance of ſympathy in the common acceptation of the word, is likewiſe ſeen in the connection betwixt the glans and teſticles in coition; but for this purpoſe, the action in the glands muſt be ſudden and of ſhort duration; for if continued long, weakneſs of the teſticles, or diminiſhed action, is induced. In thoſe parts which exhibit this natural aſſociation of action, if the action of one part be ſuddenly and for a ſhort time increaſed, the action of the ſympathiſing part will likewiſe be increaſed; as we ſee in the inſtance already given of coition, and likewiſe in paroxyſms of the ſtone, in which the glans penis, after making water, becomes very painful.

But if the action be more ſlowly induced, and continued for a long time, then this aſſociation is ſet aſide, by the ſtronger and more general principle of the equilibrium of action, and the ſympathiſing part is weakened. Hence, violent inflammation of the end of the urethra produces a weakneſs and irritability of the bladder, dullneſs of the teſticles, &c.

There is alſo an evident ſympathy of equilibrium betwixt the ſtomach and lower tract of inteſtines; which two portions may be ſaid in general to balance each other in the abdomen. When the action of the inteſtines is increaſed in diarrhœa, the ſtomach is often weakened, and the patient tormented with nauſea. This will be cured, not ſo eaſily by medicines taken into the ſtomach, as by anodyne clyſters, which will abate the action of the inteſtines. When the inteſtines are inflamed, as in ſtrangulated hernia, vomiting is a never-failing attendant.

When again the ſtomach is inflamed, the inteſtines are affected, and obſtinate coſtiveneſs takes place; even in hyſterical affections of the ſtomach, the inteſtines are often deranged. Injections of cold water frequently relieve theſe affections of the ſtomach, by their action of the inteſtines.

The liver and ſtomach are alſo connected with one another. When the liver is inflamed, or has its action increaſed, the ſtomach is weakened, and dyſpeptic ſymptoms take place. When the ſtomach is weakened, as, for inſtance, by intoxication, then the action of the liver is increaſed, and a greater quantity than uſual of bile is ſecreted. The ſame takes place in warm climates, where the ſtomach is much debilitated.

If the liver has its action thus frequently increaſed, it aſſumes a ſpecies of inflammation, or becomes, as it is called, ſcirrhus. This is exemplified in the habitual dram drinkers, and in thoſe who ſtay long in warm countries and uſe freedoms with the ſtomach. The liver likewiſe ſimpathiſes with the brain; for when this organ is injured and its action much impaired, as in compreſſion, inflammation, and ſuppuration, have been often known to take place in the liver.

Beſides this connection of the ſtomach with the liver, it is alſo very intimately dependent on the brain, being weakened when the action of the brain is increaſed; as we ſee in inflammation of that organ. The brain again is affected with pain, when the ſtomach is weakened by intoxication, or other cauſes; and this pain will be often relieved by ſlowly renewing the action of the ſtomach, by ſuch ſtimuli as are natural to it, ſuch as ſmall quantities of ſoups frequently repeated. A ſlight increaſe of action in the ſtomach, at leaſt if not of a morbid kind, affects the brain ſo as to produce ſleep, diminiſhing its action. This we ſee in the effects of a full meal, and even of a draught of warm water. The ſtomach likewiſe ſympathiſes with

the throat, ſqueamiſhneſs and anorexia being often produced by inflammation of the tonſils. This inflammation is frequently abated by reſtoring or increaſing the action of the ſtomach. Hence the throat in ſlight inflammation is frequently eaſier after dinner; hence, likewiſe, the effect of emetics in cynanche.

The extremities of bones and muſcles alſo ſympathiſe in the ſame manner. When one end of a bone is inflamed, the action of the other is leſſened, and pain is produced; for a painful ſenſation may reſult both from increaſed and diminiſhed action. When the tendon of a muſcle is inflamed, the body of that muſcle often is pained, and *vice verſa*

Laſtly, the external ſkin ſympathiſes with the parts below it. If it be inflamed, as in eryſipelas, the parts immediately beneath are weakened, or have their natural action diminiſhed. If this inflammation affect the face or ſcalp, then the brain is injured; and head-ache, ſtupor, or delirium mite, ſupervene. If it attack the ſkin of the abdomen, then the abdominal viſcera are affected, and we have vomiting and purging or obſtinate coſtiveneſs, according to circumſtances. This is illuſtrated by the diſeaſe of children, which is called by the women the bowel hive, in which the ſkin is inflamed, as they ſuppoſe, from ſome morbid matter within.

If the internal parts be inflamed, the action of the ſurface is diminiſhed, and by increaſing this action, we can leſſen or remove the diſeaſe below; as we ſee daily proved by the good effects of bliſters. When the ſtomach, inteſtines, or kidney, have been very irritable, a ſinapiſm has been known to act like a charm; and in the deep-ſeated inflammations of the breaſts, bowels, or joints, no better remedy is known after the uſe of the lancet, than bliſters.

The utility of iſſues in diſeaſes of the lungs, the liver, and the joints, is to be explained on the ſame principle. In theſe caſes we find that iſſues do little good unleſs they be ſomewhat painful, or be in the ſtate of healthy ulcers. An indolent flabby ſore, however large the diſcharge (which is always thin, and accompanied with little action), does no good, but only adds to the miſery of the patient. We may, however, err on the other hand by making the iſſues too painful, or by keeping them active too long, for after they have removed the inflammatory diſeaſe below, they will ſtill operate on theſe parts, leſſening their action, and preventing the healing proceſs from going on properly. This is ſeen in caſes of curvature of the ſpine, where at firſt the inflammation of the vertebra is diminiſhed by the iſſues; but if they be kept long open after this is removed, they do harm. We often ſee the patient recover rapidly after his ſurgeon has healed the iſſue in deſpair, judging that it could do no farther ſervice, but only increaſe the weakneſs of his patient.

It is a well-eſtabliſhed fact, that when any particular action diſappears ſuddenly from a part, it will often ſpeedily affect that organ which ſympathiſes moſt with the part which was originally diſeaſed.

This is beſt ſeen in the inflammatory action, which, as practical writers have well obſerved, occaſionally diſappears quickly from the part firſt affected, and then ſhews itſelf in ſome other.

From the united teſtimony of all theſe facts, Mr. Burns of Glaſgow, maintains the doctrine juſt delivered, and propoſes to introduce it into pathological reaſonings. In the whole of the animal economy, we diſcover marks of the wiſdom of the Creator, but perhaps in no part of it more than in this, of the exiſtence of the ſympathy of equilibrium, for if a large

part of the ſyſtem were to have its action much increaſed, and all the other parts to continue acting in the ſame proportionate degree as formerly, the whole muſt be ſoon exhauſted; (for increaſed action would require for its ſupport, an increaſed quantity of energy).

But upon this principle, when action is much increaſed in one part, it is to a certain degree diminiſhed in ſome other, the general ſum or degree of action in the body, is thus leſs than it otherwiſe would be, and conſequently the ſyſtem ſuffers leſs.

SYMPHĬSIS, (*Symphiſis, is*, f. συμφυσις, from συν, together, and φυω, to grow). Mediate connexion. A genus of the connexion of bones, in which they are united by means of an intervening body. It comprehends four ſpecies, viz. ſynchondroſis, ſyſſarcoſis, ſyneuroſis, and ſyndeſmoſis.

SYMPHŸTUM, (*Symphitum, i*, n. συμφυτον; from συμφυω, to unite; ſo called becauſe it is ſuppoſed to unite and cloſe the lips of wounds together). *Conſolida major*. Comfrey. This plant, *Symphytum officinale, foliis ovatis lanceolatis decurrentibus*, is adminiſtered where the althea cannot be obtained, its roots abounding with a viſcid glutinous juice, whoſe virtues are ſimilar to that of the *althea*.

SYMPHŸTUM MACULŌSUM. The ſage of Jeruſalem. See *Pulmonaria*.

SYMPHŸTUM MINUS. See *Prunella*.

SYMPHŸTUM OFFICĬNĀLE. The ſyſtematic name of the Comfrey. See *Symphytum*.

SYNARTHRŌSIS, (*Synarthroſis, is*, f. συναρθρωσις, from συν, together, and αρθρον, a joint). Immoveable connexion. A genus of connexion of bones, in which they are united together by an immoveable union. It has three ſpecies, viz. ſuture, harmony, and gomphoſis.

SYNCHONDRŌSIS, (*Synchondroſis, is*, f. συγχονδρωσις, from συν, with, and χονδρος, a cartilage). A ſpecies of ſymphiſis, in which one bone is united with another by means of an intervening cartilage, as the vertebræ and the bones of the pubis.

SYNCHONDROTOMĬA, (*Synchondrotomia, æ*, f. συγχονδροτομια, from συγχονδρωσις, the ſymphiſis of the pubis, and τεμνω, to cut). The operation of dividing the ſymphiſis of the pubis.

SYNCHŸSIS, (*Synchyſis, is*, f. συγχυσις, from συγχυω, to confound). A ſolution of the vitreous humour into a fine attenuated aqueous fluid.

SYNCIPĬTIS OSSA. See *Parietal bones*.

SYNCĬPUT, (*Synciput, itis*, n.) The forepart of the cranium.

SYNCŌPE, (*Syncope, es*, f. συγκοπη, from συν, with, and κοπτω, to cut or ſtrike down). *Animi deliquium. Leipothymia*. Fainting or ſwooning. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes* and order *adynamiæ* of Cullen, in which the reſpiration and action of the heart either ceaſe, or become much weaker than uſual, with paleneſs and coldneſs, ariſing from diminiſhed energy of the brain, or from organic affections of the heart. Species: 1. *Syncope cardiaca*, the cardiac ſyncope, ariſing without a viſible cauſe, and with violent palpitation of the heart, during the intervals, and depending generally on ſome organic affection of the heart or neighbouring veſſels: 2. *Syncope occaſionalis*, the exciting cauſe being manifeſt.

SYNCŌPE ANGINŌSA. See *Angina pectoris*.

SYNDESMOLŌGY, (*Syndeſmologia, æ*, f. συνδεσμολογια, from συνδεσμος, a ligament, and λογος, a diſcourſe). The doctrine of the ligaments.

SYNDESMO-PHARYNGĒUS. See *Conſtrictor pharyngis medius*.

SYNDESMŌSIS, (*Syndeſmoſis, is*, f. συνδεσμωσις, from συνδεσμος, a ligament). That ſpecies of ſymphyſis or mediate

connexion of bones in which they are united by ligament, as the radius with the ulna.

SYNECHĬA, (*Synechia, æ*, f. συνεχια.) A concretion of the iris with the cornea, or with the capsule of the crystaline lens. The proximate cause is the contact from inflammation or adhesion of these parts, the consequence of inflammation. The remote causes are, a collapsus of the cornea, a prolapsus of the iris, a swelling or tumified cataract, hypopium, or a natural formation. The species of this disorder are: 1. *Synechia anterior totalis*, or a concretion of the iris with the cornea. This species is known by every skilful anatomist inspecting the parts. The pupil in this species is dilated or coarctated, or it is found concreted; from hence various lesions of vision. 2. *Synechia anterior partialis*, when only some part of the iris is accreted. This concretion is observed in one or many places; from hence the pupil is variously disfigured, and an inordinate motion of the pupil is perceived. 3. *Synechia anterior composita*, when not only the whole iris, but together a prolapsus of the crystalline lens, unites with the cornea. 4. *Synechia posterior totalis*, or a concretion of the whole uvea, with the ciliary processes and the capsula of the crystalline lens. 5. *Synechia posterior partialis*, when only some part of the capsula of the crystalline lens is concreted with the uvea and cornea. This accretion is simplex, duplex, triplex, or in many places it may happen. 6. *Synechia complicata*, with an amaurosis, cataract, mydriasis, myosis, or synezesis.

SYNEURŌSIS, (*Syneurosis, is*, f. συνευρωσις, from συν, with νευρον, a nerve, because the ancients included membranes, ligaments, and tendons, under the head of nerves). A species of symphysis, in which one bone is united to another by means of an intervening membrane.

SYNEZESIS, (*Synezesis, is*, f. συνεζησις, *confidentia*). A perfect concretion and coarctation of the pupil. It is known by the absence of the pupil, and a total loss of vision. The species are: 1. *Synizesis nativa*, with which infants are sometimes born. In this case, by an error in the first conformation of the pupil, there is no perforation; it is very rarely found. 2. *Synizesis accidentalis*, a concretion of the pupil, from an inflammation or exulceration of the uvea or iris, or from a defect of the aqueous or vitreous humour. 3. *Synizesis*, from a secession of the iris or cornea. From whatever cause it may happen, the effect is certain, for the pupil contracts its diameter; the longitudinal fibres, separated from the circle of the cornea, cannot resist the orbicular fibres: from hence the pupil is wholly or partially contracted. 4. *Synizesis complicata*, or that which is complicated with an amaurosis, synechia, or other ocular disease. The amaurosis or gutta serena is known by the total absence of light to the retina; we can distinguish this not only by the pupil being closed, but likewise the eyelids, for whether the eyelids be open or shut, all is darkness to the patient. The other complicated cases are known by viewing the eye, and considering the parts anatomically. 5. *Synizesis spuria* is a closing of the pupil by mucus, pus, or grumous blood.

SYNŎCHA, (*Synocha, æ*, f. συνοχη, from συνεχω, to continue). Inflammatory fever. A species of continued fever; characterised by increased heat; pulse frequent, strong, hard; urine high-coloured; senses not much impaired. This fever is so named from its being attended with symptoms denoting general inflammation in the system, by which we shall always be able readily to distinguish it from either the nervous or putrid. It makes its attack at all seasons of

the year. but is moſt prevalent in the ſpring; and it ſeizes perſons of all ages and habits, but more particularly thoſe in the vigour of life, with ſtrong elaſtic fibres, and of a plethoric conſtitution. It is a ſpecies of fever almoſt peculiar to cold and temperate climates, being rarely, if ever met with in very warm ones, except amongſt Europeans lately arrived; and even then, the inflammatory ſtage is of very ſhort duration, as it very ſoon aſſumes either the nervous or putrid type.

The exciting cauſes are ſudden tranſitations from heat to cold, ſwallowing cold liquors when the body is much heated by exerciſe, too free a uſe of vinous and ſpirituous liquors, great intemperance, violent paſſions of the mind, the ſudden ſuppreſſion of habitual evacuations, and the ſudden repulſion of eruptions. It may be doubted if this fever ever originates from perſonal infection; but it is poſſible for it to appear as an epidemic amongſt ſuch as are of a robuſt habit, from a peculiar ſtate of the atmoſphere. It comes on with a ſenſe of laſſitude and inactivity, ſucceeded by vertigo, rigors, and pains over the whole body, but more particularly in the head and back; which ſymptoms are ſhortly followed by redneſs of the face and eyes, great reſtleſſneſs, intenſe heat, and unquenchable thirſt, oppreſſion of breathing, and nauſea. The ſkin is dry and parched; the tongue is of a ſcarlet colour at the ſides, and furred with white in the centre; the urine is red and ſcanty; the body is coſtive; and there is a quickneſs, with a fullneſs and hardneſs in the pulſe, not much affected by any preſſure made on the artery. If the febrile ſymptoms run very high, and proper means are not uſed at an early period, ſtupor and delirium come on, the imagination becomes much diſturbed and hurried, and the patient raves violently. The diſeaſe uſually goes through its courſe in about fourteen days, and terminates in a criſis, either by diaphoreſis, diarrhæa, hœmorrhage from the noſe, or the depoſit of a copious ſediment in the urine; which criſis is uſually preceded by ſome variation in the pulſe.

Our judgment as to the termination of the diſeaſe, muſt be formed from the violence of the attack, and the nature of the ſymptoms. If the fever runs high, or continues many days with ſtupor or delirium, the event may be doubtful; but if to theſe are added, picking at the bed clothes, ſtartings of the tendons, involuntary diſcharges by ſtool and urine, and hiccups, it will then certainly be fatal. On the contrary, if the febrile heat abates, the other ſymptoms moderate, and there is a tendency to a criſis, we may then expect a recovery. In a few inſtances, this fever has been known to terminate in mania.

On opening thoſe who die of an inflammatory fever, an effuſion is often perceived within the cranium, and now and then, topical affections of ſome of the viſcera are to be obſerved.

SYNŎCHUS, (*Synochus. i*, f. συνοχος, from συνεχω, to continue). A mixed fever. A ſpecies of continued fever, commencing with ſymptoms of ſynocha and terminating in typhus; ſo that ſynocha and typhus, blended together in a ſlight degree, ſeem to conſtitute this ſpecies of fever, the former being apt to preponderate at its commencement, and the latter towards its termination.

Every thing which has a tendency to enervate the body, may be looked upon as a remote cauſe of fever; and accordingly we find it often ariſing from great bodily fatigue, too great an indulgence in ſenſual pleaſures,

violent exertion, intemperance in drinking, and errors in diet, and now and then likewiſe from the ſuppreſſion of ſome long accuſtomed diſcharge. Certain paſſions of the mind (ſuch as grief, fear, anxiety, and joy), have been enumerated amongſt the cauſes of fever, and in a few inſtances it is probable they may have given riſe to it; but the concurrence of ſome other powers ſeems generally neceſſary to produce this effect. The moſt uſual and univerſal cauſe of this fever is the application of cold to the body; and its morbid effects ſeem to depend partly upon certain circumſtances of the cold itſelf, and partly upon certain circumſtances of the perſon to whom it is applied.

The circumſtances which ſeem to give the application of cold due effect, are its degree of intenſity, the length of time which it is applied; its being applied generally, or only in a current of air, its having a degree of moiſture accompanying it, and its being a conſiderable or ſudden change from heat to cold. The circumſtances of perſons rendering them more liable to be affected by cold, ſeem to be debility, induced either by great fatigue, or violent exertions, by long faſting, by the want of natural reſt, by ſevere evacuations, by preceding diſeaſe, by errors in diet, by intemperance in drinking, by great ſenſuality, by too cloſe an application to ſtudy, or giving way to grief, fear, or great anxiety, by depriving the body of a part of its accuſtomed cloathing, by expoſing any one particular part of it, whilſt the reſt is kept of its uſual warmth, or by expoſing it generally or ſuddenly to cold when heated much beyond its uſual temperature; theſe we may therefore look upon as ſo many cauſes giving an effect to cold which it otherwiſe might not have produced. Another frequent cauſe of fever ſeems to be breathing air contaminated by the vapours ariſing either directly or originally from the body of a perſon labouring under the diſeaſe. A peculiar matter is ſuppoſed to generate in the body of a perſon affected with fever, and this floating in the atmoſphere, and being applied to one in health, will no doubt often cauſe fever to take place in him, which has induced many to ſuppoſe that this infectious matter is produced in all fevers whatever, and that they are all more or leſs contagious.

The effluvia ariſing from the human body, if long confined to one place without being diffuſed in the atmoſphere, will, it is well known, acquire a ſingular virulence, and will if applied to the bodies of men, become the cauſe of fever. Exhalations ariſing from animal or vegetable ſubſtances in a ſtate of putrefaction, have been looked upon as another general cauſe of fever: marſhy or moiſt grounds, acted upon by heat for any length of time, uſually ſend forth exhalations which prove a never failing ſource of fever, but more particularly in warm climates. Various hypotheſes have been maintained, with reſpect to the proximate cauſe of fever; ſome ſuppoſing it to be a lentor or viſcidity prevailing in the maſs of blood, and ſtagnating in the extreme veſſels; others, that it is a noxious matter introduced into or generated in the body, and that the increaſed action of the heart and arteries is the effect of nature to expel the morbific matter; others, that it conſiſted in an increaſed ſecretion of bile; and others again, that it is to be attributed to a ſpaſmodic conſtriction of the extreme veſſels on the ſurface of the body; which laſt was the doctrine taught by the late Dr. Cullen.

An attack of fever is generally marked by the patient's being ſeized

with a conſiderable degree of languor or ſenſe of debility, together with a ſluggiſhneſs in motion, and frequent yawning and ſtretching; the face and extremities at the ſame time become pale, and the ſkin over the whole ſurface of the body appears conſtricted; he then perceives a ſenſation of cold in his back, paſſing from thence over his whole frame, and this ſenſe of cold continuing to increaſe: tremors in the limbs and rigors of the body ſucceed.

With theſe there is a loſs of appetite, want of taſte in the mouth, ſlight pains in the head, back, and loins, ſmall and frequent reſpirations. The ſenſe of cold and its effects after a little time become leſs violent, and are alternated with fluſhings, and at laſt, going off altogether, they are ſucceeded by great heat diffuſed generally over the whole body; the face looks fluſhed, the ſkin is dry as likewiſe the tongue; univerſal reſtleſſneſs prevails, with a violent pain in the head, oppreſſion at the cheſt, ſickneſs at the ſtomach, and an inclination to vomit. There is likewiſe a great thirſt and coſtiveneſs, and the pulſe is full and frequent, beating perhaps 90 or 100 ſtrokes in a minute. When the ſymptoms run very high, and there is a conſiderable determination of blood to the head, a delirium will ariſe. In this fever, as well as moſt others, there is generally an increaſe of ſymptoms towards evening.

If the diſeaſe is likely to prove fatal, either by its continuing a long time, or by the ſeverity of its ſymptoms, then a ſtarting of the tendons, picking at the bed-clothes, involuntary diſcharges by urine and ſtool, coldneſs of the extremities, and hiccups, will be obſerved; where no ſuch appearances take place, the diſeaſe will go through its courſe.

As a fever once produced will go on, although its cauſe be entirely removed, and as the continued or freſh application of a cauſe of fever, neither will increaſe that which is already produced, nor occaſion a new one, there can be no certainty as to the duration of fever, and it is only by attending to certain appearances or changes, which uſually take place on the approach of a criſis, that we can form any opinion or deciſion. The ſymptoms pointing out the approach of a criſis, are the pulſe becoming ſoft, moderate, and near its natural ſpeed; the tongue loſing its fur and becoming clean, with an abatement of thirſt; the ſkin being covered with a gentle moiſture, and feeling ſoft to the touch; the ſecretory organs performing their ſeveral offices: and the urine depoſiting flaky cryſtals of a dirty red colour, and becoming turbid on being allowed to ſtand any time.

Many phyſicians have been of opinion, that there is ſomething in the nature of all acute diſeaſes, except thoſe of a putrid kind, which uſually determines them to be of a certain duration, and therefore that theſe terminations, when ſalutary, happen at certain periods of the diſeaſe rather than at others, unleſs diſturbed in their progreſs by an improper mode of treatment, or the ariſing of ſome accidental circumſtance. Theſe periods are known by the appellation of critical days; and from the time of Hippocrates down to the preſent, have been pretty generally admitted. The truth of them, Dr. Thomas thinks can hardly be diſputed, however they may be interrupted by various cauſes. A great number of phenomena ſhew us, that both in the ſound ſtate and the diſeaſed, nature has a tendency to obſerve certain periods; for inſtance, the viciſſitudes of ſleeping and watching occurring with ſuch regularity to every one; the acute periods that the menſtrual flux obſerves, and the exact time of pregnancy in all viviparous animals, and many other ſuch

inſtances that might be adduced, all prove this law.

With reſpect to diſeaſes, every one muſt have obſerved the definite periods which take place in regular intermittents, as well thoſe univerſal as topical, in the courſe of true inflammation, which at the fourth, or at the fartheſt the ſeventh day, is reſolved, or after this period, changes into either abſceſs, gangrene, or ſchirrus, in exanthematous eruptions, which if they are favourable and regular, appear on a certain and definite day; for example, the ſmall pox about the fourth day. All theſe appear to be founded on immutable laws, according to which the motions of the body in health and in diſeaſe are governed.

The days on which it is ſuppoſed the termination of continued fevers principally happens, are the third, fifth, ſeventh, ninth, eleventh, fourteenth, ſeventeenth, and twentieth.

A ſimple continued fever terminates always by a regular criſis in the manner before mentioned, or from the febrile matter falling on ſome particular parts, it excites inflammation, abſceſs, eruption, or deſtroys the patient.

Great anxiety, loſs of ſtrength, intenſe heat, ſtupor, delirium, irregularity in the pulſe, twitchings in the fingers and hands, picking at the bed clothes, ſtartings of the tendons, hiccups, involuntary evacuations by urine and ſtool, and ſuch like ſymptoms, point out the certain approach of death.

On the contrary, when the ſenſes remain clear and diſtinct, the febrile heat abates, the ſkin is ſoft and moiſt, the pulſe becomes moderate and is regular, and the urine depoſits flaky cryſtals, we may then expect a ſpeedy and happy termination to the diſeaſe.

The uſual appearances which are to be obſerved on diſſection of thoſe who die of this fever, are an effuſion within the cranium, and topical affections, perhaps of ſome viſcera.

SYNOVĬA, (*Synovia, æ*, f. a term of no radical meaning, coined by Paracelſus). An unctuous fluid ſecreted from certain glands in the joint in which it is contained. Its uſe is to lubricate the cartilaginous ſurfaces of the articulatory bones, and to facilitate their motions.

SYNOVIAL GLANDS. The aſſemblage of a fatty fimbriated ſtructure within the cavities of ſome joints.

SYNTENŌSIS, (*Syntenoſis, is*, f. συντένωσις; from συν, with, and τενων, a tendon). A ſpecies of articulation where the bones are connected together by tendons.

SYNTHĔSIS, (*Syntheſis, is*, f. σύνθεσις; from συντιθημι, to compoſe). Combination. See *Analyſis*.

SYPHĬLIS, (*Syphilis, is*, f. the name of a ſhepherd, who fed the flocks of king Alcithous, who proud of their number and beauty, inſulted the ſun; as a puniſhment for which fable relates, that this diſeaſe was ſent on earth; or from σιφλος, filthy). *Lues venerea. Morbus Gallicus.* A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ* and order *impetigines* of Cullen. Towards the cloſe of the memorable fifteenth century, about the year 1494 or 1495 the inhabitants of Europe were greatly alarmed by the ſudden appearance of lues venerea. The novelty of its ſymptoms, and the wonderful rapidity with which it was propagated throughout every part of the known world, ſoon made it an important object of medical enquiry.

1. In the common language, it is ſaid a perſon is poxed, injured, or infected with the venereal diſeaſe, pox, or bad diſtemper, when the venereal poiſon has been received into, or is diffuſed through the ſyſtem, and there produces its peculiar effects. Theſe effects or ſymptoms are ulcers of the mouth, fauces, ſpots, tetters, and ulcers of the ſkin, pains, ſwelling, and caries of the bones, &c. But as long as the effects of poiſon

are local and confined to or near the genitals, the diſorder is not called ſyphilis, lues venerea, or pox; but diſtinguiſhed by ſome particular name according to its different ſeat or appearance; ſuch as clap, ſhanker, bubo, &c. Concerning the nature of the venereal poiſon, we know no more than we do about that of the ſmall-pox or any other contagion; we know only that it produces peculiar effects, which yield to a peculiar mode of treatment. The ſmalleſt particle of this poiſon is ſufficient to bring on the moſt violent diſorder over the whole body.

2. It ſeems to ſpread and diffuſe itſelf by a kind of fermentation and aſſimilation of matter; and like other contagions, it requires ſome time after being applied to the human body, before it produces that effect. It is not known whether it has different degrees of acrimony and volatility, or whether it is always the ſame in its nature, varying only with regard to the particular part to which it is applied, or according to the different habit and conſtitution or particular idioſyncraſy of the perſon who receives the infection. We know that mercury poſſeſſes a certain and ſpecific power of deſtroying the venereal virus; but we are quite uncertain whether it acts by a ſedative, aſtringent, or evacuant quality; or if not perhaps rather by a chemical elective attraction whereby both ſubſtances uniting with one another are changed in a third, which is no more hurtful, but has ſome new properties entirely diſtinct from thoſe which any of them had before they were united. The variolous miaſma, we know, produces its effects in about twenty or twenty-four days after the infection is received from the atmoſphere, and eight or ten days if by inoculation, but the venereal virus ſeems to keep no particular period. At ſome times, and perhaps in particular perſons, Dr. Swediaur has ſeen ſhankers ariſe in the ſpace of twelve hours, nay in a ſtill ſhorter time; indeed he mentions in a few minutes after an impure coition, whereas in moſt caſes, they make their appearance only in as many days. The generality of men feel the firſt ſymptoms of a clap between the ſecond and fifth day after an impure coitus; but there are inſtances where they do not appear till after as many weeks or months. About ten years ago, I was conſulted by a young man who was ſeized with a violent diſcharge from the glans along with a phymoſis, but without any ſhankers, four weeks after coition; and during all the intervals, he felt not the leaſt ſymptom of the diſeaſe. Some years ago, a gentleman went out from London in ſeemingly perfect health, to the Eaſt Indies; but on his arrival in that hot climate, after a voyage of four months a violent clap broke out before he went on ſhore, though he could have received no infection during the voyage, as there was not a woman on board. There are inſtances which render it probable that the virus may lie four, five, or ſix weeks, and perhaps longer, on the ſurface of the genitals before it is abſorbed; and were it not then to produce a ſhanker, might probably not be abſorbed at all. We ſee daily examples, where common women communicate the infection to different men in the ſpace of ſeveral weeks, while they themſelves have not the leaſt ſymptom of ſyphilis local or univerſal, the poiſon lying all that time in the vagina harmleſs, and generally without being abſorbed. How long the venereal virus may lurk in the body itſelf, after it has been abſorbed into the maſs of blood, before it produces any ſenſible effects is a matter of equal uncertainty. There is ſcarce a practitioner who has not obſerved inſtances of its remaining harmleſs for

weeks or even months in the body. I had acceſs to obſerve a caſe, where after lying dormant for half a year, it broke out with unequivocal ſymptoms. But the following inſtance, if to be depended upon, is ſtill more extraordinary.

Some years ago, ſays the above writer, I was conſulted by a gentleman about a ſore throat, which I declared to be venereal. My patient was aſtoniſhed; and aſſured me that for nine years paſt he had not had the leaſt venereal complaint, nor had he any reaſon to believe he had ſince received any infection: but that he had been in the Eaſt Indies, where he was affected with a violent clap. On his return to Europe, being to appearance in good health, he married, and continued perfectly free of any ſuch complaint ever ſince. By a mercurial courſe however, the complaint for which he applied to me was completely removed. With regard to its effects, the venereal poiſon follows no conſtant rule: for though, in general, it affects firſt the throat, where it produces ulcerations, while in others it exerts its virulence on the ſkin or bones. Whilſt the greateſt part of mankind are thus eaſily affected by this poiſon, there are ſome few who ſeem to be altogether unſuſceptible of the infection with the variolous contagion, though they go into infected places, and expoſe themſelves to inoculation or every hazard by which the diſeaſe is generally communicated.

Some perſons are more liable than others to be infected who are ſeemingly of the ſame habit; nay, the very ſame perſon ſeems to be more liable to be infected at one time than another, and thoſe who have been once infected ſeem to be more liable to catch the infection a ſecond time, than thoſe who never were infected before with the diſeaſe. The climate, ſeaſon, age, ſtate of health, idioſyncraſy are, perhaps, as in other diſeaſes, the neceſſary predispoſing cauſes. The ſame difference is obſervable in the progreſs made by the diſeaſe after the patient is infected. In ſome the progreſs is ſlow, and the diſeaſe appears ſcarce to gain any ground, while in others it advances with the utmoſt rapidity, and ſpeedily produces the moſt terrible ſymptoms. Whether the venereal poiſon can be abſorbed into the ſyſtem, without a previous excoriation, or ulceration of the genitals, or ſome other parts of the ſurface of the body, is ſtill a matter of doubt. Several caſes, however, have occured which render it highly probable, if not certain, that the poiſon really is now and then abſorbed, without any previous excoriation or ulceration whatſoever, and thus produces buboes and other venereal ſymptoms in the body.

It has been aſſerted by the earlieſt and even by ſome late writers, that it may be caught by lying in the ſame bed or living in the ſame room with or after an infected perſon. What may have been the caſe at the commencement of the diſeaſe, cannot be ſaid, but the moſt accurate obſervations and experiments which have been made upon the ſubject, do not confirm this to be the caſe in our times. Nor are nurſes infected in the Lock Hoſpital, where they live night and day with patients in all ſtages of the diſtemper. The fact ſeems to be, that patients in our times are apt to impoſe upon themſelves or upon phyſicians and ſurgeons, with regard to this matter; and the above opinion eaſily gains ground among the vulgar, eſpecially in countries where people are more influenced by prejudices, ſuperſtition, ſervile ſituation in life, or other circumſtances. Hence, we ſometimes hear the moſt ridiculous accounts given in thoſe countries by friars and common ſoldiers, of the

manner by which they came to this diſorder: ſuch as piles, gravel, colics, contuſions, fevers, little houſes, lying in ſuſpected beds, or lying in bed with a ſuſpected perſon, retention of the ſemen, coition with a woman in menſtruation, the uſe of cyder, bad wine or beer, &c.

Another queſtion undecided is, whether the venereal poiſon ever infects any fluid of our body beſides the mucous and lymphatic ſyſtem. Does the venereal poiſon in an infected woman ever affect the milk, and conſequently can the infection be conveyed to the infant by the milk alone, without any venereal ulcer on or about the nipples? It is equally a matter of uncertainty whether the venereal diſeaſe is ever conveyed from an infected father or mother, by coition, to the fœtus, provided their genitals are ſound; or, whether a child is ever affected with venereal ſymptoms in the uterus of an infected mother. Such infected infants as came under the obſervation of Dr. Swediaur or of his friends whoſe practice afforded them frequent opportunities, of ſeeing newborn infants, ſeemed rather to militate againſt the opinion. Neither he nor any of them, have ever been able to obſerve ulcerations or other ſymptoms of a venereal kind upon newborn children; and ſuch as make their appearance four, ſix, or eight, or more days afterwards, on the genitals, anus, lips, mouth, &c. may rather be ſuppoſed to ariſe by infection during the paſſage from ulcers in the vagina of the mother, the ſkin of the infant being then nearly in as tender a ſtate as the glans, penis, or the labia; and this perhaps at the time when an abſorption of the venereal poiſon might eaſier take place without a previous excoriation, or ulceration of the ſkin. All the ways, therefore, by which we ſee, in our days, the venereal poiſon communicated from an unhealthy to an healthy perſon may be reduced to the following heads:

1. By the coition of an healthy perſon with another who is infected with venereal ſymptoms of the genitals.

2. By the coition of an healthy perſon with another, apparently healthy, in whoſe genitals the poiſon lies concealed, without having yet produced any bad ſymptom. Thus a woman who has perhaps received the infection from a man two or three days before, may during that time infect, and often does infect the man or men who have to do with her afterwards, without having any ſymptoms of the diſeaſe viſible upon herſelf; and, *vice verſa*, a man may infect a woman in the ſame manner. Such inſtances occur in practice every day.

3. By ſucking; in this caſe the nipples of the wet nurſe may be infected by venereal ulcers in the mouth of the child: or *vice verſa*, the nipples of the nurſe being infected, will occaſion venereal ulcers in the child's noſe, mouth, or lips. It is uncertain as mentioned above, whether the venereal poiſon was ever propagated by means of the milk from the breaſt.

4. By expoſing to the contact of venereal poiſon, any part of the ſurface of the body, by kiſſing, touching, &c. eſpecially if the parts ſo expoſed have been previouſly excoriated, wounded, or ulcerated by any cauſe whatever. In this manner we frequently ſee venereal ulcers ariſe in the ſcrotum and thighs; and there are ſome well atteſted inſtances where the infection took place in the fingers of midwives or ſurgeons. Several inſtances are recorded of venereal ulcers in the noſtrils, eye-lids, and lips of perſons who had touched their own genitals, or thoſe of others, affected at the time with local venereal com-

plaints, and then rubbed their noſtrils, &c. with the fingers, without previouſly waſhing the hands. There was a few years ago in London, a melancholy example of a young lady, who, after having drawn a decayed tooth, and replaced it with one taken immediately from a young woman apparently in perfect health, was ſoon after affected with an ulcer in the mouth. The ſore manifeſted ſymptoms of a venereal nature; but ſuch was its obſtinacy, that it reſiſted the moſt powerful mercurial remedies, terminating at laſt in a caries of the maxilla with a moſt-ſhocking eroſion of the mouth and face, by which the unhappy patient was deſtroyed. During all this, however, we are informed that not the ſmalleſt venereal ſymptom was perceived in the woman from whom the ſound tooth was procured.

5. By wounding any part of the body with a lancet or knife infected with the venereal virus. In this inſtance there is a ſimilarity between the venereal poiſon and that of the ſmall-pox. There are ſeveral examples of the latter being produced by bleeding with a lancet which had been previouſly employed for the purpoſe of inoculation, or of opening variolous puſtules, without being properly cleaned afterwards. In Moravia in the year 1577 a number of perſons who being aſſembled in a houſe for bathing, had themſelves, according to the cuſtom of that time, ſcarified by the barber, were all of them infected with the venereal diſeaſe, and treated accordingly. Krato the phyſician, and Jordan who gave a deſcription of this diſtemper, are both of opinion that it was communicated by means of the ſcarifying inſtrument. And Van Swieten relates ſeveral inſtances where the lues was communicated by ſimilar careleſſneſs in cleaning the inſtrument uſed in bleeding or ſcarification.

SYRĬÆ OLĔUM. A fragrant eſſential oil, obtained by diſtilling the canary balſam plant or moldavica.

SYRIAN HERB MASTICH. See *Marum ſyriacum*.

SYRUP. (*Syrupus*, *i*, m.). When ſugar is diſſolved in any vegetable liquor, to the conſiſtence of honey, a medicinal preparation is formed called ſyrup; which, if obtained from a ſingle plant, is called *ſimple*; but if from more than one, *compound*.

SYRŪPUS ACĒTI. A refrigerating and antiſeptic ſyrup.

SYRŪPUS ALTHEÆ. An emollient and demulcent; moſtly given to allay tickling coughs, hoarſeneſs, &c. in conjunction with other remedies.

SYRŪPUS CARYŎPHŸLLI RUBRI. A warm and ſtimulating ſyrup.

SYRŪPUS COLCHĬCI. An acrid and diuretic compound given in dropſies.

SYRŪPUS CORTĬCIS AURANTĬI. A bitter and ſtomachic.

SYRŪPUS CRŌCI. This imparts a beautiful colour to liquids, and is ſometimes employed as a cordial. Amongſt the vulgar ſyrup of ſaffron is in high eſteem in meaſles, ſmall-pox, &c.

SYRŪPUS LIMŌNIS SUCCI. A very pleaſant, cooling, and acid ſyrup which may be exhibited with advantage, in gaſtritis and bilious affections.

SYRŪPUS MŌRI. Syrup of mulberries, is very grateful and aperient, and may be given with ſuch intentions to children.

SYRŪPUS PAPAVĔRIS ALBI. A uſeful anodyne preparation which may be added with advantage to a vaſt variety of medicines againſt diſeaſes of the bowels, coughs, &c.

SYRŪPUS PAPAVĔRIS ERRATĬCI. A much milder preparation than the former.

SYRŪPUS RIBIS NIGRI. Aperient and diuretic qualities are attributed to this preparation.

SYRŪPUS ROSÆ. A uſeful laxative for children.

SYRŪPUS ROSĀRUM RUBRĀRUM. An adſtringent and nutritive ſyrup moſtly given to children with weak bowels who refuſe the more nauſeous drugs.

SYRŪPUS RUBI IDÆI. A pleaſant aperient ſyrup for children.

SYRŪPUS SCILLITĬCUS. Expectorant and diuretic.

SYRŪPUS SPINÆ CERVĪNÆ. Syrup of buckthorn was formerly much uſed as a purgative but now ſeldom except in glyſters.

SYRŪPUS TOLUTĀNUS. A uſeful balſamic ſyrup, calculated to allay tickling coughs and hoarſneſſes.

SYRUPUS VIŎLÆ. A pleaſant laxative for young children.

SYRŪPŪS ZINGIBĔRIS. A carminative.

SYSSARCŌSIS, (*Syſſarcoſis, is*, f. συσσαρκωσις, from συν and σαρξ, fleſh). A ſpecies of union of bones in which one bone is united to another by means of an intervening muſcle. In this manner the os hyoides is connected with the ſternum and other parts.

SYSTŎLE, (*Syſtole, es*, f. συστολη, from συστελλω, to contract). The contraction of the heart.

T.

TABACUM, (*Tabacum, i*, n. from *Tobago*, the iſland whence it was firſt brought). Tobacco. See *Nicotiana*.

TABES, (*Tabes, is*, f. from *tabeo*, to grow thin). A waſting of the body. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *cachexiæ* and order *marcores* of Cullen; characteriſed by emaciation and weakneſs, attended with hectic fever. It has three ſpecies: 1. *Tabes purulenta*, from an ulcerous diſcharge: 2. *Tabes ſcrofuloſa*, from a ſcrofulous habit: 3. *Tabes venenata*, from poiſon.

TACAMAHACCA, (*Tacamahacca, æ*, f. Indian). The name of a reſinous ſubſtance which exudes both ſpontaneouſly and when inciſions are made into the ſtem of the *Fagara octandria; foliolis tomentoſis* of Linnæus, and not as was formerly ſuppoſed from the *Populus balſamifera Linnæi*. Two kinds of tacamahacca are met with in the ſhops. The beſt, called, from its being collected in a kind of gourd ſhell, tacamahaca in ſhells; is ſomewhat unctuous and ſoft, of a pale yellowiſh or greeniſh colour, a bitteriſh aromatic taſte, and a fragrant delightful ſmell, approaching to that of lavender and ambergris. The more common ſort is in ſemi-tranſparent grains, of a whitiſh, yellowiſh, browniſh, or greeniſh colour, and of a leſs grateful ſmell than the former. Tacamahacca was formerly in high eſtimation as an ingredient in warm ſtimulating plaiſters; and although ſeldom uſed internally, it may be given with advantage as a corroborant and adſtringent balſamic.

TACTUS. See *Touch*.

TÆNĬA, (*Tænia, æ*, f. ταινια, a Hebrew word, ſignifying a fillet; ſo named from its reſemblance to a fillet or piece of tape). The tape worm. A genus of inteſtinal worms; characterized by a long, flat, and jointed body. Species: 1. *Tænia oſculis marginalibus*, the long tape-worm, and the ſoleum of authors, which is peculiar to this country,

Ruſſia, France, &c.: 2. *Tænia oſculis ſuperficialibus*, the broad tapeworm, which is peculiar to the inhabitants of Switzerland, &c. See *Worms*.

TALC. See *Talcum*.

TALCUM, (*Talcum, i*, n. from *talk*, German). Talc. A white, grey, yellow, or greeniſh ſubſtance of a ſoft and ſoapy touch, formed of tranſparent laminæ placed upon each other. Talc is compoſed of pure magneſia mixed with near twice its weight of ſilex and leſs than its weight of alumine. There are ſeveral different appearances of talc. The greeniſh foliaceous Venice talc has been preferrred for medicinal uſes, as poſſeſſing antacid and aperient qualities.

TALUS, (*Talus, i*, m.). A ſynonym of Aſtragalus. See *Aſtragalus*.

TAMALAPATRA. The Indian leaf is to termed by ſome authors. See *Caſſia lignea*.

TAMARIND. See *Tamarindus*.

TAMARINDUS, (*Tamarindus, i*, m. ταμαρινδος; from *tamar* or *tamarindi*, which is in the Arabian language a ſynonym of the dactylus or date). *Oſcyphænicon*. The Tamarind. The tree which affords this fruit is the *Tamarindus indica* of Linnæus. Claſs *Monadelphia*. Order *Triandria*. The Tamarind is employed as a laxative, and for abating thirſt or heat in various inflammatory complaints, and for correcting putrid diſorders, eſpecially thoſe of a bilious kind, in which the cathartic, antiſeptic, and refrigerant qualities of the fruit have been found equally uſeful. The pulp of tamarinds is an ingredient in the *electuarium e caſſia* and *electuarium e ſenna*.

TAMARINDUS INDICA. The ſyſtematic name of the tamarind tree. See *Tamarindus*.

TAMARISCUS, (*Tamariſcus*, from *Tamarik*, abſterſion Heb. named from its properties of cleanſing and purifying the blood). The bark, wood, and leaves of this tree *Tamarix gallica* of Linnæus were formerly employed medicinally, though ſeldom uſed at preſent. The former for its aperient and corroborant virtues in obſtructions of the liver; the latter in icterus, hæmoptyſis, and ſome affections of the ſkin.

TAMARIX GALLĬCA. The ſyſtematic name of the tamariſk tree. See *Tamariſcus*.

TAMEPOISON. See *Vincetoxicum*.

TANACĒTUM, (*Tanacetum, i*, n. corrupted from *tanaſia, athanaſia*, the old name for tanſy). *Tanaſia. Athanaſia. Parthenium mas.* Tanſy.—*Tanacetum vulgare, foliis bipinnatis inciſis ſerratis* of Linnæus. Claſs *Syngeneſia*. Order *Polygamia ſuperflua*. The leaves and flowers of tanſy have a ſtrong, not very diſagreeable ſmell, and a bitter ſomewhat aromatic taſte. The virtues of tanſy are tonic, ſtomachic, anthelmintic, emmenagogue, and reſolvent. It has been much uſed as a vermifuge; and teſtimonies of its efficacy are given by many reſpectable phyſicians.

TANACĒTUM BALSAMĪTA. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal alecoſt. See *Balſamita mas*.

TANACĒTUM HORTENSE. See *Balſamita mas*.

TANACĒTUM VULGARE. The ſyſtematic name of the common tanſy. See *Tanacetum*.

TANASĬA. See *Tanacetum*.

TANSY. See *Tanacetum*.

TANSY, WILD. See *Potentilla*.

TAPPING. See *Paracenteſis*.

TAPSUS BARBĀTUS. See *Verbaſcum*.

TAR. See *Pix liquida*.

TAR, BARBADOES. See *Petroleum barbadenſe*.

TARANTISMUS, (*Tarantiſmus, i*, m, from *tarantula*, the animal whoſe bite is ſuppoſed to be cured only by muſic). The deſire of dancing

which is produced by the bite of the tarantula.

TARANTULA, (*Tarantula, æ*, f. from *taranta*, a city in Naples, where they abound). A kind of venemous ſpider whoſe bite is ſaid to be cured by muſic.

TARAXĂCUM, (*Taraxacum, i*, n. Ταραξακον, from ταρασσω, to alter or change; becauſe it alters the ſtate of the blood). *Dens leonis*. The dandelion, or piſſabed. *Leontodon taraxacum caule ſquamis inferne reflexis, foliis runcinatis denticulatis lævibus*. Claſs *Syngeneſia*. Order *Polygamia æqualis*. The young leaves of this plant in a blanched ſtate have the taſte of endive, and make an excellent addition to thoſe plants eaten early in the ſpring as ſalads; and Murray informs us, that at Goettingen, the roots are roaſted and ſubſtituted for coffee by the poorer inhabitants, who find that an infuſion prepared in this way can hardly be diſtinguiſhed from that of the coffee-berry. The expreſſed juice of dandelion is bitter and ſomewhat acrid; that of the root is bitterer, and poſſeſſes more medicinal power than any other part of the plant. It has been long in repute as a detergent and aperient, and its diuretic effects may be inferred from the vulgar name it bears in moſt of the European languages, *quaſi lecti minga et urinaria herba dicitur*; and there are various proofs of its efficacy in jaundice, dropſy, conſumption, and ſome cutaneous diſorders.

TARCHON SYLVESTRIS. See *Ptarmica*.

TARE. See *Ervum*.

TARSI, EXTENSOR MINOR. See *Plantares*.

TARSUS (*Tarſus, i*, m, ταρσος). The tarſus is compoſed of ſeven bones, viz. the aſtragalus, os calcis, os naviculare, os cuboides, and three oſſa cuneiformia.

The *aſtragalus* is the uppermoſt bone of the foot, and the moſt conſiderable in bulk, if we except the os calcis. Its upper part is formed into a large ſmooth head, round the baſis of which is a rough foſſa, that ſerves for the attachment of ligaments. The upper convex ſurface of the head, which reſembles a pulley, is admitted into the cavity of the tibia; the inner ſide of this head is flat and ſmooth, for its articulation with the malleolus internus, while its outer ſide affords another flat but broader ſurface, for its articulation with the malleolus externus. Both theſe lateral ſurfaces are covered with a cartilage, which is continued from the upper convex part of the head, and deſcends lower down on the outer than on the inner ſide. Anteriorly, the aſtragalus is convex, and covered with cartilage, for its articulation with the os naviculare. The under ſurface of the bone affords two articulating ſurfaces, ſeparated by a deep irregular foſſa. The anterior of theſe two ſurfaces is very ſmall, and ſlightly convex; the poſterior one oblong and concave. They both ſerve for the articulation of this bone with the os calcis.

The *os calcis*, or *calcaneum*, which is the largeſt bone of the foot, is of a very irregular figure. It is long, and ſomewhat flattened at its ſides. Behind, it is formed into a conſiderable tuberoſity, called the heel, which is ſlightly hollow above, and rough behind, where the tendo Achillis is inſerted into it. Without this tuberoſity, which ſupports us in an erect poſture, and when we walk, we ſhould be liable to fall backwards. The upper ſurface of the bone riſes ſo as to form an irregular, oblong, ſmooth prominence, which is adapted to the poſterior concave ſurface of the aſtragalus. The fore part of this prominence is ſeparated by a narrow foſſa, from a ſmall, ſmooth, and ſlightly concave ſurface, ſituated obliquely, and which receives the ſmall convex

ſurface deſcribed at the fore part of the under ſurface of the aſtragalus. Anteriorly, this bone is formed into an oblong, ſmooth, convex ſurface, which is circular above, and ſomewhat pointed below. This ſurface is adapted to the os cuboides. The lower ſurface of the bone is flat, and immediately beyond this fore part we obſerve two tubercles, one internal, and the other external, which give origin to muſcles. The reſt of this ſurface is concave, for lodging the flexor muſcles, and rough, for the attachment of ligaments. The external ſide of the bone is flat, and affords a ſuperficial groove for the tendon of the peroneus longus; the internal ſide is hollowed, for the lodgment of muſcles, and for the ſafe paſſage of tendons, nerves, and veſſels.

The *os naviculare*, or *ſcaphoides*, is ſituated between the aſtragalus and the oſſa cuneiformia, at the inner ſide of the foot. Its poſterior ſurface is concave, and adapted to the anterior head of the aſtragalus, and its anterior ſurface convex, affording three articulating ſurfaces, which anſwer to the three cuneiform bones. Of theſe three ſurfaces, the internal one is the largeſt. Its upper ſurface is convex, and affords a rough foſſa. Its under ſurface is hollow, for the lodgment of muſcles, and rough and unequal, for the attachment of ligaments. The outer ſide of this bone is rounded, except where it is joined, by a ſemi-circular ſmooth ſurface, to the os cuboides. On its inner ſide is obſerved a tuberoſity, into which the tendon of the tibialis poſticus is inſerted.

The *os cuboides* is of a very irregular ſhape, and is placed at the outſide and at the anterior part of the tarſus. Poſteriorly, it is formed into an oblong, articulating ſurface, which receives the fore-part of the os calcis. Anteriorly, it is flat, and ſlightly divided into two articulating ſurfaces, which are connected with the two laſt bones of the metatarſus. Its upper ſurface is rough and convex; its under ſurface is broader, and affords a conſiderable protuberance, on the fore part of which is a groove, for the tendon of the peronæus longus. On the inner ſide of the bone are two articulating ſurfaces, covered with cartilage; the foremoſt of theſe is flat and oblong, for its articulation with the os cuneiforme externum; the hindmoſt is ſmall and ſemi-circular, for its articulation with the os naviculare. The external ſide of the bone, which helps to form the outſide of the foot, is ſhorter and more irregular than the inner ſide.

The *oſſa cuneiformia* are the three wedge-like bones, which are placed by the ſides of each other between the os naviculare and the metatarſus, and which, from their ſituation, are uſually diſtinguiſhed into os cuneiforme externum, medium, and internum. They are of unequal bulk, the middle one being the ſmalleſt, and the internal one the largeſt. We ſhall give a ſeparate deſcription of each.

The *os cuneiforme externum* is of a middle ſize, when compared with the two others. Its upper ſurface forms an oblong ſquare, and, as its ſides entend obliquely downwards, a ſharp edge is formed at the inſide of the foot: hence the bone has the appearance of a wedge. Poſteriorly, it is a little concave, and nearly triangular, where it joins the os naviculare; anteriorly, it is nearly of the ſame ſhape, and ſlightly convex, for ſuſtaining the metatarſal bone of the middle toe. Its external ſurface is divided into two articulating ſurfaces; the foremoſt and ſmalleſt of the two is joined to the inner ſide of the baſis of the fourth metatarſal bone, while the other and longer ſurface is articulated with the os cuboides. Its inner ſide affords, in the ſame manner,

two ſurfaces, for its articulation with the os cuneiforme medium, and the outer ſide of the baſis of the ſecond metatarſal bone.

The *os cuneiforme medium*, or *minimum* as it is ſometimes called on account of its ſize when compared with the other two, is wedged in between four bones. Its upper ſurface forms a more regular ſquare than the laſt deſcribed bone. Anteriorly, it is triangular, and ſlightly concave, for its articulation with the ſecond metatarſal bone; poſteriorly, it has a ſimilar ſurface, by which it is joined to the os naviculare. Its external ſide is contiguous to the laſt deſcribed bone, and its internal ſide is joined to the following one.

The *os cuneiforme internum*, or *maximum*, differs from the other two, in having its broad ſquare ſurface placed towards the ſole of the foot, where it is ſlightly concave, for allowing a paſſage to the flexors of the great toe, while its ſmall thin edge, which appears twiſted, is turned upwards. Poſteriorly, it is concave, and ſomewhat triangular, where it is joined to the os naviculare; anteriorly, it is convex, and of a ſemi-lunar ſhape, for ſupporting the metatarſal bone of the great toe. Of its two ſides, the inner one is rough and convex, affording two tubercles below; the external ſide is flat, and conſiſts of two ſmooth ſurfaces, covered with cartilage: the direction of theſe two ſurfaces is nearly at right angles with each other; the poſterior one, which is the largeſt, is joined to the os cuneiforme medium, while the anterior one is connected with the baſis of the ſecond metatarſal bone.

When theſe ſeven bones, which compoſe the tarſus, are joined together, they are convex above, where they help to form the back of the foot, and afford a concavity below, in which the tendons, veſſels, and nerves of the foot are placed ſecure from compreſſion. Their connections, are with one another, and with the bones of the metatarſus, by amphiarthroſis, except the articulation of the aſtragalus with the os naviculare, which is by arthrodia.

The aſtragalus is joined to the tibia and fibula by ginglimus, but the articulation being looſe, it allows motion in every direction. All theſe articulations are ſecured by very ſtrong ligaments.

The ligaments which connect the leg and foot, are a capſular, and two lateral ligaments. The capſular ligament is attached to the lower extremities of the tibia and fibula, and adheres all round the upper ſurface and the two lateral ſurfaces of the aſtragalus. Of the two lateral ligaments, the internal one is ſhort and thick; it begins from the lower, and chiefly from the anterior part of the malleolus internus, and deſcending ſomewhat obliquely backwards, ſpreading broader as it deſcends, is fixed to the upper part of the inner ſide of the aſtragalus. Some of the fibres of this ligament are ſpread almoſt tranſverſely to the back part of the malleolus internus. The whole of it is covered by a broad and thick annular ligament, which begins from the lower extremity of the malleolus internus, and ſpreading wider as it deſcends, is fixed to the inner ſides of the aſtragalus and os calcis. This ligament ſerves to ſtrengthen the articulation of the leg with the foot; but its principal uſe ſeems to be, to bind down the tendons of the flexor longus pollicis, the flexor longus digitorum, and the tibialis poſticus muſcles, and likewiſe to ſecure the veſſels and nerves in their way to the foot. The external lateral ligament is of greater length and thickneſs, though looſer than the internal one. It begins from the anterior part of the malleolus externus, and deſcend-

ing obliquely backwards, is fixed to the upper and outer part of the os calcis. Beſides this, many other ſtrong fibres, which have been ſometimes deſcribed as a ſeparate ligament, are ſeen extending, almoſt in a tranſverſe direction, from the inner part of the malleolus externus to the back part of the aſtragalus. This external lateral ligament is likewiſe covered by an annular ligament, which like the one juſt now deſcribed, ſerves rather to bind down the tendons of the foot, than to ſtrengthen the articulation, though it is certainly uſeful in this latter reſpect. This annular ligament adheres below to the outer ſide of the os calcis, after which it ſeparates into two portions; one of theſe extends to the lower part of the tibia, while the other is fixed to the inner ſide of the aſtragalus and os naviculare.

The bones of the tarſus are likewiſe firmly connected by a great number of ſtrong ligaments, which cover their upper and under ſurfaces in the ſame manner as was obſerved of the bones of the carpus; and when we join the aſtragalus to the os calcis and os naviculare, we find an opening, which, in the recent ſubject, is filled up by ligaments, ſo that the body reſts upon a yielding baſis, by which means we ſuſtain a leſs ſhock in walking or jumping.

All theſe bones are of a very ſpongy texture covered with a compact bony lamella. Like the bones of the carpus, they are all in a cartilaginous ſtate in the fœtus, except the aſtragalus and os calcis, both of which are in a great meaſure oſſified at the ordinary time of birth; and the great tuberoſity of the latter, unto which the tendo Achillis is inſerted, becomes an epiphyſis before it is completely united to the reſt of the bone.

TARTAR, (*Tartarum*, *i*, n. from ταρταρος, infernal; becauſe it is the ſediment or dregs). The concretion which fixes to the inſide of hogſheads containing wine. It is alloyed with much extractive and colouring matter, from which it is purified by decoction with argillaceous earths and ſubſequent cryſtallization. By this means it becomes perfectly white, and ſhoots out cryſtals of tartar, conſiſting of a peculiar acid, called acid of tartar and potaſh. Its virtues are eccoprotic, diuretic, and refrigerant, and it is exhibited in abdominal phyſconia, dropſy, inflammatory and bilious fevers, dyſpepſia from rancid or fat ſubſtances, bilious diarrhœa and colic, hæmorrhoids and obſtipation.

TARTAR, ACID OF *Acidum tartaroſum. Sal eſſentiale tartari. Acidum tartari eſſentiale.* Tartareous Acid. To obtain the pure tartareous acid, take two pounds of the cryſtals, and diſſolve them in water, into which chalk is to be thrown by degrees till the liquid is ſaturated. A precipitate is formed, which is a true tartrite of lime, is taſteleſs, and cracks between the teeth. This tartrite is put into a cucurbit, and nine ounces of ſulphuric acid, with five ounces of water, are poured on it. After twelve hours digeſtion, with occaſional ſtirring the tartareous acid is ſet at liberty in the ſolution, and may be cleared of the ſulphate of lime by means of cold water. The virtues of this acid are antiſeptic, refrigerant, diuretic. It is uſed in acute fevers, ſcurvy, and hæmorrhage.

TARTAR, EMETIC. See *Antimonium tartariſatum.*

TARTAR, OIL OF. See *Aqua kali.*

TARTAR, REGENERATED. See *Kali acetatum.*

TARTAR, SALT OF. See *Kali preparatum.*

TARTAR, SOLUBLE. See *Kali tartariſatum.*

TARTAR, SPIRIT OF. Pyro-tartareous acid. If the cryſtals of tartar be diſtilled by a ſtrong heat, without any additional body, they furniſh an

empyreumatic acid, called the pyro-tartareous acid, or ſpirit of tartar, and a very fetid empyreumatic oil. In the retort there remains a coal which already contains a great deal of potaſh; but the aſhes of this coal contain a ſtill greater quantity of potaſh, ſcarcely any earth, and no netural ſalts. This mild potaſh, when freed from its earthy particles, is generally called *ſalt* of tartar, ſee *Kali preparatum*; and when liquefied in the atmoſphere, it forms the *aqua kali* of the pharmacopœias.

TARTAR, VITRIOLATED. See *Kali vitriolatum.*

TARTĂRUM EMETĬCUM. See *Antimonium tartariſatum.*

TARTĂRUM REGENERĀTUM. See *Kali acetatum.*

TARTĂRUM SOLUBĬLE. See *Kali tartariſatum.*

TARTĂRUS AMMONĬÆ. See *Tartris ammoniacæ.*

TARTĂRUS CHALYBĔATUS. See *Tartris potaſſæ acidulus ferratus.*

TARTRIS AMMŌNIĂCÆ, *Alkali volatile tartariſatum* of Bergman. *Sal ammoniacum tartareum. Tartarus ammoniæ.* The virtues of the tartrite of ammoniac are diaphoretic, diuretic, and deobſtruent. It is preſcribed in fevers, atonic exanthemata, catarrh, arthritic and rheumatic arthrodynia, hyſteric ſpaſms, &c.

TARTRIS POTASSÆ. See *Kali tartariſatum.*

TARTRIS POTASSÆ ACĬDŬLUS. See *Cremor tartari.*

TARTRIS POTASSÆ ACĬDŬLUS FERRĀTUS. *Globuli martiales. Tartarus chalybeatus. Mars ſolubilis. Ferrum potabile.* Its virtues are adſtringent. It is principally uſed externally in the form of fomentation or bath in contuſions, diſtortions, and luxations.

TARTRIS POTASSÆ ACĬDŬLUS STIBIĀTUS. See *Antimonium tartariſatum.*

TARTRIS SODÆ. *Sal polychreſtus Seignetti. Sal rupellenſis. Alkali minerale tartariſatum.* This preparation is commonly ſuppoſed to be a triple ſalt, though only compoſed of the tartareous acid and ſoda; and therefore called tartris ſodæ in the new chemical momenclature. In a large doſe it proves cathartic, in a leſſer diuretic and deobſtruent; and is given againſt ſaburra of the primæ viæ, obſtipation, and in the cure of agues, and abdominal phyſconia.

TARTRITES, (*Tartris, tis*, m.) Salts formed by the combination of the tartareous acid with various baſes; as, the *acidulous tartrite of potaſh*, commonly called cremor tartar, &c.

TASTE. The organ of taſte differs but ſlightly from that of touch. It appears, by certain experiments, to be ſeated in the tongue chiefly; for neither does ſugar, applied to any other part of the mouth, excite the leaſt ſenſe of taſte in the mind; nor any other ſapid body, unleſs it contain ſomething vehemently penetrating; in which caſe the palate, root of the tongue, uvula, and even the æſophagus, are affected by the ſapid acrimony. That ſenſation, which is ſometimes excited in the ſtomach, æſophagus, and fauces, by the regurgitation of the aliments, ſeems alſo to belong to the tongue, to which the ſapid vapours are applied.

Only the upper ſurface and lateral edges of the tongue are fitted by nature to exerciſe the ſenſe of taſte. By the tongue we underſtand a muſcular body, lodged in the mouth, obtuſe, very broad in man, and divided in the middle by an obſcure ſulcus. Its poſterior and lower parts are variouſly connected to the adjacent bones and muſcles; its anterior and upper parts are moveable. In that portion which conſtitutes the organ of taſte, the ſkin, continuous with that of the face and mouth, adheres to the muſcular fleſh, but is pulpy and ſoft, from the perpetual

warmth and moiſture. From this ſkin ariſe innumerable nervous papillæ, of a more conſiderable ſize here than in other parts. Of theſe there are ſeveral kinds; the firſt kind conſiſts of nine or ten at the back part of the tongue, diſpoſed in a line on each ſide of the foramen cæcum. Theſe, ſurrounded by a circular groove, for the moſt part reſemble an inverted cone, and have a deep ſinus in their middle; but are otherwiſe hard, and but indifferently adapted for taſting, although you can eaſily trace nerves into them. There are ſome other papillæ of the ſame kind found ſcattered before theſe upon the back of the tongue. Theſe degenerate into the fungiform claſs of papillæ, which are found diſtributed over the upper ſurface of the tongue, leſs and ſlenderer than the former, always becoming more pointed as they proceed forwards, till around the edges of the tongue they are crowded together, and diſpoſed in diverging lines. The third ſort of papillæ are conical. Theſe are by far the moſt numerous, are diſperſed among the former, and are ſpread copiouſly over the tongue. The moſt anterior of them in the apex of the tongue are more inclined and fluctuate; they are moſt remarkably numerous in the edges of the tongue; there are even ſome behind the foramen cæcum. They are highly ſenſible, and conſtitute the true organ of taſte; other papillæ are intermixed, partly conical, and partly filiform; and of the conical ones ſome are larger, and others ſucceſſively ſmaller.

Theſe papillæ, beſides numerous veſſels, are ſupplied with nerves, which may be traced into the larger papillæ, and with which the tongue is more largely ſupplied than almoſt any other part. For beſides a nerve of the eighth pair, which, with one of its principal three branches, enters deeply into the baſis of the tongue, covered by the cerato-gloſſus, near the os hyoides; there is alſo a conſiderable nerve that goes to the muſcles of the tongue from the ninth pair, which having inoſculated with the firſt nerve of the neck, and with the large cervical ganglion, and having ſent a branch downwards, often uniting with the eighth pair, and conſtantly with the ſecond and third of the neck, and ſupplying the muſcles ariſing from the ſternum, and frequently communicating with the phrenic nerve, proceeds with the reſt of its trunk to the tongue. This communicates in the cerato-gloſſus, by many branches, with the fifth pair, and is chiefly ſpent upon the genio-gloſſus. Laſtly, the third branch of the fifth pair having ſent upwards or received the cord of the tympanum, and given other branches to the internal pterygoid, and biventer; to the maxillary gland, forming with theſe a ganglion; to the ſublingual gland, and croſſing, with its principal trunk the cerato-gloſſus, where it is united with the ninth pair, comes to the tongue, in company with the deep ſeated artery, with which it penetrates to the tip of the tongue, where it becomes cutaneous. To this nerve, therefore, if there be any preference, the ſenſe of taſte is to be eſpecially aſcribed, which is even confirmed by morbid examples. Laſtly, the papillæ of the tongue are of a hard texture; a firm, pulpy, cellular ſubſtance uniting the arteries, veins, and nerves into maſſes, of which many compoſe one large papilla.

The arterial and venous villi which run between the papillæ, are for the purpoſes of exhalation and inhalation, and have nothing to do with taſte, farther than that they ſeparate from the blood a liquor proper for diſſolving ſalts, and for keeping moiſt the papillæ, which they pour out on the back of the tongue. On the upper

and back part of the tongue are ſeated many ſimple muciferous glands, opening by one or more outlets, and of a round ſhape, formed by an hemiſpherical membrane, and the fleſhy part of the tongue. Some of theſe open into an obſcure blind cavity, of an uncertain figure, which is placed in the middle of the largeſt papillæ, and commonly contains ſome of them.

The papillæ of the human tongue are covered only by a mucous, ſemipellucid membrane, which adheres cloſely to them, and ſerves them as a cuticle. But, in animals, a perforated net-work receives the papillæ, which enter into hollow cornuted ſheaths.

Under the papillæ lies the muſcular ſubſtance of the tongue, compoſed of various muſcles, but in man hardly extricable. The lower part is in a great meaſure made up of the genio-gloſſus muſcle extended outwards from the commiſſure of the chin, and diſtributed like rays upon the tongue. The upper and lateral parts are compoſed of the ſtylo-gloſſus, whoſe fibres run to the tip of the tongue. Its middle part, between theſe, is compoſed of the proper lingual muſcle, which ariſing from itſelf before the pharynx, and from the ſtylo-gloſſus, but deeper, proceeding forwards, is terminated there, and in the genio-gloſſus muſcle, and between that and the ſtylo-gloſſus, conſtitutes a conſiderable part of the tongue. The back part is formed by the cerato-gloſſus, of which the fibres aſcend upwards and backwards, and which is included between the ſtylo-gloſſus, and lingualis, and by the chondro-gloſſus, an entirely different muſcle, which ariſes from the ſmall bones of the os hyoides, and the neareſt part of its baſis, from whence paſſing outwards, covered by lateral layers of the genio-gloſſus, and joining the ſtylo-gloſſus, it diſappears in the tongue. By the action of theſe muſcles, the whole tongue is moveable in all directions, and is capable of varying its own figure, becoming concave when elevated by the ſtylo-gloſſi, being again flattened by the cerato-gloſſi, being rendered narrow, and almoſt cylindrical, by the tranſverſe fibres of the tongue; beſides which there are other orders in the human tongue inextricable and intermixed with much tenacious fat.

The arteries of the tongue are numerous. The largeſt, which is deep ſeated and ſerpentine, comes from the external carotid, and extends along the lower part to the tip of the tongue; a ſmaller ſuperficial artery, incumbent on the ſublingual gland, and inoſculating with the preceding, ariſes either from it, or from the labial. Other ſmall poſterior arteries ariſe either from branches of the labial, or from the tonſillaris. The veins of the tongue are variouſly intricated, and difficult to deſcribe; one, lying deep, accompanies the nerve of the ninth pair; another ſuperficial, accompanies the mental artery, and, inoſculating with the former, forms the ranular vein; but all of them tend towards that large vein, which is a different branch of the internal jugular, from the cerebral one. They variouſly communicate with the adjacent tonſillary, thyroid, pharyngeal, and cutaneous plexuſes; and on the back of the tongue, before the epiglottis, thoſe of the right and left ſides are interwoven with each other. Lymphatic veſſels are found rather in the neighbourhood of the tongue, than in the tongue itſelf.

The papillæ of the tongue, being larger and ſofter than thoſe of the ſkin, and perpetually moiſt, perform the office of touch more exquiſitely than thoſe of the ſkin, which are dry and ſmall; hence the tongue ſuffers more acute pain: moreover, the cutaneous papillæ receive no other ſenſations from ſalts than thoſe of

moiſture or pain. But the papillæ of the tongue being erected and ſomewhat protuberant, to perform the office of taſte, are affected in ſuch a manner by ſalts diſſolved in water, or ſaliva, and applied to their ſummits, that the mind diſtinguiſhes certain claſſes of taſtes, as ſour, ſweet, rough, bitter, ſalt, urinous, ſpirituous, aromatic, pungent of various kinds, inſipid, putrid, and others partly purely ſaline, and partly changed, and compounded by the admixture of ſubtile animal or vegetable oils. All very acrid ſalts excite pain inſtead of taſte. Does the diverſity of flavours ariſe from the different figures of the ſalts? Does this appear from the cubical figure of ſea ſalt, the priſmatical figure of nitre, or the particular configuration of vitriol, ſugar, &c.? It does not ſeem probable, for even inſipid cryſtals have their particular figures; and in ſalts, very different in taſte and other properties, the figures are too much the ſame, and again are inconſtant in the ſame ſalt, as for example, in nitre, which may by art be rendered cubical. The cauſe of taſtes ſeems therefore to reſide in the internal ſtructure of the elements, not perceptible by our ſenſes.

But the nature of the covering of the papillæ, of the ſaliva, of the fluids, and of the aliments lodged in the ſtomach, have great influence on the perception of taſtes; inſomuch, that the ſame flavours do not affect all ages alike, nor all temperatures; nor even the ſame perſon, according as he may be in health, diſeaſed, or habituated to it. In general, whatever contains leſs ſalt than the ſaliva does, ſeems inſipid.

The ſpirituous parts, more eſpecially of vegetables, are received either into the papillæ themſelves, or into the abſorbing villi of the tongue; as appears from the ſpeedy renovation of ſtrength by liquors of this kind, even when they are not taken into the ſtomach.

Nature deſigned the diverſity of flavours, that animals might know thoſe things moſt proper for their food; for in general, there is no aliment unhealthy, that is of an agreeable taſte; nor is any thing ill taſted that is fit for the food of man. We here take no notice of exceſs, by which the moſt healthy food may become prejudicial, or of minerals, which are not furniſhed by nature, but prepared by art. Thus nature has invited man to take the food neceſſary for his ſubſiſtence, both by the pain called hunger, and by the pleaſure ariſing from taſte. But animals, which do not learn from example and the inſtruction of others, diſtinguiſh flavours more accurately, and, admoniſhed by that teſt, abſtain cautiouſly from unhealthy food; and, therefore, herbiverous animals eſpecially, to which a very great diverſity of aliments mixed with noxious plants are offered, are furniſhed with ſuch long papillæ, and ſo elegant a ſtructure of the tongue, for which man has leſs occaſion.

Taxis. An operation, by which thoſe parts which have quitted their natural ſituation are replaced by the hand without the aſſiſtance of inſtruments, as in reducing hernias, &c.

Tea. See *Thea*.

Tear, (*Lachryma, æ*, f.). The limpid fluid ſecreted by the lachryma glands, and flowing on the ſurface of the eye.

The organ which ſecretes this liquid is formed by the lachrymal glands one of which is ſituated in the external canthus of each orbit, and emits ſix or ſeven excretory ducts, which open on the internal ſurface of the upper eyelid above its tarſus, and pour forth the tears. The tears have mixed with them an arterious roſcid vapour, which exhales from the internal ſurface of the eyelids, and external of the tunica conjunctiva, into the eye. Perhaps the aqueous humour alſo tranſudes through the pores

of the cornea on the ſurface of the eye. A certain part of this aqueous fluid is diſſipated in the air; but the greateſt part, after having performed its office, is propelled by the orbicular muſcle, which ſo cloſely conſtringes the eyelid to the ball of the eye, as to leave no ſpace between, unleſs in the internal angle, where the tears are collected. From this collection the tears are abſorbed by the orifices of the punctæ lachrymaliæ; from thence they are propelled through the lachrymal canals, into the lachrymal ſac, and flow through the ductus naſalis into the cavity of the noſtrils, under the inferior concha naſalis. The *lachrymal ſac*, appears to be formed of longitudinal and tranſverſe muſcular fibres; and its three orifices furniſhed with ſmall ſphincters, as the ſpaſmodic conſtriction of the punctæ lachymaliæ proves, if examined with a probe.

The tears have no ſmell but a ſaltiſh taſte, as people who cry perceive. They are of a tranſparent colour and aqueous conſiſtence.

The *quantity*, in its natural ſtate, is juſt ſufficient to moiſten the ſurface of the eye and eyelids; but from ſorrow, or any kind of ſtimulus applied to the ſurface of the eye, ſo great is the quantity of tears ſecreted, that the punctæ lachrymaliæ are unable to abſorb them. Thus the greateſt part runs down from the internal angle of the eyelids, in the form of great and copious drops upon the cheeks. A great quantity alſo deſcends, through the lachrymal paſſages into the noſtrils; hence thoſe who cry have an increaſed diſcharge from the noſe.

Properties.—Tears expoſed to the atmoſphere, or evaporated by a gentle heat, dry into a luteal maſs, which often exhibits cubic cryſtals. Lime water is not rendered turbid by tears, becauſe the ſoda they contain is not aerated, but cauſtic; and thus the ſyrup of violets is rendered green. Freſh tears are perfectly diſſolved in water, but dried tears are not. They are coagulated by alkohol of wine, and a culinary ſalt and ſoda is obtained by evaporation. Freſh as well as dried tears are ſoluble in alkaline ſalts. Freſh tears are not changed by the acid of vitriol, or acid of ſalt; but thoſe dried are diſſolved with an effervescence. They are momentaneouſly inſpiſſated by the oxygenated muriatic acid, as well as by the oxygene attracted from the atmoſphere.

The *conſtituent principles* are,

1. Water, which conſtitutes the greateſt part of tears.

2. A peculiar mucus, coagulated by alkohol of wine.

3. Culinary ſalt, cauſtic, and phoſphorated ſoda; alſo phoſphorated calx is obtained from the incinerated carbone.

Uſe of the tears.—1. They continually moiſten the ſurface of the eye and eyelids, to prevent the pellucid cornea from drying and becoming opake, or the eye from concreting with the eyelids. 2. They prevent that pain, which would otherwiſe ariſe from the friction of the eyelids againſt the bulb of the eye from continually winking. 3. They waſh and clean away the duſt of the atmoſphere, or any thing acrid that has fallen into the eye, by the true vis medicatix. 4. Crying unloads the head of congeſtions.

TEETH. *Dentes.* Small bones fixed in the alveoli of the upper and under jaw. In early infancy nature deſigns us for the ſofteſt aliment, ſo that the gums alone are then ſufficient for the purpoſe of manducation; but as we advance in life, and require a different food, ſhe wiſely provides us with teeth. Theſe are the hardeſt and whiteſt of our bones, and, at full maturity, we uſually find thirty-two in both jaws; viz. ſixteen above, and as many below. Their number varies indeed in dif-

rent ſubjects; but it is ſeldom ſeen o it exceed thirty-two, and it will ery rarely be found to be leſs than wenty-eight.

Each tooth may be divided into vo parts; viz. its body or that art which appears above the gums; id its fangs or root, which is fixed to the ſocket. The boundary beween theſe two, cloſe to the edge f the gum, where there is uſually a nall circular depreſſion, is called the eck of the tooth. The teeth of each w are commonly divided into three aſſes; but before each of theſe is eated of in particular, it will be ght to ſay ſomething of their geerai ſtructure.

Every tooth is compoſed of its *cortex* *enamel*, and its internal bony ſubance. The enamel, or as it is ſomemes called, the vitreous part of the ooth, is a very hard and compact bſtance, of a white colour, and peliar to the teeth. It is found only on the body of the tooth, coverg the outſide of the bony or interal ſubſtance. When broken it apears fibrous or ſtriated; and all the riæ are directed from the circumfence to the center of the tooth. his enamel is thickeſt on the grindg ſurface, and on the cutting edges points of the teeth, becoming radually thinner as it approaches e neck, where it terminates inſenbly. It would ſeem to be an earth, nited with a portion of animal ſubance, as it is not reducible to quickne by fire, till it has firſt been diſlved in an acid. But, as yet, we e by no means able to aſcertain its al nature. Some writers have deribed it as being vaſcular, but it is rtain that no injection will ever ach this ſubſtance; that it receives tinge from madder; and that it fords no appearance of a circulation fluids. The bony part of a tooth ſembles other bones in its ſtructure, t is much harder than the moſt compact part of bones in general. It compoſes the inner part of the body and neck, and the whole of the root of the tooth. This part of a tooth, when completely formed, does not, like the other bones, receive a tinge from madder, nor do the minuteſt injections penetrate into its ſubſtance, although many writers have aſſerted the contrary. Mr. Hunter has been therefore induced to deny its being vaſcular, although he is aware that the teeth, like other bones, are liable to ſwellings, and that they are found anchyloſed with their ſockets. He ſuppoſes, however, that both theſe may be original formations; and, as the moſt convincing proof of their not being vaſcular, he reaſons from the analogy between them and other bones. He obſerves, for inſtance, that in a young animal that has been fed with madder, the parts of the teeth which were formed before it was put on madder diet will appear of their natural colour, but that ſuch parts as were formed while the animal was taking the madder, will be of a red colour; whereas, in other bones, the hardeſt parts are ſuſceptible of the dye, though more ſlowly than the parts which are growing. Again he tells us, that if you leave off feeding the animal with madder a conſiderable time before you kill it, you will find the above appearances ſtill ſubſiſting, with this addition, that all the parts of the teeth which were formed after leaving off the madder will be white. This experiment proves that a tooth once tinged does not loſe it colour; whereas other bones do (though very ſlowly) return again to their natural appearance: and, as the dye in this caſe muſt be taken into the habit by abſorbents, he is led to ſuſpect that the teeth are without abſorbents as well as other veſſels. Theſe arguments are very ingenious, but they are far from being ſatisfactory. The facts adduced

by Mr. Hunter are capable of a different explanation from that which he has given them; and when other facts are added relative to the ſame ſubject, it will appear that this bony part of a tooth has a circulation through its ſubſtance, and even lymphatics, although, from the hardneſs of its ſtructure, we are unable to demonſtrate its veſſels. The facts which may be adduced are, 1ſt. We find that a tooth recently drawn and tranſplanted into another ſocket, becomes as firmly fixed after a certain time, and preſerves the ſame colour as the reſt of the ſet; whereas a tooth that has been long drawn before it is tranſplanted, will never become fixed. Mr. Hunter indeed is aware of this objection, and refers the ſucceſs of the tranſplantation, in the firſt inſtance, to the living principle poſſeſſed by the tooth, and which he thinks may exiſt independent of a circulation. But however applicable ſuch a doctrine may be to zoophytes, it is ſuſpected that it will not hold good in man, and others of the more perfect animals; and there does not appear to be any doubt but that, in the caſe of a tranſplanted tooth, there is a real union by veſſels. 2dly. The ſwellings of the fangs of a tooth, which in many inſtances are known to be the effects of diſeaſe, and which are analogous to the ſwelling of other bones, are a clear proof of a ſimilarity of ſtructure, eſpecially as we find them inveſted with a perioſteum. 3dly. It is a curious fact, though as yet perhaps not generally known, that, in caſes of phthiſis pulmonalis, the teeth become of a milky whiteneſs, and in ſome degree, tranſparent; does not this prove them to have abſorbents?

Each tooth has an inner cavity, which, beginning by a ſmall opening at the point of the fang, becomes larger, and terminates in the body of the tooth.

This cavity is ſupplied with blood veſſels and nerves, which paſs through the ſmall hole in the root. In old people this hole ſometimes cloſes, and the tooth becomes then inſenſible.

The teeth are inveſted with a perioſteum, from their fangs to a little beyond their bony ſockets, where it is attached to the gums. This membrane ſeems to be common to the tooth which it incloſes, and to the ſockets which it lines. The teeth are likewiſe ſecured in their ſockets by a red ſubſtance, called the *gum*, which every where covers the alveolar proceſſes, and has as many perforations as there are teeth. The gums are exceedingly vaſcular, and have ſomething like a cartilaginous hardneſs and elaſticity, but do not ſeem to have much ſenſibility. The gums of infants, which perform the office of teeth, have a hard ridge extending through their whole length; but in old people, who have loſt their teeth, this ridge is wanting. The three claſſes into which the teeth are commonly divided, are *inciſores*, *canini*, and *molares* or *grinders*.

The *inciſores* are the four teeth in the fore part of the jaws; they derive their name from their uſe in dividing and cutting the food in the manner of a wedge, and have each of their two ſurfaces, which meet in a ſharp edge. Of theſe ſurfaces, the anterior one is convex, and the poſterior or ſomewhat concave. In the upper jaw they are uſually broader and thicker, eſpecially the two firſt, than thoſe of the under jaw, over which they generally fall by being placed a little obliquely.

The *canini* or *cuſpidati* are the longeſt of all the teeth, deriving their name from their reſemblance to a dog's tuſks. There is one of these teeth on each ſide of the inciſores, ſo that there are two in each jaw. They are the longeſt of all the teeth

Their fangs differ from that of the inciſores only in being much larger, and their ſhape may be eaſily described to be that of an inciſor with its edge worn off, ſo as to end in a narrow point inſtead of a thin edge. The canini not being calculated for dividing like the inciſores, or for grinding, ſeem to be intended for laying hold of ſubſtances. Mr. Hunter remarks of theſe teeth, that we may trace in them a ſimilarity in ſhape, ſituation, and uſe, from the moſt imperfect carnivorous animal, which we believe to be the human ſpecies, to the lion, which is the moſt perfectly carnivorous.

The grinders, or *molares*, of which there are ten in each jaw, are ſo called, becauſe from their ſize and figure they are calculated for grinding the food. The canini and inciſores have only one fang, but the three firſt grinders in the under jaw have conſtantly two fangs, and the ſame teeth in the upper jaw three fangs. Sometimes theſe fangs are divided into two points near their baſe, and each of theſe points has, perhaps, been ſometimes conſidered as a diſtinct fang. The grinders likewiſe differ from each other in their appearance. The two firſt on each ſide, which Mr. Hunter appears to have diſtinguiſhed very properly by the name of *bicuſpides*, ſeem to be of a middle nature between the inciſores and grinders; they have in general only one root, and the body of the tooth terminates in two points, of which the anterior one is the higheſt, ſo that the tooth has in ſome meaſure the appearance of one of the canini. The two grinders beyond theſe, on each ſide, are much larger. Their body forms almoſt a ſquare with rounded angles; and their grinding ſurface has commonly five points or protuberances, two of which are on the inner, and three on the outer part of the tooth. The laſt grinder is ſhorter and ſmaller than the reſt, and, from its coming through the gums later than the reſt, and ſometimes not appearing till late in life, is called *dens ſapientiæ*. The variation in the number of teeth uſually depends on theſe dentes ſapientiæ.

Having thus deſcribed the appearance of the teeth in the adult; the manner of their formation and growth in the fœtus is next to be conſidered. We ſhall find that the alveolar proceſs, which begins to be formed at a very early period, appears about the fourth month, only as a ſhallow longitudinal groove, divided by ſlight ridges into a number of intermediate depreſſions, which are to be the future alveoli or ſockets. Theſe depreſſions are at firſt filled with ſmall pulpy ſubſtances, included in a vaſcular membrane; and theſe pulpy ſubſtances, are the rudiments of the teeth. As theſe advance in their growth, the alveolar proceſſes become gradually more completely formed. The ſurface of the pulp firſt begins to harden; the oſſification proceeding from one or more points, according to the kind of tooth that is to be formed. Thus, in the inciſores and canini, it begins from one point; in the bicuſpides, from two points, correſponding with the future ſhape of thoſe teeth; and in the molares, from four or five points. As the oſſification advances, the whole of the pulp is gradually covered with bone, excepting its under ſurface, and then the fang begins to be formed. Soon after the formation of this bony part, the tooth begins to be incruſted with its enamel; but in what manner this is depoſited we are as yet unable to explain.—Perhaps the vaſcular membrane, which incloſes the pulp, may ſerve to ſecrete it. It gradually cryſtallizes upon the ſurface of the bony part and continues to increaſe in thickneſs, eſpecially at the points and baſis of

the tooth, till ſome time before the tooth begins to paſs through the gum; and when this happens, the enamel ſeems to be as hard as it is afterwards, ſo that the air does not appear to have the leaſt effect in hardening it, as has been ſometimes ſuppoſed.—While the enamel is thus forming, the lower part of the pulp is gradually lengthened out and oſſified, ſo as to form the fang. In thoſe teeth which are to have more than one fang, the oſſification begins from different parts of the pulp at one and the ſame time. In this manner are formed the inciſores, the canini, and two molares on each ſide, making in the whole, twenty teeth, in both jaws, which are ſufficient for the purpoſes of manducation in early life. As the fangs of the teeth are formed, their upper part is gradually puſhed upwards, till at length, about the ſeventh, eighth, or ninth month after birth, the inciſores, which are the firſt formed, begin to paſs through the gum. The firſt that appears is generally in the lower jaw. The canini and molares not being formed ſo ſoon as the inciſores, do not appear till about the twentieth or twenty-fourth month. Sometimes one of the canini, but more frequently one of the molares, appears firſt.

The danger to which children are expoſed, during the time of dentition, ariſes from the preſſure of the teeth in the gum, ſo as to irritate it, and excite pain and inflammation. The effect of this irritation is, that the gum waſtes, and becomes gradually thinner at this part, till at length the tooth protrudes. In ſuch caſes therefore we may, with great propriety, aſſiſt nature by cutting the gum. Theſe twenty teeth are called the *temporary*, or *milk* teeth, becauſe they are all ſhed between the age of ſeven and fourteen, and are ſupplied by others of a firmer texture, with large fangs, which remain till they become affected by diſeaſe, or fall out in old age, and are therefore called the *permanent*, or *adult* teeth. The rudiments of theſe adult teeth begin to be formed at different periods. The pulp of the firſt adult inciſor, and of the firſt adult grinder, may be perceived in a fœtus of ſeven or eight months, and the oſſification begins in them about ſix months after birth. Soon after birth the ſecond inciſor, and the canine tooth on each ſide, begin to be formed. About the fifth or ſixth year the firſt bicuſpis, and about the ſeventh the ſecond bicuſpis begins to oſſify. Theſe bicuſpides are deſtined to replace the temporary grinders. All theſe permanent teeth are formed in a diſtinct ſet of alveoli; ſo that it is not by the growing of one tooth under another, in the ſame ſocket, that the uppermoſt tooth is gradually puſhed out, as is commonly imagined; but the temporary teeth, and thoſe which are to ſucceed them, being placed in ſeparate alveoli, the upper ſockets gradually diſappear, as the under ones increaſe in ſize, till at length the teeth they contain, having no longer any ſupport, conſequently fall out. But, beſides theſe twenty teeth, which ſucceed the temporary ones, there are twelve others to be added to make up the number thirty-two. Theſe twelve are three grinders on each ſide in both jaws; and in order to make room for this addition, we find the jaws grow as the teeth grow, ſo that they appear as completely filled with twenty teeth, as they are afterwards with thirty-two. Hence, in children the face is flatter and rounder than in adults. The firſt adult grinder uſually paſſes through the gum about the twelfth year; the ſecond, which begins to be formed in the ſixth or ſeventh year, cuts the gum about the ſeventeenth or eighteenth; and the third or dens ſapientiæ, which begins to be formed about the twelfth year, paſſes through the gum between the age of twenty and thirty. The

dentes ſapientiæ have, in ſome inſtances, been cut at the age of forty, fifty, ſixty, and even eighty years; and it ſometimes happens that they do not appear at all. Sometimes likewiſe it happens, that a third ſet of teeth appear about the age of ſixty or ſeventy. Diermebroeck tells us that he himſelf, at the age of fifty ſix, had a freſh canine tooth in the place of one he had loſt ſeveral years before; M. du Fay ſaw two inciſores and two canini cut the gum in a man aged eighty-four; Mr. Hunter has ſeen two fore-teeth ſhoot up in the lower jaw of a very old perſon; and an account was lately publiſhed of a man who had a complete ſet at the age of ſixty. Other inſtances of the ſame kind are to be met with in authors. The circumſtance is curious, and, from the time of life at which it takes place, and the return of the catamenia, which ſometimes happens in women at the ſame age it has been very ingeniouſly ſuppoſed, that there is ſome effort in nature to renew the body at that period.

The teeth are ſubject to a variety of *accidents*. Sometimes the gums become ſo affected as to occaſion them to fall out, and the teeth themſelves are frequently rendered carious by cauſes which have not hitherto been ſatisfactorily explained. The diſeaſe uſually begins on that ſide of the tooth which is not expoſed to preſſure, and gradually advances till an opening is made into the cavity: as ſoon as the cavity is expoſed, the tooth becomes liable to conſiderable pain, from the air coming into contact with the nerve. Beſides theſe accidental means by which the teeth are occaſionally affected, old age ſeldom fails to bring with it ſure and natural cauſes for their removal. The alveoli fill up, and the teeth conſequently fall out. The gums then no longer meet in the fore part of the mouth, the chin projects forwards, and the face being rendered much ſhorter, the whole phyſiognomy appears conſiderably altered. Having thus deſcribed the formation, ſtructure, growth, and decay of the teeth, it remains to ſpeak of their uſes; the chief of which we know to be in maſtication. And here we cannot help obſerving the great variety in the ſtructure of the human teeth, which fits us for ſuch a variety of food, and which, when compared with the teeth given to other animals, may in ſome meaſure, enable us to explain the nature of the aliment for which man is intended by nature. Thus, in ruminant animals we find inciſores only in the lower jaw, for cutting the graſs, and molares for grinding it; in graminivorous animals, we ſee molares alone; and in carnivorous animals, canine teeth for catching at their prey, and inciſores and molares, for cutting and dividing it. But, as man is not deſigned to catch and kill his prey with his teeth, we obſerve that our canini are ſhaped differently from the fangs of beaſts of prey, in whom we find them either longer than the reſt of the teeth, or curved. The inciſores likewiſe are ſharper in thoſe animals than in man. Nor are the molares in the human ſubject ſimilar to the molares of carnivorous animals; they are flatter in man than in theſe animals; and, in the latter, we likewiſe find them ſharper at the edges, more calculated to cut and tear the food, and by their greater ſtrength, capable of breaking the bones of animals. From theſe circumſtances, therefore, we may conſider man as partaking of the nature of theſe different claſſes; as approaching more to the carnivorous than to the herbivorous tribe of animals; but upon the whole, formed for a mixed aliment, and fitted equally to live upon fleſh and upon vegetables. Thoſe philoſophers, therefore, who would confine man wholly to a vegetable

food, do not seem to have studied nature. As the molares are the last teeth that are formed so they are usually the first that fall out; this would seem to prove, that we require the same kind of aliment in old age as in infancy. Besides the use of the teeth in mastication, they likewise serve a secondary purpose, by assisting in the articulation of the voice.

TEETHING. *Dentition.* The eruption of the teeth through the gums. See *Teeth.*

TEGŬLA HIBERNĬCA. See *Lapis hibernicus.*

TEGUMENTS COMMON. Under this term anatomists comprehend the cuticle, rete mucosum, skin, and adepose membrane as being the covering to every part of the body except the nails. See *Skin.*

TELEPHIUM. *Telephium.* See *Faba crassa.*

TELA, (*Tela, æ,* f. a web of cloth). The cellular membrane is so called from its likeness to a fine web.

TELLA CELLULŌSA. See *Cellular membrane.*

TEMPERAMENTUM, (*Temperamentum, i,* n. from *tempero,* to mix together). The peculiar constitution of the humours. Temperaments have been variously distinguished: the division most generally received is into the sanguineous, phlegmatic, choleric, and melancholic.

TEMPLE. The lateral and flat parts of the head above the ears.

TEMPORAL ARTERY. *Arteria temporālis.* A branch of the external carotid, which runs on the temples and give off the frontal artery.

TEMPORAL BONES. *Ossa temporalia. Ossa temporum.* These two bones, which are situated one on each side of the head, are of a very irregular figure. They are usually divided into two parts, one of which from the manner of its connexion with the neighbouring bones, is called *os squamosum,* and the other *os petrosum,* from its irregularity and hardness.

In both these parts there are processes and cavities to be described. Externally there are three processes; one anterior, called *zygomatic* process, which is stretched forwards to join with the os malæ, and thus forms the bony jugum under which the temporal muscle passes; one posterior, called the *mastoid* or *mamillary* process, from its resemblance to a nipple; and one inferior, called the *styloid* process, from its shape, which is said to resemble that of the ancient *stylus scriptorius.* In young subjects this process is united with the bone by an intermediate cartilage, which sometimes, even in adults, is not completely ossified. Three muscles have their origin from this process, and borrow half of their names from it, viz. stylogloſſus, stylo-hyoideus, and stylo-pharyngeus. Round the root of this process there is a particular rising of the os petrosum, which some writers describe as a process, and, from its appearance with the styloid, have named it *vaginalis,* others describe the semi-circular ridge of the meatus auditorius externus as a fifth process, to which they give the name of *auditory.* The depressions and cavities are, 1. a large fossa which serves for the articulation of the lower jaw; it is situated between the zygomatic, auditory, and vaginal processes, and is separated in its middle by a fissure into which the ligament that secures the articulation of the lower jaw with this bone is fixed. The fore part of this cavity, which receives the condyle of the jaw, is covered with cartilage; the back part only with the periosteum. 2. A long fossa behind the mastoid process, where the digastric muscle has its origin. 3. The *meatus auditorius externus,* the name given to a large funnel-like canal that

leads to the organ of hearing. 4. The *ſtylo-maſtoid hole*, ſo called from its ſituation between the ſtyloid and maſtoid proceſſes. It is likewiſe called the aqueduct of Fallopius, and affords a paſſage to the portio dura of the auditory or ſeventh pair of nerves. 5. Below and on the fore part of the laſt foramen we obſerve part of the jugular foſſa, a thimble-like cavity, in which the beginning of the internal jugular vein is lodged. 6. Before, and a little above this foſſa is the orifice of a foramen, through which paſs the internal carotid artery and two filaments of the intercoſtal nerve. This conduit runs firſt upward and then forward, forming a kind of elbow, and terminates at the end of the os petroſum. 7. At this part of the oſſa temporum we obſerve the orifice of a canal which runs outwards and backwards in an horizontal direction, till it terminates in the cavity of the ear called tympanum. This canal, which in the recent ſubject is continued from the ear to the mouth, is called the *Euſtachian tube*. We ſhall ſpeak of it more particularly hereafter. 8. A ſmall hole behind the maſtoid proceſs, which ſerves for the tranſmiſſion of a vein to the lateral ſinus. But this, like other foramina in the ſcull that ſerve only for the tranſmiſſion of veſſels, is neither uniform in its ſituation, nor to be met with in every ſubject. The internal ſurface of theſe bones may eaſily be divided into three parts. The firſt, uppermoſt and largeſt, is the ſquamous part, which is ſlightly concave from the impreſſion of the brain. Its ſemi-circular edges is ſloping, ſo that the external lamella of the bone advances farther than the internal, and thus reſts more ſecurely on the parietal bones. The ſecond and middlemoſt, which is the petrous part of the bone, forms a hard, craggy protuberance, nearly of a triangular ſhape. On its poſterior ſide we obſerve a large foramen, which is the meatus auditorius internus; it receives the double nerve of the ſeventh pair, viz. the portio dura and portio mollis of that pair. About the middle of its anterior ſurface is a ſmall foramen, which opens into the aqueduct of Fallopius, and receives a twig of the portio dura of the ſeventh pair of nerves. This foramen having been firſt deſcribed by Fallopius, and by him named *hiatus*, is ſometimes called *hiatus Fallopii*. Beſides theſe, we obſerve other ſmaller holes for the tranſmiſſion of blood veſſels and nerves. Below this craggy protuberance is the third part, which, from its ſhape and connexion with the os occipitis by means of the lambdoidal ſuture, may be called the lambdoidal angle of the temporal bone. It is concave, from the impreſſion of the brain; it helps to form the poſterior and inferior foſſæ of the ſcull, and has a conſiderable furrow, in which is lodged part of the lateral ſinus. The temporal bones differ a little in their ſtructure from the other bones of the cranium. At their upper parts they are very thin, and almoſt without diploë, but below they have great ſtrength and thickneſs. In the fœtus, the thin upper part, and the lower craggy part, are ſeparated by a cartilaginous ſubſtance; there is no appearance either of the maſtoid or ſtyloid proceſſes, and, inſtead of a long funnel-like meatus auditorius externus, there is only a ſmooth bony ring, within which the membrana tympani is faſtened. Within the petrous part of theſe bones there are ſeveral cavities, proceſſes, and bones, which belong altogether to the ear, do not enter into the formation of the cranium, and are deſcribed under the article ear.

The oſſa temporum are connected by ſuture with the oſſa parietalia, the

os occipitis, the ossa malarum, and the os sphenoides, and are articulated with the lower jaw.

Temporālis, (sc. *Temporalis musculus*). This muscle, which Winslow has named the *crotaphyte*, arises fleshy from the lower, lateral, and anterior part of the parietal bone; from all the squamous portion of the temporal bone; from the lower and lateral part of the os frontis; from the posterior surface of the os malæ; from all the temporal process of the sphenoid bone; and sometimes from a ridge at the lower part of this process. This latter portion, however, is often common to this muscle and the pterygoideus externus. It is of a semi circular shape, and its radiated fibres converge, so as to form a strong middle tendon, which passes under the jugum, and is inserted into the coronoid process of the lower jaw, towhich it adheres on every side, but, more particularly at its fore part, where the insertion is continued down to the body of the bone. This muscle is covered by a pretty strong fascia, which some writers have erroneously described as a part of the aponeurosis of the occipito-frontalis. This fascia adheres to the bones, round the whole circumference of the origin of the muscle, and, descending over it, is fixed below to the ridge where the zygomatic process begins, just above the meatus auditorius; to the upper edge of the zygomatic process itself, and anteriorly to the os malæ. This fascia serves as a defence to the muscle, and likewise gives origin to some of its fleshy fibres. The principal use of the temporal muscle is to draw the lower jaw upwards, as in the action of biting; and as it passes a little forwards to its insertion, it may at the same time pull the condyle a little backwards, though not so much as it would have done if its fibres had passed in a direct line from their origin to their insertion, because the posterior and lower part of the muscle passes over the root of the zygomatic process, as over a pulley.

Tendon, (*Tendo, inis*, m. from *tendo*, to stretch). The white and glistening extremity of a muscle. See *Muscle*.

Tenesmus, (*Tenesmus, i*, m. τεινεσμος, from τεινω, to constringe; so called from the perception of a continual constriction or bound state of the part). A continual inclination to go to stool, without a discharge.

Tensor palāti. See *Circumflexus*.

Tensor tympāni. A muscle of the ear, which pulls the malleus and the membrane of the tympanum towards the petrous portion of the temporal bone, by which the membrana tympani is made more concave and tense.

Tensor vaginæ femŏris. *Fascialis. Musculus membranosus. Musculus aponeurosis*, vel, *fasciæ latæ* of Winslow. A muscle, situated on the outside of the thigh, which stretches the membranous fascia of the thigh, assists in the abduction of the thigh, and somewhat in its rotation inwards. It arises by a narrow, tendinous, and fleshy beginning from the external part of the anterior, superior, spinous process of the ilium, and is inserted a little below the great trochanter into the membranous fascia.

Tentorĭum, (*Tentorium, i*, n.). A process of the dura mater, separating the cerebrum from the cerebellum. It extends from the internal horizontal spine of the occipital bone, directly forwards to the sella turcica of the sphænoid bone.

Terebinthĭna argentaroTensis. Strasburg turpentine. This species is generally more transparent and less tenacious than either the Venice or Chio turpentines. It is of a

ellowiſh brown colour, and of a more greeable ſmell than any of the turpentines, except the Chio. It is extracted in ſeveral parts of Germany, rom the red and ſilver fir, by utting out, ſucceſſively narrow ſtrips f the bark. In ſome places a reſinous juice is collected from under the ark called *Cuchrym abregna*, and *leum abietinum*.

TEREBINTHĬNA CHIA, (*Terebinthina, æ*, f.). See *Chio turpentine*.

TEREBINTHĬNA COMMŪNIS. See *Terebinthina vulgaris*.

TEREBINTHĬNA CYPRĬA. See *Chio turpentine*.

TEREBINTHĬNA VENĒTA. Venice turpentine; ſo called becauſe we re ſupplied with it from the Venetians. This ſpecies of turpentine ſſues ſpontaneouſly through the bark f the *Pinus larix; foliis faſciculatis ollibus obtuſiuſculis bracteis extra quamas ſtrobilorum extantibus*. Hort. Kew. Claſs *Monoecia*. Order *Moadelphia*. It is uſually thinner than ny of the other ſorts; of a clear hitiſh or pale yellowiſh colour; a ot, pungent, bitteriſh, diſagreeable aſte; and a ſtrong ſmell, without uy thing of the aromatic flavour of he chian kind. For its virtues ſee *Turpentines*.

TEREBINTHĬNA VULGĀRIS. Common turpentine. This ſpecies f turpentine flows very freely from he *Pinus picea* of Linnæus. *Pinus foliis ſolitariis plenis emarginatis pectinatis, ſquamis coni obtuſiſſimis adreſſis*. Hort. Kew. Claſs *Monoecia*. Order *Monadelphia*. For its medicinal uſes ſee *Turpentines*.

TERĒS MAJOR, (*teres* ſc. *Muſculus major*, *Teres* round, ſmooth). This muſcle which is longer and thicker than he teres minor, is ſituated along the nferior coſta of the ſcapula, and is in art covered by the deltoides.

It ariſes fleſhy from the outer ſurface of the inferior angle of the capula, (where it covers ſome part of the infra-ſpinatus and teres minor, with both which its fibres intermix), and likewiſe from the lower and poſterior half of the inferior coſta of the ſcapula. Aſcending obliquely towards the os humeri, it paſſes under the long head of the triceps brachii, and then becomes thinner and flatter to form a thin tendon of about an inch in breadth, and ſomewhat more in length, which runs immediately behind that of the latiſſimus dorſi, and is inſerted along with it into the ridge at the inner ſide of the groove that lodges the long head of the biceps. Theſe two tendons are included in a common capſula, beſides which the tendon of this muſcle adheres to the os humeri, by two other capſulæ which we find placed one above the other.

This muſcle aſſiſts in the rotatory motion of the arm, and likewiſe in drawing it downwards and backwards; ſo that we may conſider it as the congener of the latiſſimus dorſi.

TERĒS MINOR. This muſcle ſeems to have been firſt deſcribed by Fallopius. Riolanus, who was the firſt that diſtinguiſhed this and the other muſcles of the ſcapula by particular appellations, gave the name of *teres* to this and the following muſcle, on account of their long and round ſhape. The teres minor is a thin fleſhy muſcle, ſituated along the inferior edge of the infra-ſpinatus, and is in part covered by the poſterior part of the deltoides.

It ariſes fleſhy from all the convex edge of the inferior coſta of the ſcapula; from thence it aſcends obliquely upwards and forwards, and terminates in a flat tendon, which adheres to the lower and poſterior part of the capſular ligament of the joint, and is inſerted into the lower part of the great tuberoſity of the os humeri, a little below the termination of the infra-ſpinatus.

The tendinous membrane, which,

is continued from the infra-ſpinatus, and ſpread over the teres minor, likewiſe forms a thin ſeptum between the two muſcles In ſome ſubjects, however, they are ſo cloſely united, as to be with difficulty ſeparated from each other. Some of the fibres of the teres minor are intermixed with thoſe of the teres major and ſubſcapularis.

The uſes of this muſcle are ſimilar to thoſe of the infra-ſpinatus.

TERMINTHUS, (*Terminthus, i*, m. from τερμινθος, the turpentine tree). Black and ardent puſtules, moſtly attacking the legs of females; ſo called from their reſemblance to the fruit of the turpentine tree.

TERRA CATĔCHU. See *Catechu.*

TERRA FOLĬATA TARTĂRI. See *Kali acetatum.*

TERRA JAPONĬCA. The inſpiſſated juice of a ſpecies of *mimoſa*, which grows in great abundance in the kingdom of Bahar. It is prepared from a decoction of the inner part of the wood. From the negligent method in which it is dried in little kilns dug for that purpoſe, it acquires the earthy appearance it in general has, from which circumſtance it takes its name. In the kingdom of Bahar, beſides being much uſed in medicine, it is employed for many purpoſes in arts, particularly for painting the beams of houſes to defend them from vermin. See *Catechu.*

TERRA MERĬTA. The turmeric root is ſometimes ſo called. See *Curcuma.*

TERRA PONDERŌSA SALĪTA. See *Murias barytæ.*

TERRA SIGILLĀTA. See *Bole.*

TERRÆ OLĔUM. See *Petroleum.*

TERTIAN AGUE. See *Febris intermittens.*

TERTIANARĬA, (*Tertianaria, æ*, f. from *tertiana*, a ſpecies of intermittent fever which is ſaid to be cured by this plant). The plant which is thus called in ſome pharmacopœas is the *ſcutellaria galericulata foliis cordato-lanceolatis, crenatis; floribus axillaribus* of Linnæus, which is common in the hedges and ditches of this country. It has a bitter taſte and a garlic ſmell, and is ſaid to be ſerviceable againſt that ſpecies of ague which attacks the patient every third day.

TESTES CERĔBRI. See *Tubercula quadrigemina.*

TESTICLE, (*Teſtis*,). Two ſmall oval bodies ſituated within the ſcrotum, and covered by a ſtrong, white and denſe coat, called tunica albuginea teſtis. Each teſticle is compoſed of ſmall veſſels, bent in a ſerpentine direction, ariſing from the ſpermatic artery, and convoluted into little heaps, ſeparated from one another by cellular partitions. In each partition there is a duct receiving ſemen from the ſmall veſſels; and all the ducts conſtitute a net which is attached to the tunica albuginea. From this net-work twenty or more veſſels ariſe, all of which are variouſly contorted, and, being reflected, aſcend to the poſterior margin of the teſtis, where they unite into one common duct, bent into ſerpentine windings, and forming a hard body called the *epididymis.* The ſpermatic arteries are branches of the aorta. The ſpermatic veins empty themſelves into the vena cava and emulgent vein. The nerves of the teſticle are branches of the lumbar and great intercoſtal nerve. The uſe of the teſticle is to ſecrete the ſemen.

TESTICLE SWELLED. See *Orchitis.*

TESTICŬLUS, (*Teſticulus*, dim. of *teſtis*). A ſmall teſticle.

TESTICŬLUS CANĪNUS. See *Satyrion.*

TESTIS, (*Teſtis, is*, c. g. a witneſs, the teſtes being the witneſſes of our manhood). Two prominences of the brain are called teſtes from

their ſuppoſed reſemblance. See *Teſticle.*

TETĂNUS, (*Tetanus, i,* m. τετανος; from τεινω, to ſtretch). Spaſm with rigidity. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *neuroſes* and order *ſpaſmi* of Cullen; characterized by a ſpaſmodic rigidity of almoſt the whole body. The varieties of tetanus are: 1. *Opiſthotonos*, where the body is thrown back by ſpaſmodic contractions of the muſcles: 2. *Emproſthotonos*, the body being bent forwards: 3. *Triſmus*, the locked jaw. Tetanus is often ſymptomatic of ſyphilis and worms.

TETTERS. See *Herpes.*

TEUCRĬUM, (*Teucrium, i,* n. τευκριον, from *Teucer* who invented it). The herb ſpeedwell.

TEUCRĬUM CAPITĀTUM. The ſyſtematic name of the poley mountain of Montpelier. See *Polium montanum.*

TEUCRĬUM CHAMÆDRYS. The ſyſtematic name of the common germander. See *Chamædrys.*

TEUCRĬUM CHAMÆPITYS. The ſyſtematic name of the ground pine. See *Chamæpitys.*

TEUCRĬUM CRETĬCUM. The ſyſtematic name of the poley mountain of Candy. See *Polium creticum.*

TEUCRĬUM MARUM. The ſyſtematic name of the Syrian herb maſtich. See *Marum ſyriacum.*

TEUCRĬUM MONTĀNUM. The ſyſtematic name of the common poley mountain. See *Polium montanum.*

TEUCRĬUM POLĬUM. The ſyſtematic name of the golden poley mountain. See *Polium montanum.*

TEUCRĬUM SCORDĬUM. The ſyſtematic name of the water germander. See *Scordium.*

THALĂMI NERVŌRUM OPTICŌRUM, (θαλαμος, a bed). Two bodies, which form in part the optic nerve, placed near to each other, in appearance white, protruding at the baſe of the lateral ventricles, and running in their direction inwards, a little downwards, and upwards.

THALICTRUM, (*Thalictrum, i,* n. θαλικτρον, from θαλλω, to flouriſh). *Rhabarbarum pauperum.* The root of this plant, *Thalictrum flavium* of Linnæus, is ſaid to be aperient and ſtomachic, and to come very near in its virtues to rhubarb. It is a common plant in this country, but ſeldom uſed medicinally.

THALICTRUM FLAVUM. The ſyſtematic name of the poor man's rhubarb. See *Thalictrum.*

THĔA GERMANĬCA. See *Veronica.*

THECA VERTEBRĀLIS, (*Theca, æ,* f. θηκη, from τιθημι; to place). The vertebral canal.

THENAR, (*Thenar,* ſc. *muſculus*). See *Flexor brevis pollicis manus.*

THEOBRŌMA CACAO. The ſyſtematic name of the tree which affords cocoa and chocolate. See *Cacoa nut.*

THERAPEUTICS, (*Therapeutica,* from θεραπευω, to cure). *Therapia. Methodis medendi.* Therapeutics, or the methodus medendi, may be defined, to be that branch of medicine which treats of the operation of the different means employed for obviating diſeaſes, and of the application of theſe means. Taken in this ſenſe, it may be conſidered as delivering the general doctrines of cure, or firſt principles of practice. It is indeed intimately connected with the practice of medicine ſtrictly ſo called, and with the materia medica. But it differs from the former, in as far as its object is not the treatment of particular diſeaſes; and from the latter, as it does not comprehend the natural or medical hiſtory of particular ſubſtances.

Having thus defined this branch of medicine, it is unneceſſary to obſerve, that it muſt be conſidered as of the higheſt importance. A know-

ledge of the operation of medicines is as it were, the intermediate link between theoretical reaſonings and practical concluſions. By this alone a connection can be traced between the facts of the empyric, and the rules of the dogmatiſt. Upon this all rational practice muſt be founded. While, therefore, the methodus medendi is of great utility in the exerciſe of the profeſſion, it cannot, at the ſame time, fail to afford high entertainment to the philoſophic inquirer.

From theſe inducements to the ſtudy of this ſubject, it might naturally be imagined, that it would have been as much improved as any other branch of medicine. Notwithſtanding its importance, however, it may be affirmed, that it has hitherto been much neglected, and ſtill remains involved in great obſcurity and error. This aſſertion may ſeem extraordinary, as being in ſome degree in contradiction to the common courſe of nature. In order to its being admitted, therefore, it may be neceſſary to offer ſome proof of its being well founded, and to endeavour to point out the cauſes from which it has ariſen.

The imperfection of therapeutics is ſufficiently evident from the diverſity of opinions which are entertained with regard to the operation of almoſt every medicine. This may, no doubt, in ſome degree, be aſcribed to the difficulty of the ſubject. But it is alſo probable, that it is in a great meaſure owing to its not being ſufficiently cultivated. It cannot, indeed, be alledged, that the conſideration of this branch of medicine has been entirely neglected. It has often been a ſubject of inquiry in medical writings, both treated of ſeparately, and as conjoined with other branches. Notwithſtanding this, however, it will appear, that it ſtill affords a particular opening for farther conſideration. The branches with which it has been conjoined, are, the account of particular diſeaſes, or what are ſtrictly called practical writings, and the account of the properties of different ſubſtances, or the materia medica. Before taking notice of the writings profeſſedly upon this ſubject itſelf, it may be neceſſary, in the firſt place, to conſider how far a knowledge of it may be acquired from either of theſe branches.

In writings on the practice of phyſic, particular diſeaſes are the ſubject of inveſtigation. After the hiſtory and cauſes of a diſeaſe have there been conſidered, the indications are pointed out by which it may be removed. To each indication is ſubjoined an account of the different means by which it may be fulfilled, and of the proper method of applying theſe means. Thus, in dropſy, it is a very general indication of cure to evacuate the water. This evacuation may be produced both by manual operation, and by the uſe of different internal medicines. For this purpoſe emetics, purgatives, diuretics, and other ſimilar evacuants, are every day employed. Hence ſome obſervations upon theſe are inſeparably connected with the account to be given of the diſeaſe. But, in this place, to have attempted the inveſtigation, even of the method in which they produce the evacuation of water, would have been entirely foreign to the ſubject. Much leſs would it have been proper here to have introduced any account of the other effects of theſe remedies. Thus, it appears, that under the treatment of a particular diſeaſe, a full account of the operation of theſe remedies, by which it may be removed, is not to be expected. The effects which medicines have upon the ſyſtem, and means by which they produce theſe effects, are, by writers on the practice of phyſic, univerſally ſuppoſed previouſly known

and ſtudied. When, therefore, as a neceſſary preliminary to the proper and ſafe uſe of any mode of cure, we are deſirous of being fully acquainted with its effects upon the ſyſtem, and with the manner in which it produces theſe; it is evident that ſome farther knowledge of this ſubject is neceſſary, than can be derived from writings ſtrictly practical.

Another branch of medicine with which theraupeutics are intimately conjoined, is the Materia Medica. It may be imagined that the partial view of the ſubject to be obtained from practical authors will be fully ſupplied by the writings on this branch. Theſe, however, are not more than the former, fitted for affording a complete knowledge of the methodus medendi. To illuſtrate this, it will only be neceſſary to ſurvey the preſent ſtate of the Materia Medica.

Were a judgment to be formed of the proficiency made in this ſubject, from the number of writings which every age has produced concerning it, the concluſion would be, that it had arrived at very great perfection. Could reliance be placed upon the accounts given by almoſt every author who has treated of any particular medicine, this concluſion would be ſtill farther confirmed. But, on the contrary, if any one, in the leaſt converſant in practice, would form an opinion of this matter from what daily obſervation muſt teach him, he would not heſitate to affirm, that the dependence which can be had upon theſe acounts is but ſlight. Many properties have been aſcribed to almoſt every article of the Materia Medica, from inattention, credulity, or cunning; when, in reality, there was no foundation for ſuch ſuppoſed virtues. See *Materia Medica*.

Beſides theſe, there are other ſources of error on this ſubject, which, although they cannot be detected with equal eaſe, are, however, not leſs apt to miſguide. Among theſe, concluſions improperly deduced from obſervation, even well founded, may be juſtly enumerated, and are, perhaps, not the leaſt conſiderable. When there occurs any undoubted example of the efficacy of any remedy in a particular caſe, it is but natural to ſuppoſe that it will have an effect equally advantageous in others apparently ſimilar. But, from the variety in conſtitutions, and the material difference in caſes ſeemingly the ſame, it is by no means ſurpriſing that general concluſions deduced from particular obſervations ſhould, in many caſes, be found repugnant to truth. Hence it is that, even by the moſt accurate writers on this ſubject, every remedy has been celebrated for properties much more conſiderable than it really poſſeſſes. Thus, to uſe the language of a celebrated author, the Materia Medica, like the Augean ſtable, could not be cleared from its preſent errors without the labours of a ſecond Hercules. If this be the caſe, it may be conſidered as, at leaſt, one objection againſt an entire reliance on the authors on this ſubject, for an accurate knowledge of therapeutics.

But, another and more valid objection may be drawn from the method in which this ſubject has, in general, been conſidered. The various articles are here, for the moſt part treated of in an alphabetic, or ſome other ſimilar artificial order. But, a hiſtory of the Materia Medica, executed upon ſuch plans as theſe, labours under many inconveniences when uſed as the means for obtaining an acquaintance with therapeutics.

Many ſubſtances, employed for the purpoſes of medicine produce upon the body effects very much ſimilar. Hence they have been formed into aſſemblages, and denominat-

ed by general terms, from their mode of action on the body. Examples of such assemblages occur in the classes of emetics, cathartics, and many others of a like nature. From this similarity in effects, it may reasonably be concluded, that the different remedies comprehended under these associations should be fitted to remove the same morbid conditions in the body. But, although any particular indication may be answered by the use of several remedies, it is not from thence to be imagined, that equal benefit will be obtained from the promiscuous employment of any one of them, as tending to produce a radical cure. On the contrary, it will very universally hold, that particular advantage may be derived from a judicious choice. The circumstances, however, from which alone any judgment can be formed concerning the causes of preference, are only to be learned from a comparison instituted betwixt the articles thus possessed of the same general mode of operation. But it is difficult to do this, when these articles, though naturally conjoined, are, from an artificial arrangement, separated in such a manner, that, between them, attention must be paid to a variety of substances fitted for very different purposes. The difficulty, then, with which the general doctrines of cure can be learned from the history of particular articles, given by writers on the Materia Medica, when these articles are arranged in any artificial order, is too obvious to require any additional proof.

But, besides these objections against histories of the Materia Medica, as a foundation for studying the general doctrines of cure, it may be farther alledged, that, in this respect, they are highly deficient. Many medicines, as has already been observed, operate upon the same general principles. Hence many observations, applicable to one of them, may, with equal propriety, be made concerning others. Thus a proper view of the general principles of operation which apply to a whole class of medicines will entirely supersede the necessity of repetitions under every particular article. On this account, writers on the Materia Medica esteem it sufficient to inform their readers of the qualities of any particular substance, whether it be emetic, purgative, diaphoretic, or the like; and of the degree in which possesses these qualities. But, to have endeavoured, under each article, to point out in what manner vomiting, purging, or sweating, are produced, would have been an attempt highly absurd. Hence they have altogether waved such general inquiries.

It must, however be allowed, that although the consideration of these operations on the system could not, with propriety, enter into the history of the particular articles; yet many writers on the Materia Medica have supplied this deficiency, by previously delivering an account of these general doctrines. But, what they have said in this way, may be esteemed professedly therapeutical, and in this view, will afterwards come under consideration. This, therefore, cannot be employed as an argument to invalidate what was formerly advanced to prove the insufficiency of the writings on the Materia Medica as a means of studying the general doctrines of cure.

Thus, it appears that many objections may be adduced against the writings on the Materia Medica as a means of acquiring the necessary knowledge of theraupeutics. Of these writings, in general, it may be observed, that, as abounding with errors, as separating the consideration of medicines by nature connected, and as not attempting to explain the general principles of ope

ration, they must be altogether insufficient for this purpose. Hence it appears, that a proper acquaintance with the methodus medendi is not to be acquired from even the most complete consideration of those branches of medicine with which it is most immediately conjoined.

After those observations on the branches of medicine in which therapeutics have been treated of in a secondary way, it now only remains to consider the writings professedly upon this subject. From these a proper knowledge of it may most reasonably be expected. In their present state, however, they seem to be as inadequate for this purpose as those already mentioned.

The number of authors who have ed of this branch of medicine cannot indeed, be said to be inconsiderable. At the same time, when the writings on this subject are compared with those on the other branches of medicine, their number will scarce seem proportioned to its utility. It is indeed true, that few authors on the general subject of institutions have left this branch entirely untouched. When, however, in their writings it obtains a separate consideration, it is, for the most part, put posterior to the extended and intricate subjects of physiology and pathology. From this circumstance, it is usually passed over with less attention than its importance merits.

Many of the first writings on this subject, although not exceptionable upon account of their brevity, are, however, liable to objection on another account. Those which were prior to the discovery of the circulation, and of the general laws of the nervous system, from which the operation of medicines must, in a great measure be accounted for, can be consulted with but little advantage. It is now necessary to reject opinions which, from the ignorance or mistaken notions of those who proposed them, with regard to the leading principles in the œconomy, will without a very minute examination, appear ill founded. What is to be expected, therefore, from writings on this subject, must be derived from those of a modern date.

It cannot indeed be affirmed, that the methodus medendi has, of late, been entirely neglected. But, the most esteemed authors on this subject who have written since the laws of the system were better known, have either belonged to the Stahlian sect, or have implicitly adopted the mechanical philosophy. To enter into any particular detail of what may be esteemed exceptionable in their doctrines would be entirely foreign to our present purpose. It may, however, without hesitation, be affirmed, that the opinions of neither are, by any means to be universally admitted. Upon the justice, however, of their particular theories, the truth of what they have delivered concerning the operation of medicines, must totally depend. Hence their writings will, in many particulars, be disregarded by all who are not implicit followers of their tenets. Thus the modern writings upon this subject are, in many respects, not less exceptionable than those of a more ancient date. From all that has been said then, it appears that what has expressly been written upon the subject of therapeutics, must be considered as an insufficient foundation for obtaining such a knowledge of this branch of medicine as is necessary for the cure of diseases, when meant to be followed out upon consistent or rational principles.

If what has been advanced, then, be well founded, it follows, that the writings professedly therapeutical are to be esteemed imperfect and defective. And, it may farther be concluded, that these deficiences and im-

perfections can neither be ſupplied by the writings on the Materia Medica, nor on the practice of medicine; the only ſources from which it could be expected. There will remain then little difficulty in aſſenting to the propoſition formerly laid down, that this branch of medicine, notwithſtanding its utility and intimate connection with the grand purpoſe of the healing art, is ſtill involved in great obſcurity and error. Hence the imperfect ſtate of this ſubject, as well as its importance, may be conſidered as powerful inducements to attempts towards farther improvement.

The practice of all ages has afforded numberleſs obſervations concerning the effects reſulting from almoſt every article employed in the cure of diſeaſes. Many experiments have been made with a view of aſcertaining the properties of particular medicines. From theſe ſources, it may readily be imagined ſufficient data are afforded for carrying the theory of the action of remedies to as great a degree of perfection as any other branch of the medical art. For improvement on this ſubject, therefore, what is principally required, is not ſo much the addition of new facts, as a judicious ſelection of ſuch as will admit of undeniable proof, and a proper application of them to the formation of general rules. Hence the firſt ſtep to improvement will conſiſt in the formation of a proper plan for generalizing facts.

In attempts for this purpoſe, authors have, for the moſt part, aimed at general ſyſtematic arrangement. With this intention, the ſubject is uſually introduced with a clavis claſſium, exhibiting a general view of the whole. When ſuch views can be obtained in perfection in any branch of ſcience, they are unqueſtionably of very great utility. Even in their moſt imperfect ſtate, they are never without ſome advantages. In this condition, they will often ſerve to give a more clear and connected view of the ſubject than could otherwiſe be obtained. But it muſt at the ſame time, be obſerved, that every ſyſtematic arrangement, in any degree imperfect, is attended likewiſe with diſadvantages. Hence, before it can with propriety be admitted, while in this condition, it is neceſſary to conſider which of theſe preponderate. And if, from examination, it be found, that the diſadvantages are ſuperior, it muſt certainly be conſidered as inadmiſſible. This indeed cannot be deemed any ſufficient reaſon for diſcontinuing attempts to improvement; but it will afford a concluſive argument againſt adopting any ſcheme in ſuch a ſtate of imperfection, as to give erroneous ideas of the ſubject which it is intended to illuſtrate.

This aſſertion, with regard to methodic arrangement in general, will not be queſtioned If then it ſhall appear, that even the beſt general views hitherto given of this branch, are in ſuch a ſtate of imperfection; the concluſion againſt adopting them will be ſufficiently obvious. To determine this, therefore, it becomes neceſſary to examine to what concluſions the beſt arrangements on the methodus medendi naturally lead. It may perhaps ſeem extraordinary to affirm, that the moſt accurate views hitherto given of this ſubject, are not only inadequate for the purpoſe propoſed by them, but tend alſo to give an erroneous idea of the operation of medicines. Upon attentive examination, however, it will appear that this aſſertion is by no means without foundation,

General ſyſtematic arrangement ſuppoſes that the ſubject to be treated of can be fully comprehended under a few ſeparate and diſtinct heads. Theſe are to be branched out by ſub-

diviſions till they arrive at individuals. In forming theſe ſubdiviſions, it is neceſſary that every inferior aſſociation ſhould be a proper conſtituent part of the more general head to which it belongs. It muſt, at the ſame time, remain ſeparate and diſtinct from every diviſion on a level with it, and from every ſuperior diviſion from which it is not directly deduced. While this preciſion can be obtained, the end propoſed by methodic arrangement will be fully anſwered. But when articles, which ſhould be ſeparate and diſtinct, come to be confuſed and blended with each other, the intention of ſyſtem is entirely fruſtrated. Theſe obſervations are ſufficiently illuſtrated and confirmed from the uſe which has been made of ſyſtematic arrangement by botanical writers.

If accurate and preciſe diſtinctions between different members of a diviſion be neceſſary for obtaining the advantages of general ſyſtem, little benefit can be expected from it in the methodus medendi. The nature of this ſubject will by no means admit of diviſion with theſe conditions. This will appear ſufficiently evident from the examination of any ſyſtematic arrangement hitherto attempted.

In the leaſt exceptionable arrangements the general diviſion commonly inſtituted is, that medicines act either upon the ſolids, or upon the fluids. It is indeed true, that every medicine may be reduced to one or other of theſe heads. But where there ſubſiſts a connexion ſo intimate as that betwixt the ſolids and fluids of the human body, it is almoſt impoſſible to conceive that the ſmalleſt change can be produced upon the one which will not, in ſome degree, affect the other alſo. If this be the caſe, every medicine may, with propriety, be referred to both heads. Thus, the beſt grounds for diſtinction of which the nature of the ſubject will admit, even in the firſt ſteps toward method, muſt be entirely reſted upon the vague and uncertain footing of a ſuperor degree of action. This however can never be granted to be a ſolid foundation for preciſe diviſion.

From what has been ſaid, then, it appears, that the nature of the methodus medendi does not admit of any certain characteriſtics by which particulars comprehended under one branch, may be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe referred to another. It muſt be allowed that arrangement, without theſe, in any branch of ſcience, if not apt to miſlead and retard its progreſs to a more perfect ſtate, has at leaſt, no tendency to forward its improvement. But it appears that even the foundation of methodic arrangement on the ſubject of therapeutics, is liable to objection. Although, therefore, it ſhould be alledged that a ſyſtematic view of the ſubject, thus defective, will be attended with no bad effects; yet it may with confidence be affirmed, that it can be productive of no advantage.

But the mere want of utility is not the only objection which may be urged againſt a ſyſtematic view of this ſubject when proſecuted to inferior diviſions. Were any reliance to be put upon this arrangement when carried down into the claſſes into which medicines are uſually divided, in place of being attended with any good effect, it would be apt to miſlead in enquiry, and to miſguide in practice. This may be proved by conſidering the concluſions which would be formed concerning any claſs of medicines, even from the beſt ſyſtematic arrangements yet extant. A ſtriking example occurs in the claſs of epiſpaſtics. Theſe remedies, in the firſt place, have been referred to the general diviſion of medicines acting upon the fluids, in oppoſition to

thoſe acting upon the ſolids. They have next been limited to the tribe of evacuantia in oppoſition to the alterantia. And, laſtly, they are referred to the ſubdiviſion of medicines evacuating ſerum, in oppoſition to thoſe evacuating ſaliva, urine, perſpiable matter, or other ſecreted fluids. From this method, then of arranging epiſpaſtics, we would undoubtedly be led to conclude, that they are a ſet of remedies which affect the body only; that there they act upon the fluids alone: that the ſole change they produce upon theſe is a diminution of their quanity, and that this diminution proceeds entirely from a diſcharge of ſeroſity. Even the ſlighteſt obſervation, however, will be ſufficient to convince us, that the greateſt part, if not the whole, of theſe concluſions are entirely without foundation.

The action of bliſters, from this view of the matter, is merely corporeal. But daily experience affords ſufficient proof that they act upon the mind as well as upon the body. The power which they poſſeſs of exciting pain, is neither leſs certain, nor perhaps leſs uſeful, as the means of obviating morbid affections of the ſyſtem, than that of evacuating ſerum. With an intention to excite pain, they are frequently indicated, and often employed.

Beſides this, the changes which bliſters produce upon the body are by no means confined to the fluids alone. The ſolids of the body, from their action, are manifeſtly and variouſly affected. Even the evacuation of fluids which they occaſion, can be conſidered as nothing elſe but the conſequence of an increaſed action in the ſolids. Every ſenſation has ſome effect upon the ſolids. This particularly holds with regard to painful ſenſations. It cannot, therefore, be imagined, that one ſo conſiderable as ariſes from the uſe of bliſters will take place without their being remarkably affected. Whether, then, a judgment be formed from the nature of bliſters, or from their effects, it muſt appear an undeniable fact, that they act upon the ſolids of the body, as well as upon the fluids.

Farther the change which bliſters produce upon the fluids does not merely conſiſt in a diminution of quantity. They may, with great juſtice, be reckoned to alter the ſtate of the fluids, as well as to evacuate. They do not diſcharge a portion of fluids from the body in that ſtate in which they circulate in the larger veſſels. The abſtraction, which here occurs from the general maſs, conſiſts entirely of a particular part of the fluids. It is, however, an eſtabliſhed fact, that if, from any heterogeneous fluid, there happens a diminution of one component part only, the nature of the remaining maſs muſt be changed. Hence, they are improperly ſet in oppoſition to thoſe medicines termed the alterantia.

Laſtly, viewed as evacuants, they can by no means be conſidered as a ſet of medicines merely diſcharging ſerum. In many caſes, the diſcharge produced by epiſpaſtics, eſpecially if kept up for any conſiderable time, becomes manifeſtly purulent. There can be no queſtion that, when this is the caſe, ſomething more than ſeroſity is diſcharged by them. There is a preſumption that it is not ſerum only which is evacuated, even when the diſcharge is, to appearance, moſt ſerous. It is a difficult matter to deprive the ſeroſity of every mixture of the ſaline parts, and of the coagulable lymph; and, in the ordinary caſes of bliſters; that the ſerum diſcharged, contains a proportion of theſe, is not to be doubted.

Thus, it appears, even from the moſt ſuperficial view of the nature of bliſters, that their action is much extended over the whole ſyſtem. Their employment in diſeaſes, there-

ore, from a perſuaſion that they act nerely as evacuants of ſerum, would e a practice, not only unſucceſsful, ut raſh, and perhaps even dan-erous.

Hence the conſequences which eſult from ſyſtematic arrangement n a ſtate of ſuch imperfection, when pplied to the methodus medendi, re ſufficiently manifeſt. The opi-ion which would be formed of liſters, or indeed of any other laſs of medicines, from concluſions educed from thence, would be er-oneous in almoſt every particular.

If an erroneous idea only can be btained from methodic arrangement hen applied to the inveſtigation of ne nature of medicines, it is need-ſs to obſerve, that reliance upon could ſerve no other purpoſe but o miſguide in practice. Methodic rrangement indeed, upon the ſup-oſition that the nature of this ſub-ct would admit of a ſyſtem leſs ex-ptionable, might be of the great-t utility in giving a clear and con-ected view of the means of cure in eneral. But, in the preſent ſituа-on, it is evident that no general ſtem could be followed which would e uſeful, or even not prejudicial. Vithout attempting the difficult ork of correction, it may be pro-r to conſider how far this ſubject ay with advantage be treated on a fferent footing.

It has already been obſerved, that any remedies have in their nature, great deal in common with each her. Theſe, although their ef-cts be not in every particular the me, operate very much upon the me general principles. Hence they e, in a great meaſure, fitted for e ſame general intentions of cure. he different individuals, thus agree-g in their nature, and on that ac-unt aſſembled into a claſs, may be nſidered with greater advantages ken together, than disjoined. By this means, the labour which would otherwiſe attend the inveſtigation of the properties of remedies will be greatly ſhortned; and repetitions, which, were every article to be con-ſidered ſeparately, would be almoſt endleſs, will be in a great meaſure avoided. It will naturally occur then, as a firſt requiſite in treating this ſubject, that the different arti-cles be diſtributed into proper aſſo-ciations.

But while, on the one hand, it would be tedious and improper to treat of the operation of every mode of cure by itſelf; ſo, on the other, there would be an equal error in the formation of very general or exten-ſive claſſes. By this means, indeed, the labour of enquiry might be greatly ſhortned: but the general doctrines which ſhould be delivered concerning an extenſive claſs of me-dicines would be by no means appli-cable to all the individuals compre-hended under it, Hence the diſtri-bution of the different articles into ſuch general aſſociations is liable to objection, as being an imperfect method of explaining the action of particular remedies.

Objections indeed alſo occur to a diſtribution into very limited aſſocia-tions. To theſe it may be objected, that, in this manner, no proper dif-tribution can be obtained. When, for example, emetics, cathartics, dia-phoretics, or ſuch ſimilar claſſes, are taken as the higheſt aſſociations, it may be alledged that there are many individuals which, with equal pro-priety, fall under ſeveral of theſe claſſes. From this circumſtance, a degree of confuſion will not only ariſe, but the opinion delivered of the operation of theſe articles will, in the firſt inſtance, at leaſt, be defec-tive and imperfect.

To this, however, it may be an-ſwered, that, although there may be individuals, with propriety, referable

to ſeveral claſſes, yet the powers which they poſſeſs, as operating in one particular way, are ſo very conſiderable, as greatly to outweigh their other properties. Where this is not the caſe, the difference of effects reſulting from them, in conſequence of which they have a title to be referred to more than one claſs, is produced, either from the quantity employed, the mode of adminiſtration, particular management, or ſome other evident cauſe. But, where a diverſity of effects reſults from ſuch cauſes as theſe, the remedies uſed may, in fact, be conſidered as different. In this point of view, there can be no impropriety in their being referred to more than one claſs.

Inſtances of individuals belonging to a plurality of claſſes, where the ſeeming inconvenience thence reſulting cannot be obviated in one or other of theſe ways, are but few. When they do occur, the difficulties thence ariſing are but of ſmall account, if compared to what would have been the conſequence of more general aſſociations. In the formation of aſſociations then ſuch medicines only are to be reduced to the ſame claſs, as anſwer to a preciſe and limited definition, as operate upon the ſame general principles, and as are fitted for the ſame general purpoſes, in the cure of diſeaſes. Claſſes formed with theſe conditions will indeed be limited in their nature. But, it muſt be remembered, that when medicines are applied to uſe, if they be employed with any rational intention at all, they are given with a view of operating as belonging to claſſes not more general. Thus, in every day's practice, nothing is more common than to aim at fulfilling particular indications by emetics, cathartics, or ſimilar claſſes.

Many are the particular articles employed as remedies. From reflecting upon the number of them, it may be imagined, that aſſociation formed with the conditions above mentioned, would be both numerous and unequal. They will be numerous, becauſe, from the great diverſity of individuals, there muſt be conſiderable varieties in the general mode of operation. They will be unequal, becauſe, on the one hand many individuals are often poſſeſſed of the ſame common properties; and on the other, a few not unfrequently operate in a manner peculiar to themſelves. But from the latter of theſe circumſtances no inconvenience will reſult; and, without the former truth cannot be inveſtigated. An objection, therefore, which can be adduced from theſe ſources, againſt a diviſion into limited claſſes, may be very inconſiderable; and, even in this ſtate, it may be conſidered as unavoidably connected with the nature of the ſubject.

Beſides the objections already adduced againſt the general plan now propoſed, another ſtill remains to be obviated. This ſyſtem is perhaps leſs exceptionable from the number and inequality of claſſes which will fall to be conſidered, than from the difficulty which will attend the formation of proper aſſociations. From the want of a proper knowledge of individuals, the aſſociations which can be formed, will, in many inſtances, be deficient, wanting articles, which with propriety ſhould be referred to them. In others, there will be redundant, comprehending individuals which do not properly belong to them. But the inconveniencies reſulting from thence are common to this ſpecies of arrangement with every other. They cannot therefore be conſidered as an objection againſt it in particular. Difficulties and imperfections will attend arrangement in every branch of ſcience. It would therefore be ridiculous to imagine that they ſhould

be wanting in this more than in others.

From what has been ſaid it appears that the beſt method of conſidering this ſubject is, by reducing the different articles employed as remedies into preciſe and limited aſſociations. Theſe aſſociations are to be formed from a general ſameneſs in properties. They may be conſidered as in ſome degree analogous to the natural orders in botany, as being founded more upon the general character, than upon any ſtriking or artificial mark. By a proper conſideration of the independent aſſociations thus formed, treating of each ſeparately, and as unconnected with every other, the inconveniencies, on the one hand, reſulting from a particulaar inveſtigation of the properties of every article by itſelf, and, on the other, from general ſyſtematic arrangement, will be equally avoided. This method will neither tend to convey any erroneous idea of the operation of medicines, as occurs from the latter, nor will it lead to prolixity and repetition, by diſjoining the conſideration of articles naturally connected, as is the conſequence of the former. Although, therefore, it cannot be ſuppoſed to be entirely free from objections; yet it appears to be the mode of arrangement beſt fitted for delivering the general doctrines applicable to the different remedies employed in the cure of diſeaſes.

The great improvers in medicine, as well as in the other branches of ſcience, ſeem univerſally to have been deſirous of aſſociating together things which, in their nature, appear to have an obvious connexion. No branch of ſcience affords a more manifeſt foundation for aſſociations than that which treats of the different articles employed for the cure of diſeaſes. To this probably it is owing, that a diſtribution of medicines into claſſes is at leaſt as ancient as the firſt medical writings now extant, perhaps as the art of medicine itſelf. From the prevailing paſſion for novelty, as well as from attempts to improvement, it may readily be imagined that, during a period ſo extenſive as that in which medicine has been practiſed, many different diſtributions would be formed, and, of courſe, a variety of general terms introduced for expreſſing theſe. The aſſociations thus formed have very univerſally been attempts towards natural orders. They are, therefore, an obvious foundation from whence may be ſelected thoſe claſſes under which it has been alledged the conſideration of therapeutics may be conducted with greateſt advantage.

It has already been obſerved, that the aſſociations formed by different writers, and the terms uſed to expreſs them, are numerous. Many of theſe diviſions are intended merely as improvements upon former ones. All the claſſes, therefore, which have been introduced by different authors, are by no means to be promiſcuouſly adopted. It would, however, be no leſs tedious than diſagreeable, to aſſign particular objections againſt every aſſociation not afterwards to be admitted. But it is not from thence to be imagined, that there are no reaſons directing to a proper choice. It will by no means be ſufficient, out of the numerous aſſociations which have been formed, to adopt a few at random. To point out the foundation upon which a choice has here been made, it may be neceſſary briefly to mention what is principally required in the aſſociations, and to aſſign ſuch general reaſons for rejection, as will moſt readily apply to particular caſes. By this means a foundation will be laid for determining with what propriety ſome claſſes are here admitted, and others rejected.

For anſwering the end propoſed by diſtributing the methodus medendi

into independent aſſociations, it is neceſſary that every claſs adopted be a natural one. By this it is to be underſtood that the articles comprehended under it produce the ſame effects, and that their operation is to be accounted for upon the ſame general principles. The moſt eaſy method of obtaining aſſociations with this condition would be by admitting a great number, each comprehending only a few articles. But, by having recourſe to this expedient, if carried to any great extent, the intention of forming aſſociations would be entirely fruſtrated. Hence it becomes a ſecond requiſite, that every aſſociation ſhould be as general as is compatible with its being natural. For this purpoſe, it is particularly neceſſary to avoid the ſubſtitution of what ſhould only be eſteemed proper ſubdiviſions of claſſes for claſſes themſelves. Under a few claſſes, with theſe conditions, many individuals will be comprehended. But, that a complete view may, in this manner, be had of the ſubject, a third condition is requiſite. It is neceſſary that all the claſſes taken together, ſhould comprehend every individual, with propriety, referable to the methodus medendi.

From the different requiſites mentioned above, the foundation upon which the ſelection of claſſes muſt proceed, is manifeſt. Theſe conditions may be obtained, as far as the nature of the ſubject will admit, from adopting the following twenty-four claſſes:

1. Emetics.
2. Cathartics.
3. Diaphoretics.
4. Epiſpaſtics.
5. Diuretics.
6. Expectorants.
7. Errhines.
8. Sialagogues.
9. Blood-letting.
10. Emmenagogues.
11. Anthelmintics.
12. Lithontriptics.
13. Antacids.
14. Antalkalines.
15. Attenuants.
16. Inſpiſſants.
17. Antiſeptics.
18. Aſtringents.
19. Emollients.
20. Corroſives.
21. Demulcents.
22. Stimulants.
23. Sedatives.
24. Antiſpaſmodics.

That theſe claſſes may fulfil the conditions formerly pointed out, it is neceſſary that they ſhould conſtitute what may be eſteemed natural orders of medicines; and that they ſhould comprehend all the particular remedies employed for the cure of diſeaſes. How far theſe purpoſes will be anſwered by the claſſes here ſelected, can only be determined by conſidering the account given of each: and by comparing a liſt of the means of cure now employed, with the particulars which may be comprehended under them.

After adopting theſe general aſſociations, it naturally follows, that ſome reaſons ſhould be aſſigned why many others have been ſet aſide. Without attempting to deſcend to particulars, the cauſes of rejection may be determined from one or other of the following general objections.

What may be mentioned as the firſt, and will perhaps apply as the moſt extenſive cauſe of rejection, is the impropriety of many aſſemblages. Not a few general terms are employed by medical writers for denominating claſſes of medicines where in reality there is no foundation for aſſociating together the different articles comprehended under them. All theſe claſſes, indeed, have been formed upon a ſuppoſition that the

individuals which they comprehend poſſeſs ſome common property. Frequently, however, the proof of ſuch a property is reſted merely upon ſuppoſition. But ſuppoſition, it will readily be allowed, is by no means a proper baſis for the former aſſociations. There can be no queſtion then with regard to the juſtice of rejecting claſſes of medicines eſtabliſhed upon ſo uncertain a foundation.

But, beſides the claſſes founded upon ſuppoſed effects, there are others alſo, which are exceptionable upon the ſcore of impropriety. Claſſes of of medicines founded upon a ſingle effect, although it may be eſtabliſhed and certain, are equally liable to objection. A ſingle effect may be produced in very different ways, and even upon perfectly oppoſite principles. Upon ſuch a foundation as this, therefore, medicines will often be connected, which in reality ſhould be disjoined. A ſingle effect can by no means be conſidered as a ſufficient baſis for a natural aſſociation, where all the articles muſt operate upon the ſame general principles. Hence, upon the plan now propoſed, claſſes of this nature neceſſarily fall to be rejected.

Another cauſe of rejection ariſes from the extent of claſſes. Many aſſociations, in other reſpects ſufficiently proper, have been ſet aſide, as being more general than the plan here adopted will admit of; others, as being too limited. After what has been ſaid with regard to the requiſites of claſſes, when the methodus medendi is to be conſidered upon the plan here propoſed, any farther illuſtration of theſe grounds of excluſion would be unneceſſary. Of the former, an example occurs in the claſs of medicines termed deobſtruents, and of the latter, in that of carminatives.

The laſt ground of rejection to be mentioned, and one which is ſufficiently obvious, ariſes from the diverſity of terms employed to expreſs aſſociations. Many general terms uſed by different authors are ſet aſide, as being ſynonymous with others here adopted, and in reality already admitted. Examples where this is the caſe will occur from the moſt ſuperficial view of the liſt which has been given. To point out any particular inſtances, therefore, would be altogether unneceſſary. From theſe general reaſons, it will be no difficult matter to determine why the claſſes here employed have been admitted in preference to others.

Having thus attempted to point out the grounds for ſelecting the aſſociations here adopted, it may next be expected that ſome reaſon ſhould be aſſigned for arranging them in the order in which they have been placed. At leaſt, it may occur as a queſtion, whether this order be merely accidental or intentional. From what has already been ſaid with regard to the general plan here propoſed to be followed, it may be concluded that this circumſtance is very immaterial. Each claſs is to be conſidered as independent and ſeparate from every other. The order, therefore, in which they follow each other would ſcarce ſeem to merit attention. Notwithſtanding this, however, there are reaſons why one order is in ſome degree preferable to another.

From the objections which were formerly adduced againſt general ſyſtematic arrangement, it appeared that, in its preſent ſtate, it could not be admitted in this ſubject without manifeſt prejudice. But, it muſt be allowed, that the ſame advantages may, in ſome meaſure, be obtained from conſidering, immediately after each other, claſſes in their nature ſomewhat ſimilar, as from ſubjoining to each other, the account of particular articles belonging to the ſame claſs.

Beſides this, one order is better

fitted to facilitate the explanation of claſſes than another. In the animal machine, indeed, there ſubſiſts what may be ſtiled a circle of cauſes. Yet, the conſideration of ſome claſſes will readily afford data upon which ſubſequent ones may be explained. The reaſons, therefore, why one order in placing the claſſes is preferable to another, are ſufficiently manifeſt. The primary effects of medicines, as directly exerted upon the ſolids, the fluids, or the ſentient nerves, are the general principles which, although not ſtrictly or implicitly followed, have chiefly regulated the formation of the liſt here given.

THERIĂCA, (*Theriaca, æ*; *Theriace, es*, f. θηριακα; from θηρ, a viper, or venomous wild beaſt). Treacle, melaſſes alſo a medicine appropriated to the cure of the bites of venomous animals, or to reſiſt poiſons.

THERIĂCA RUSTICŌRUM. The roots of the common garlic were ſo called. See *Allium*.

THERMÆ, (*Thermæ, arum*, f. pl.). Warm baths or ſprings. See *Medcinal waters*.

THIRST, (*Sitis*). The ſenſation by which we experience a deſire to drink. The ſeat of this ſenſation appears to be either in the fauces or the ſtomach.

THISTLE, CARLINE. See *Chameleon album*.

THISTLE, HOLY. See *Carduus benedictus*.

THISTLE, PINE. See *Carlina gummifera*.

THLASPI, (*Thlaſpi*, n. ind. θλασπι; from θλαω, to break, becauſe its ſeed appears as if it were broken or bruiſed). The herb penny creſs. Two ſpecies of thlaſpi are directed in ſome pharmacopœias for medicinal uſes;—the *Thlaſpi arvenſe* of Linnæus or treacle muſtard, and the *Thlaſpi campeſtre* of Linnæus, or mithridate muſtard. The ſeeds of both have an acrid biting taſte approaching to that of common muſtard, with which they agree nearly in their pharmaceutic qualities. They have alſo an unpleaſant flavour, ſomewhat of the garlic or onion kind.

THLASPI ARVENSE. The ſyſtematic name of the treacle muſtard. See *Thlaſpi*.

THLASPI CAMPESTRE. The ſyſtematic name of the mithridate muſtard. See *Thlaſpi*.

THORACIC DUCT, *Ductus thoracicus, Ductus Pecquettii*. The trunk of the abſorbents; of a ſerpentine form, and about the diameter of a crow-quill. It lies upon the dorſal vertebræ, between the aorta and vena azygos, and extends from the poſterior opening of the diaphragm to the angle formed by the union of the ſubclavian and jugular veins, into which it opens and evacuates its contents. In this courſe the thoracic duct receives the abſorbent veſſels from every part of the body.

THORAX, (*Thorax, ācis*, m. θωραξ, from θωρια, to leap, becauſe in it the heart leaps). The cheſt. That part of the body ſituated between the neck and the abdomen. The external parts of the thorax are, the common integuments, the breaſts, various muſcles, and the bones of the thorax. (See *Bones* and *Reſpiration*). The parts within the cavity of the thorax are, the pleura and its productions, the lungs, heart, thymus gland, œſophagus, thoracic duct, arch of the aorta, part of the vena cava, vena azygos, the eighth pair of nerves, and part of the great intercoſtal nerve.

THORN, ÆGYPTIAN. The *Mimoſa nilotica* of Linnæus, from which we obtain gum arabic. See *Arabic gum*.

THORN APPLE. See *Stramonium*.

THORN, BLACK. See *Prunus ſylveſtris*.

THROMBUS, (*Thrombus, i*, m. θρομβος; from θορεω, to diſturb). A ſmall tumour which ſometimes ariſes after bleeding, from the blood eſcaping from the vein into the cellular ſtructure ſurrounding it.

THURIS CORTEX. The caſcarilla and eleuthera barks, were ſo called. See *Caſcarilla*.

THUS, (*Thus, uris*, n. θυος; from θυω, to ſacrifice). See *Olibanum*.

THUS JUDÆŌRUM. See *Thymiama*.

THUS MASCULUM. See *Olibanum*.

THUYA OCCIDENTĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the tree of life. See *Arbor vitæ*.

THYMBRA, (*Thymbra, æ*, f. θυμβρα; from θυμος, thyme; ſo named becauſe it ſmells like thyme). See *Satureja*.

THYMBRA HISPANĬCA. The name given by Tournefourt to the common herb maſtich. See *Marum vulgare*.

THYME, LEMON. See *Serpyllum citratum*.

THYME, MOTHER OF. See *Serpyllum*.

THYMELŒA, (*Thymelæa, æ*, f. from θυμα an odour becauſe of its ſmell). Spunge flax. Flax-leaved daphne. This plant, *Daphne gnidium*; *panicula terminali foliis linearilanceolatis accuminatis* of Linnæus affords the *garou bark*, which very much reſembles that of our mezereum. Garou bark is to be immerſed in vinegar for about an hour before it is wanted, a ſmall piece, the ſize of a ſixpence thus ſteeped is applied to the arm or any other part, and renewed once a day in winter and twice in ſummer. It produces a ſerous exudation from the ſkin without irritating or bliſtering. It is recommended, and is in frequent uſe in France and Ruſſia againſt ſome diſeaſes of the eyes.

THYMIAMA, (*Thymiama, atis*, n. θυμιαμα; from θυμα, an odour, ſo called from its odoriferous ſmell). Muſkwood. *Thus judæorum*. A bark in ſmall browniſh gray pieces, intermixed with bits of leaves, ſeeming as if the bark and leaves had been bruiſed and preſſed together, brought from Syria, Cicilia, &c. and ſuppoſed to be the produce of the liquid ſtorax tree. This bark has an agreeable balſamic ſmell, approaching to that of liquid ſtorax, and a ſub-acrid bitteriſh taſte accompanied with ſome ſlight adſtringency.

THYMUS, (*Thymus, i*, m. απο τυ θυμε, becauſe it was uſed in faintings; or from θυμα, an odour, becauſe of its fragrant ſmell). Thyme. This herb, the *Thymus vulgaris* of Linnæus, (*Thymus erectus foliis revolutis ovatis, floribus verticillato ſpicatis*. Claſs. *Didynamia*. Order. *Gymnoſpermia*.), has an agreeable aromatic ſmell, and a warm pungent taſte. Its virtues are ſaid to be reſolvent, emmenagogue, tonic, and ſtomachic; yet there is no diſeaſe mentioned in which its uſe is particularly recommended by any writer on the materia medica.

THYMUS CITRĀTUS. See *Serpyllum citratum*.

THYMUS CRETĬCUS. The plant which bears this name in ſome pharmacopæias is the *Satureja capitata* of Linnæus which poſſeſſes ſimilar virtues to our thyme but in a ſtronger degree.

THYMUS GLAND, (*Thymus, i*, m. from θυμα, an odour; becauſe of its fragrant ſmell). A gland of conſiderable ſize in the fœtus, ſituated in the anterior duplicature or ſpace of the mediaſtinum, under the ſuperior part of the ſternum. An excretory duct has not yet been detected, but lymphatic veſſels have been ſeen going from it to the thoracic duct. Its uſe is unknown.

THYMUS MASTICHĪNA. The ſyſtematic name of the common herb maſtich. See *Marum vulgare.*

THYMUS SERPYLLUM. The ſyſtematic name of the mother of thyme. See *Serpyllum.*

THYMUS VULGARIS. The ſyſtematic name of the common thyme. See *Thymus.*

THYREO-PHARYNGĒUS, See *Conſtrictor pharyngis inferior.*

THYRO. Names compounded with this word belong to muſcles which are attached to the thyroid cartilage; as,

THYRO-ARYTENOIDĒUS, (*Muſculus thyro-arytenoideus*). A muſcle ſituated about the glottis, which pulls the arytenoid cartilage forwards nearer to the middle of the thyroid, and conſequently ſhortens and relaxes the ligament of the larynx.

THYRO-HYOIDĒUS, (*Muſculus thyro-hyoideus*). A muſcle, ſituated between the os hyoides and trunk, which pulls the os hyoides downwards, and the thyroid cartilage upwards.

THYRO-PHARYNGO-STAPHILĪNUS. See *Palato-pharyngeus.*

THYRO-STAPHILĪNUS. See *Palato pharyngeus.*

THYROID CARTILAGE, (*Cartilago thyroidea*, from θυρεος, a ſhield, and ειδος, reſemblance; from its ſuppoſed reſemblance to a ſhield). Scutiform cartilage. The cartilage which is placed perpendicular to the cricoid cartilages of the larynx, conſtituting the anterior, ſuperior, and largeſt part of the larynx. It is harder and more prominent in men than in women, in whom it forms the *pomum adami.*

THYROID GLAND, (*Glandula thyroidea*). A large gland ſituated upon the cricoid cartilage, trachea, and horns of the thyroid cartilage. It is uncertain whether it be conglobate or conglomerate. Its excretory duct has never been detected, and its uſe is not yet known.

TIBĬA, (*Tibia, æ*, f. qu. *tubia*, from *tuba*, a tube; ſo called from its pipe-like ſhape. The largeſt bone of the leg. It is of a long, thick and triangular ſhape, and is ſituated on the internal part of the leg. Its upper extremity is large, and flattened at its ſummit, where we obſerve two articulating ſurfaces, a little concave, and ſeparated from each other by an intermediate irregular protuberance. Of theſe two cavities, the internal one is deepeſt, and of an oblong ſhape, while the external one is rounded, and more ſuperficial. Each of theſe, in the recent ſubject, is covered by a cartilage, which extends to the intermediate protuberance, where it terminates. Theſe two little cavities receive the condyles of the os femoris, and the eminence between them is admitted into the cavity which is ſeen between the two condyles of that bone; ſo that this articulation affords a ſpecimen of the complete ginglimus. Behind the intermediate protuberance, or tubercle, is a pretty deep depreſſion, which ſerves for the attachment of a ligament, and likewiſe to ſeparate the two cavities from each other. Under the edge of the external cavity is a circular, flat ſurface, covered with cartilage, which ſerves for the articulation of the fibula; and at the fore part of the bone is a conſiderable tuberoſity, of an inch and a half in length, to which the ſtrong ligament of the rotula is fixed.

The body of the tibia is ſmaller than its extremities, and, being of a triangular ſhape, affords three ſurfaces. Of theſe, the external one is broad, and ſlightly hollowed by muſcles above and below; the internal ſurface is broad and flat, and the poſterior ſurface is narrower than the other two, and nearly cylindrical. This laſt has a ſlight ridge running obliquely acroſs it, from the outer

ſide of the upper end of the bone to about one third of its length downwards. A little below this we obſerve a paſſage for the medullary veſſels, which is pretty conſiderable, and ſlants obliquely downwards. Of the three angles which ſeparate theſe ſurfaces, the anterior one, from its ſharpneſs, is called the *ſpine*, or *ſhin*. This ridge is not ſtrait, but deſcribes a figure like an Italic *ſ*, turning firſt inwards, then outwards, and laſtly inwards again. The external angle is more rounded, and ſerves for the attachment of the interoſſeous ligament; and the internal one is more rounded ſtill by the preſſure of muſcles.

The tibia enlarges again a little at its lower extremity, and terminates in a pretty deep cavity, by which it is articulated with the uppermoſt bone of the foot. This cavity, in the recent ſubject, is lined with cartilage. Its internal ſide is formed into a conſiderable proceſs, called *malleolus internus*, which, in its ſituation, reſembles the ſtyloid proceſs of the radius. This proceſs is broad, and of conſiderable thickneſs, and from it ligaments are extended to the foot. At its back part we find a groove, lined with a thin layer of cartilage, in which ſlide the tendons of the flexor digitorum longus, and of the tibialis poſticus; and a little behind this is a ſmaller groove, for the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis. On the ſide oppoſite to the malleolus internus, the cavity is interrupted, and immediately above it is a rough triangular depreſſion, which is furniſhed with cartilage, and receives the lower end of the fibula.

The whole of this lower extremity of the bone ſeems to be turned ſomewhat outwards, ſo that the malleolus internus is ſituated more forwards than the inner border of the upper extremity of the bone.

In the fœtus both ends of the tibia are cartilaginous, and become afterwards epiphyſes.

TIBIAL ARTERIES, *Arteriæ tibiales*. The two principal branches of the popliteal artery: the one proceeds forwards, and is called the anterior tibial; the other backwards, and is called the poſterior tibial; of which the external tibial, the fibular, the external and internal plantar, and the plantal arch, are branches.

TIBIĀLIS ANTĪCUS, (*Muſculus tibialis anticus*). A flexor muſcle of the foot, ſituated on the leg, which bends the foot by drawing it upwards and at the ſame time turns the toes inwards.

TIBIALIS GRACĬLIS. See *Plantaris*.

TIBIĀLIS POSTĪCUS, (*Muſculus tibialis poſticus*). A flexor muſcle of the foot, ſituated on the leg, which extends the foot, and turns the toes inwards.

TIC DOLOUREUX. A ſingular diſeaſe of the nerves Dr. Haighton of Guy's Hoſpital, gives the following intereſting account of it, which is by much the beſt that has hitherto appeared in this country, and which from its novelty and the ſucceſs attending the method of cure, we have judged expedient to inſert here.

Mrs. H—— of Stockwell, Surry, aged ſeventy-four, a mother of children, of a ſpare habit, placid diſpoſition, and for her age much diſpoſed to activity, was about thirteen years ago, for the firſt time, ſeized with pain of the face. This pain at its commencement was very moderate, but in its progreſs became violent; at length it acquired a degree of acuteneſs which neither words can deſcribe, nor the immagination eaſily conceive. The ſeat of this extreme pain was ſomewhat limited, being confined to the ala naſi and a ſmall

portion of the upper lip, on the right ſide. The pain was not of the continued obtuſe kind, like that of chronic rheumatiſm, but on the contrary, rather tranſient, exceedingly acute and lancinating during its attack. The periods of its recurrence were indefinite, and in the intervals of which ſhe was generally in a ſtate of perfect eaſe. There was a ſtriking uniformity both in the origin and direction of the pain: it always began in the ala naſi and upper lip, and darted upwards towards the orbit; but when the attack was more commonly violent, then indeed it extended to other parts, and a ſenſation of a ſimilar kind, though much leſs in degree, was frequently perceived in the cheek towards the ear; the ſame ſenſation was alſo obſerved on the fleſhy and bony palate, on the gums and teeth of the upper jaw, and ſometimes on the fauces. She ſeemed particularly diſpoſed to this pain in ſevere or windy weather. Yet ſhe was not altogether free from it in the milder ſeaſon. It was moſt frequently excited by the more obvious occaſional cauſes, ſuch as ſpeaking, coughing, taking food, blowing the noſe, &c. Though ſometimes it would return from cauſes leſs apparent. The duration of each pain ſeldom exceeded half a minute; but more frequently it was ſomewhat leſs. Sometimes ſhe had not more than five or ſix of theſe pains in ſpace of a day, at others nearly twice that number in an hour. They varied ſenſibly in their degree of violence; ſometimes ſo moderate as only to ſuſpend the movement of the upper lip, but more commonly ſo pungent as to extort ſcreams expreſſive of intenſe agony. Beſides the ſuſpenſion of the motion of the lips, a very oppoſite effect frequently took place, viz. a tremulous movement, during which it was ſometimes drawn a little upward. Notwithſtanding there were ſuch extreme pains, neither ſwelling nor diſcolouration could be perceived, except ſuch as were occaſioned from time to time by external applications. Theſe were the general ſymptoms. The patient was in the north of England when ſhe was firſt attacked with this complaint; and having availed herſelf of ſuch aſſiſtance as was at hand without relief, ſhe conſulted Dr. Haighton by letter. As the caſe was drawn up by herſelf though not without ſome appearance of accuracy, yet he did not conceive her ſtatement of facts ſufficiently perſpicuous whereon to found an opinion. He therefore deſired the caſe might be written out by ſome practitioner; but imagining herſelf capable of deſcribing her own feelings as any other, ſhe ſent another account ſomewhat more correct than the former. From this ſtatement Dr. Haighto. began to ſuſpect the complaint to be of the nervous kind; but at the ſame time conſidered it only in the vague ſenſe in which we are too apt to uſe that term. That practitioner muſt have been either very fortunate, or his practice very circumſcribed who has not, in various inſtances, experienced the inefficacy of medicine in this claſs of diſeaſes. However, the extreme agony in the preſent caſe made it highly expedient to attempt ſomething for relief; and deſpairing to obtain a permanent advantage from the uſe of any thing which then occurred to him, Dr. Haighton recommended for the preſent, an attention only to the urgency of ſymptoms by the application of the Linimentum ammoniæ, of ſuch a ſtrength and ſuch frequency of repitition as might produce the ordinary effects of rubifacient medicines, or on the inefficacy of this, the exhibition of tincture of opium both internally and externally: likewiſe electricity in ſuch form as the patient could beſt bear. In caſe the above plan

had moderated the violence of the attack, he added in reſerve to recommend a free uſe of bark and chalybeates, and aided by wine, and a more nutritive diet than ſhe had been accuſtomed to, with a view of ſtrengthening the ſyſtem, and, if poſſible, to defend it againſt future attacks; but unfortunately he had to to deal with a patient ſomewhat unmanageable in this reſpect, being very averſe to good living. Some time after this he was informed there had been an evident amendment in a way that ſeemed to imply a ſpontaneous termination of the diſeaſe, rather than an abatement of ſymptoms from the power of medicine; he was told that the advantage obtained from the local applications was ſo very equivocal that the amendment was attributed more to the mild turn the ſeaſon took at that time, than to the medical treatment which had been adopted. He heard very little more of this caſe for the ſpace of two years, at the expiration of which ſhe came to reſide in the vicinity of London. From her account, it ſeems that ſhe had ſeveral returns of her complaint, but none ſo violent as the firſt attack. A few months after her arrival ſhe had a ſlight return. She was placed upon an inſulated chair, and ſeveral very ſtrong electrical ſparks were drawn from the part by means of a very powerful machine. It produced a redneſs, together with a ſlight veſication, and moderated the pain for ſeveral days. After that time it was frequently reſtrained by the ſame means: but at length it returned with a degree of violence unknown in any former attack, and upon trying electricity in the form of ſparks, as before, it was ſo far from procuring a remiſſion of ſymptoms, that it ſeemed to aggravate rather than appeaſe. Under ſuch extreme irritation Dr. Haighton ceaſed to draw ſparks; but conſidering that ſome little advantage had been gained by electricity on a former trial, he uſed it in a milder form, viz. in what has been called the aura, which differs from the former mode in being drawn off ſilently, by means of a pointed conductor, but no viſible effect enſued.

It was only at this period that he began to form a juſt idea of the diſeaſe. The following circumſtance gave riſe to it.

While ſhe was endeavouring to deſcribe her feelings, which ſhe attempted in a very inarticulate manner, ſhe ſtopped ſuddenly and upon looking at the part affected, Dr. Haighton perceived a tremulous motion of the upper lip, by which it was drawn upwards preciſely at that part where the muſculus levator labii ſuperioris proprius is inſerted, and from recollecting a well known fact, that a nerve under irritation from ſtimulating cauſes, produces motion in the muſcular parts to which it is diſtributed, it immediately occurred to him that the ſuborbitar branches of the fifth pair of nerves, which are known to ſupply theſe parts, muſt be the ſeat of the preſent diſeaſe.

In order therefore, to reduce (as far as poſſible) to a certainty, what hitherto was only matter of ſurmiſe, he waited for the next exacerbation, which took place in a few minutes, and by making, at this time, rather a forcible preſſure upon the integuments covering the ſuborbitar foramen, the pain inſtantly abated. He repeated this ſeveral times, and uniformly with the ſame effect. As the conjecture relative to the ſeat of this diſeaſe ſeemed to gain conſiderable ſupport from this experiment, it was thought eſſential to take a more minute ſurvey of the ſymptoms, particularly as being ſeated in thoſe parts which ſeemed affected in a ſecondary or ſympathetic way.

Now it appears from the hiſtory

of this caſe, that the extreme pain was ſeated in the ala naſi and upper lip, on the right ſide; but when it darted with more than common violence, it affected other parts, as the ear, by extending itſelf along the courſe of the cheek, by means of communicating branches belonging to the portia dura of the ſeventh pair, which pair begin to ſpread on the ſide of the face as ſoon as it emerges from behind the condyles of the lower jaw. It attacked alſo the palate, gums, and teeth of the upper jaw, but no part of the lower; ſometimes the fauces; but the part which ſeemed affected next in degree to the original ſeat, was immediately behind the dentes inciſivi.

From comparing this aſſemblage of ſymptoms with the diſtribution of the ſecond or ſuperior maxillary portion of the fifth pair of nerves, he was ſtruck with the coincidence, and at the ſame time was perſuaded, as has been already hinted, that the original diſeaſe was in thoſe branches of the nerve tranſmitted by the ſuborbitar foramen, and diſtributed to the ala naſi and upper lip; and that the darting pains extending to the teeth, inſide of the gums, and palate, aroſe from communicating filaments between the ſuborbitar and palatine branches. Theſe communications nor only complicated the caſe, but alſo placed the proſpect of a cure at a great diſtance, from the various channels by which the pain could be conveyed from the part primarily affected to the ſenſorium. But as a temporary advantage had been frequently gained by preſſure of the ſuborbitar nerves againſt the bone, the entire diviſion of them ſeemed eligible; and it was propoſed to the patient as an ultimate expedient. The propoſal, however, carried with it ſome difficulties. It was new to her. It could not enſure ſucceſs, and in this diſtraction of circumſtances, the mind of the patient might have remained ſuſpended in doubt, had not the inſupportable urgency of pain compelled her to aſſent.

Having permiſſion to operate, Dr. Haighton began to conſider the circumſtances of this nerve more attentively, and as the intention was to effect a complete diviſion of its filaments, by an inciſion of a moderate length, the means conducive to that end became important ſubjects of regard. It was eſſential therefore to acquire a knowledge concerning the preciſe ſeat of the diſtribution of this branch of the fifth pair of nerves, the mode of its tranſition, and exit from the ſuborbitar foramen, together with a clear and correct idea reſpecting the ſeat of the foramen itſelf. Beſides which, it was not altogether extraneous to attend to ſuch contiguous parts as might, either from neceſſity or accident, be wounded in the operation.

This nerve is tranſmitted by the ſuborbitar foramen, in a way very different from that which the common form of expreſſion on this occaſion would lead us to imagine. We uſually ſpeak of it as one branch, under the name of ſuborbitar; but in reality it ought to be conſidered as a ſeries of branches, for it divides before its exit, and is afterwards diſtributed in a radiated manner to the circumjacent parts, viz. the levator labii ſuperioris proprius, the inferior part of the obicularis palpebrarum, to the muſcles and integuments of the noſe and upper lip.

From this radiated diſtribution, it muſt neceſſarily happen that the branches of this nerve are ſpread over an extenſive ſurface at their termination, though contracted into a ſmall compaſs at their exit from the foramen. It was therefore conſidered a matter of importance to fix upon a proper part for the operation, in order that its branches, by lying in a

mall ſpace, might be more conveniently divided.

In its paſſage through the ſuborbitar foramen, it is accompanied by a branch of the internal maxillary artery, which from its contiguity muſt neceſſarily be divided. Theſe are covered by the levator labii ſuperioris proprius, and the common integuments.

As the branches of this nerve lie cloſe to each other at the orifice of the foramen, that part ſeems the moſt convenient for their diviſion, becauſe an inciſion of a moderate length will generally include them all.

The next conſideration was to determine the exact ſituation of the foramen.

This at firſt ſeems very eaſy, but in reality is not ſo, becauſe in different ſkulls the diſtance of it from the orbit differs conſiderably, and there does not appear any mode of determining this more probable than by attempting to form a ſtandard from the meaſurement of a conſiderable number of ſkulls.

The ſpace between the inferior edge of the orbit and the ſuperior part of the foramen in thirty ſkulls, was therefore meaſured, and the diſtance found to be as follows.

In two ſkulls,			$\frac{3}{16}$ of an inch.
In 16	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$
In 8	-	-	$\frac{5}{16}$
In 3	-	-	$\frac{3}{16}$
In 1	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$

As the diſtance in ſixteen ſkulls out of thirty, was $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch, that is, conſidered as the medium diſtance from the ſuperior part of the foramen; and if we allow $\frac{1}{8}$ below its inferior part, we conſider $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch from the lower edge of the orbit a proper place for performing the operation.

Having endeavoured to eſtabliſh a rule for determining its diſtance from the orbit, it may be proper to aſcertain its ſituation with reſpect to a line drawn from the inferior part of the internal angular proceſs of the os frontis, obliquely acroſs the orbit, to the centre of the os malæ.

The meaſurement of this line in thirty ſkulls did not vary more than an $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, and it was found that a line drawn downward, perpendicular to this oblique line, at the diſtance of $\frac{7}{8}$ of an inch from the internal angle of the eye, paſſed acroſs from the ſuborbitar foramen. By this rule Dr. Haighton was able to form a ſtandard of the ſituation of this foramen in a living ſubject.

Theſe preliminary circumſtances being ſettled, the operation becomes exceedingly ſimple, and conſiſts in an inciſion of $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch in length, carried obliquely downwards, the center of which muſt correſpond with the foramen, only $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch below it. The inciſion muſt be made down to the bone, otherwiſe we cannot be certain of dividing the nerves, as they are ſituated very deep. And as there are ſome irregularities on the ſurface of the maxillary bone at this part from muſcular attachment, as well as a furrow which is ſometimes continued from the foramen downwards, a ſmall pointed knife will be preferable to any other, as it will enable the operator to divide with more certainty ſuch nervous filaments as may be ſeated in theſe depreſſions.

The facial vein frequently paſſes over the foramen, and conceals it; from which it is liable to be divided in the operation. If this really happens, or if any of the ſuborbitar branches of the internal maxillary artery ſhould bleed with freedom, a compreſs may be made with advantage, as they are ſeated near the bone.

The wound being dreſſed ſuper-

ficially, will probably heal by the firſt intention. In the manner juſt deſcribed Dr. Haighton performed the operation, and the event has juſtly ſatisfied its propriety; it immediately put an end to the pain, and the inciſion healed in a few days.

The patient, who has now lived nine years ſince the operation, contemplates that event with the higheſt ſatisfaction.

It is worthy of remark, that the ſenſation and action of that ſide of the lip, though evidently diminiſhed, were not altogether loſt, as might have been predicted.

The inconvenience was only temporary; we may therefore ſuppoſe a reunion of the nerves had taken place but with this fortunate effect, that no diſpoſition to the return of the diſeaſe through the new formed part has yet appeared.

The complaint juſt deſcribed is not in the number of thoſe which aſſail the human body with the greateſt frequency, as there are phyſicians of conſiderable practice who have never met with it, and many who have not ſeen it more than once or twice. Very few of thoſe to whom it has occurred have publiſhed their obſervations.

In the writings of the ancients ſcarcely any traces of it can be collected, and thoſe ſo very obſcure, that, like the ambiguous language of the oracles, they impreſs us with no definite meaning.

The firſt account we have of it, in which an intelligible deſcription is given, is in a production of moderate date, and forms a part of a treatiſe on the diſeaſes of the urethra, by Monſieur André, ſurgeon of Verſailles, publiſhed in the year 1756. In this he has given ſome practical obſervations on this ſubject, under the name of tic douleureux. In 1768 an inaugural diſſertation was written on this diſeaſe, by Monſieur Vieillard, in which he mentions having ſeen this complaint ſeveral times as Paris. One object in his diſſertation is to inveſtigate the following queſtion, viz. *Uterum in pertinacibus capitis, facieque doloribus. aliquid prodeſſe ſectio nervorum quinti paris?* But the author denies that the operation can be performed with advantage. His concluſion, however, has not been well ſupported by the obſervations of others; for in the anatomical treatiſe of Monſieur Sabatier, it is aſſerted that this operation has been performed with ſucceſs. The inſtances he quotes are, one from Dr. de Haen, which is mentioned in his ratio medendi, as the doctor's own propoſal.

Another by Mr. Rich, a Poliſh ſurgeon of high reſpectability. A third caſe occurred at Paris, ſome years before the publication of his anatomical work, in which the ſucceſs was only temporary.

In 1776, the late Dr. Fothergill publiſhed a very minute deſcription of this complaint in the fifth volume of the Medical obſervations and enquiries, and has ſtated the ſymptoms with a conſiderable degree of preciſion, ſo that any one who has read his account may very eaſily recognize the diſeaſe. Since the publication of Dr. Fothergill's paper, two memoirs on this ſubject have appeared in the tranſactions of the Society of Medicine of Paris; one of which is written by Monſieur Thouret, the other by Monſieur Pujol. In theſe, ſeveral caſes are collected and ſtated with great minuteneſs. By theſe writers it has been conſidered a nervous complaint, and in one caſe they made uſe of magnetiſm, but with very equivocal ſucceſs. From the ſymptoms by which this complaint is diſtinguiſhed, it is not difficult to decide concerning its nature. The kind of pain is very pe-

ɛuliar, and the courſe of it correſponds exactly with that of the nerves. The ſecond branch of the fifth pair is perhaps more frequently affected than either the firſt or the third. But the portio dura of the ſeventh pair, which is diſtributed very extenſively upon the face, under the name of Pes anſerinus, is more frequently the ſeat of this complaint, than any of the branches of the fifth pair are; and this is a matter of conſiderable regret, becauſe in ſuch caſes, neither the operation propoſed in this paper, nor any other hitherto had recourſe to can avail. If, indeed, an operator, minutely verſed in the ſituation of theſe different nervous filaments, were by an effort of ſkill and addreſs to ſucceed in the undertaking, there is the higheſt probability that the patient would be relieved: but by reaſon of the manner in which this nerve ſpreads its branches, even where it is piercing the parotid gland, as well as the hazard of wounding contiguous parts, moſt prudent practitioners would decline the operation. Thus we ſee with how much more facility the mind can project, than the hand can execute.

When the ſeventh pair is affected, we can be at no loſs to know; for the patient complains of a pain which begins in the fore part of the cheek, ſometimes as high as the forehead, and extends itſelf in the direction of the ear. In a caſe of this kind, no relief whatever can be obtained by dividing the ſecond branch of the fifth, as ſuch diviſion cannot poſſibly give any interruption to the communication between the ſenſorium and the ſeat of irritation.

Ticunas. An Indian poiſon, the activity of which is greatly ſimilar to another poiſon, called Curama. Mr. Fontana obſerves, from the experiments he has tried, that the fume of this poiſon, whether inhaled or ſmelled to, is very innocent. That it was perfectly ſoluble in water, even cold, and in mineral acids, as well as vegetable. That it did not effervеſce with alkalies, nor acids, nor cauſed any change in milk. That it neither turned the acid of raddiſhes red nor green. That this poiſon had no more effect when applied to the eye, than if it were bathed in water. That if taken internally it proves deleterious, but that a conſiderable quantity is required to kill even a ſmall animal. By paſſing threads impregnated with the poiſon, and then dried, through the ſkins of rabbits and guinea pigs, and other animals, they died in a ſhort time. If applied to the ſkin lightly ſcratched in birds and quadrupeds, it proves for the moſt part mortal, although not always.

A hundreth part of a grain will kill a ſmall animal; but that the poiſon muſt be diſſolved, either to occaſion death, or any diſorder of the animal œconomy. Where there is fewer blood-veſſels, the poiſon is the leaſt efficacious. If the poiſon be applied, being previouſly diſſolved in the mineral acids, its effects ſeem to be deſtroyed. Rum and vinegar ſeem not to extinguiſh its effects; and even the acids ſeem uſeleſs and dangerous when applied to the muſcles of an animal. It requires a more conſiderable time to act than the venom of the viper. The effects of both poiſons may be remedied by a ligature round the limb, or by amputation, if done in time.

Mr. Fontana likewiſe obſerves that this poiſon does not act on animals of cold blood. This poiſon hinders likewiſe the coagulation of the blood from thoſe killed by it; but if introduced into the blood by the jugular vein, it produces death: and that it does not act on the nerves, but only on the blood.

TIGLĬA GRANA. *Grana tilli. Grana tiglii.* The grana tilia are ſeeds of a dark grey colour, the produce of *Croton tylium* of Linnæus, in ſhape very like the ſeed of the *ricinus communis.* They abound with an oil which is far more acrid and purgative than caſtor oil.

TILĬA, (*Tilia, æ,* f. πτελεα, ulmus, the elm tree). The lime or linden tree. *Tilia Europea* of Linnæus. The flowers of this tree are ſuppoſed to poſſeſs anodyne and antiſpaſmodic virtues. They have a moderately ſtrong ſmell, in which their virtue ſeems to conſiſt, and abound with a ſtrong mucilage. They are in high eſteem in France.

TILĬA EUROPÆA. The ſyſtematic name of the lime tree. See *Tilia.*

TILLI GRANA. See *Tiglia Grana.*

TIMAC. The name of a root imported from the Eaſt Indies, which is ſaid to poſſeſs diuretic virtues, and therefore exhibited in dropſies. It is not known from what plant it is obtained.

TIN. *Stannum. Jupiter* of the alchemiſts. An imperfect metal of a whiter colour than lead, but not quite ſo white as ſilver, obtained in great quantities from the mines in Cornwall. It is a metal well known for culinary purpoſes; and, although in general uſe, it is affirmed, that ragouts in which tin ſpoons have been left, as well as ſugar contained in a veſſel of this metal, have poiſoned many perſons: but this muſt have ariſen from the tin containing a larger proportion of arſenic than uſual, or from its admixture with lead, as the tin employed in this country is, of all metals, the moſt innocent for culinary purpoſes. Tin filings *limatura ſtanni,* are exhibited by many phyſicians for the cure of worms.

TINCÆ OS, (*Tinca, æ,* f. a tench). The mouth of the uterus is ſo called by ſome writers, from its reſemblance to a tenche's mouth.

TINCAL. See *Borax.*

TINCTURA, (*Tinctura, æ,* f. from *tingo* to dye a tincture. A ſolution of any ſubſtance in ſpirit of wine is ſo termed. Rectified ſpirit of wine is the direct menſtruum of the reſins, and eſſential oils of vegetables, and totally extracts theſe active principles from ſundry vegetable matters, which yield them to water not at all, or only in part. It diſſolves likewiſe the ſweet ſaccharine matter of vegetables, and generally thoſe parts of animal bodies in which their peculiar ſmell and taſte reſide.

The virtues of many vegetables are extracted almoſt equally by water and rectified ſpirit; but in the watery and ſpirituous tinctures of them there is this difference, that the active parts in the watery extractions are blended with a large proportion of inert gummy matter, on which their ſolubility in this menſtrum in a great meaſure depends, while rectified ſpirit extracts them almoſt pure from gum. Hence, when the ſpirituous tinctures are mixed with watery liquors, a part of what the ſpirit had taken up from the ſubject generally ſeparates and ſubſides, on account of its having been freed from that matter, which, being blended with it in the original vegetable, made it ſo luble in water. This, however, is not univerſal, for active parts of ſome vegetables when extracted by rectified ſpirits, are not precipitated by water, being almoſt equally ſoluble in both menſtrua.

Rectified ſpirit may be tinged by vegetables of all colours, except blue: the leaves of plants, in general, will give out little of their natural colour to watery liquors, communicate to ſpirit the whole of their green tin-

ure, which for the moſt part proves legant, though not very durable.

Fixed alkaline ſalts deepen the olour of ſpirituous tinctures; and ence they have been ſuppoſed to romote the diſſolving power of the enſtruum, though this does not appear from experience; in the trials hich have been made to terminate is affair, no more was found to be ken up in the deep-coloured tinctures than in the paler ones, and often ot ſo much; if the alkali be added fter the extraction of the tincture, will heighten the colour as much s when mixed with the ingredients t firſt. The addition of theſe ſalts n making tinctures is not only needleſs but prejudicial, as they generally njure the flavour of aromatics, and uperadd a quality ſometimes contrary to the intention of the medicine.

Volatile alkaline ſalts, in many aſes, promote the action of the pirits. Acids generally weaken it; nleſs when the acid has been previouſly combined with the vinous pirit into a compound of new qualities, called dulcified ſpirit.

TINCTŪRA ALŎĒS. This preparation poſſeſſes ſtomachic and purgative qualities, but ſhould never be given where there is a tendency to hæmorrhoids. In choleric caſes and menorrhæa it is preferred to other purges.

TINCTŪRA ALŎĒS COMPOSĬTA. A more ſtimulating compound than the former. It is a uſeful application to old indolent ulcers.

TINCTŪRA ALŎĒS VITRĬOLĀTA. With the bitter infuſion a drachm or two of this elegant tincture is extremely ſerviceable againſt gouty and rheumatic affections of the ſtomach and bowels, and alſo in the weakneſſes of thoſe organs which frequently attend old age.

TINCTŪRA ASSÆFŒTĬDÆ. Diluted with water, this is moſtly given in all kinds of fits, by the vulgar. It is a uſeful preparation as an antiſpaſmodic, eſpecially in conjunction with vitriolated zinc.

TINCTŪRA BALSĂMI PERUVIĀNI. A ſtimulating tincture with all the virtues of the Peruvian balſam.

TINCTŪRA BENZŎĒS COMPOSĬTA. This tincture is more generally applied externally to ulcers and wounds, than given internally, though poſſeſſing expectorant, antiſpaſmodic, and ſtimulating powers. Againſt coughs, ſpaſmodic affections of the ſtomach and bowels, and diarrhæa, produced by ulcerations of thoſe parts, it is a very excellent medicine.

TINCTŪRA CANTHARĬDIS. A very acrid, diuretic, and ſtimulating preparation, which ſhould always be adminiſtered with great caution from its known action on the parts of generation. In chronic eruptions on the ſkin, and dropſical diſeaſes of the aged, it is often very uſeful when other medicines have been inert.

TINCTŪRA CARDAMŌMI. A powerful ſtimulating carminative. In ſpaſm of the ſtomach, an ounce with ſome other diluted ſtimulant is given with advantage.

TINCTŪRA CARDAMŌMI COMPOSĬTA. A uſeful and elegant carminative and cordial.

TINCTŪRA CASCARĪLLÆ. A ſtimulating aromatic tonic, that may be exhibited in debility of the bowels and ſtomach, and in thoſe caſes of fever in which the Peruvian bark proves purgative.

TINCTŪRA CASTŎRĔI. An antiſpaſmodic tincture.

TINCTŪRA CASTŎRĔI COMPOSĬTA. A very powerful ſtimulant and antiſpaſmodic, moſtly exhibited in hyſterical affections in a dilute form.

TINCTŪRA CATĔCHU. An aromatic adſtringent, moſtly given to

check diarrhæas, and very uſeful in debilities of the ſtomach and bowels producing borborygma and acidities.

TINCTŪRA CINCHŌNÆ. This poſſeſſes all the virtues of the bark and proof ſpirit.

TINCTŪRA CINCHŌNÆ AMMONIĀTA. The virtues of the ſpiritus ammoniæ compoſitus and the Peruvian bark are here combined.

TINCTŪRA CINCHŌNÆ COMPOSĬTA. A very excellent tonic and ſtomachic ſtimulant.

TINCTŪRA CINNAMŌMI. Stimulant and ſtomachic.

TINCTŪRA CINNAMŌMI COMPOSĬTA. A very powerful ſtimulating carminative, given in ſpaſmodic affections of the ſtomach and bowels, and thoſe caſes of vomiting which ariſe from a morbid irritability of the ſtomach.

TINCTŪRA COLOMBÆ. A tonic and ſtomachic tincture, calculated to repair the tone of the ſtomach and bowels, when impaired by bilious vomiting and purgings after removing the cauſes.

TINCTŪRA CORTĬCIS AURANTĬI. This is ſeldom given alone, but in conjunction with other tonics and ſtomachics to which it imparts a pleaſant flavour.

TINCTŪRA CROCI. A much eſteemed tincture for imparting a beautiful colour to other liquid medicines, and poſſeſſing the virtues of the ſaffron.

TINCTŪRA FERRI ĂMMONIĂCĀLIS. An excellent tonic and adſtringent. See *Ferrum ammoniacale.*

TINCTŪRA FERRI MURIĀTI. Tonic and adſtringent virtues are attributed to this compound. In relaxations of the kidneys and ſpaſmodic affections of the urinary paſſages it is particularly ſerviceable.

TINCTŪRA GALBĂNI. The virtues of the galbanum are completely extracted in this tincture. See *Galbanum.*

TINCTŪRA GENTIANÆ COMPOSĬTA. A very excellent bitter tonic and ſtomachic.

TINCTŪRA GUAĬĂCI. This is in very general uſe againſt chronic rheumatic affections, in which complaint it is particularly ſerviceable. It poſſeſſes ſtimulating and diaphoretic powers.

TINCTŪRA GUAĬĂCI AMMONIĀTA. A more powerful ſtimulant than the above.

TINCTŪRA HELLĔBŎRI NIGRI. This preparation is ſeldom uſed but in obſtinate caſes of amenorrhœa from the known action of hellebore on the uterus.

TINCTŪRA JALAPĬI. A ſtimulating cathartic.

TINCTŪRA KINO. A mild and ſtringent.

TINCTŪRA MOSCHI. Moſtly adminiſtered in conjunction with other antiſpaſmodics in hyſterical, nervous and ſpaſmodic affections.

TINCTŪRA MYRRHÆ. A warm ſtimulating ſtomachic and corroborant it is alſo in common uſe as a detergent to ulcerated throats, mixed and diluted in the form of gargle.

TINCTŪRA OPĬI. For its virtues ſee *Opium.*

TINCTŪRA OPĬI CAMPHORATA. An excellent diaphoretic and carminative anodyne.

TINCTŪRA RHABABĂRI. A ſtomachic aperient and purgative.

TINCTŪRA RHABARBĂRI COMPOSĬTA. An agreeable ſtomachic purgative.

TINCTŪRA RHÆI AMARA. A tonic ſtomachic and aperient.

TINCTŪRA RHÆI CUM ALOE. A more ſtimulating tincture than either of the former.

TINCTŪRA RHÆI DULCIS. A more pleaſant tincture than the tinctura rhabarbari.

TINCTŪRA SABĪNÆ COMPOSTA. A uſeful emmenagogue, poſſeſſing ſtimulating and antiſpaſmodic virtues, and extremely ſerviceable i

e hyſterical epilepſy of young wo-
en, which ariſes from irregularity
the menſtrual diſcharge.

TINCTŪRA SCILLÆ. The vir-
es of the ſquill reſide in this com-
ound.

TINCTŪRA SENNÆ. A carmi-
tive aperient and purgative.

TINCTŪRA SERPENTARĬÆ. This
cture poſſeſſes in addition to the
rtues of the ſpirit, thoſe of the ſer-
ntariæ.

TINCTŪRA VALERĀINÆ. A
eful antiſpaſmodic in conjunction
th others.

TINCTŪRA VALERIĀNÆ AMMO-
ĀTA. A ſtrong antiſpaſmodic and
mulating tincture.

TINCTŪRA VERĀTRI. A very
tive alterative, recommended in the
re of epilepſy and cutaneous erup-
ns. Its adminiſtration requires
eat caution; the white hellebore
ing a powerful poiſon.

TINCTŪRA ZINGĬBERIS. A ſti-
ulating carminative.

TINĔA CAPĬTIS, (*Tinea, æ*, f.
m *teneo*, to hold). The ſcald-head.
genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales*
d order *dialyſes* of Cullen; charac-
ized by ſmall ulcers at the root of
: hairs of the head, which produce
riable white cruſt.

TIN GLASS. See *Biſmuth.*

TINNĬTUS AURĬUM. See *Para-*
is.

TITHYMALUS, (*Tithymalus, i*, m.
ιθυμαλος, a dog from τιθος, and μαλος
der; ſo called from its ſmooth
ves and milky juice). Spurge.
vo plants are directed for medici-
purpoſes by this name. See *Ti-*
malus paralios and *Eſula minor.*

TITHYMALUS CYPARISSIUS. See
ula minor.

TITHYMALUS PARALĬOS. Sea
rge. Every part of this plant,
phorbia paralias of Linnæus, is
ently cathartic and irritating, in-
ning the mouth and fauces. It
ever employed in the practice of
this country; but where it is uſed
vinegar is recommended to correct its
irritating power.

TOAD-FLAX. See *Linaria.*

TOBACCO. See *Tabacum.*

TOBACCO ANGLĬCUM. See *Nico-*
tiana minor.

TOBACCO, ENGLISH. See *Nico-*
tiana minor.

TOBACCO, VIRGINIAN. See *Ni-*
cotiana.

TOES. *Digiti pedis.* They con-
ſiſt of three diſtinct bones diſpoſed
in rows called phalanges, or ranks of
the toes. The great toe has but two
phalanges; the others have three
ranks of bones, which have nothing
particular, only the joints are made
round and free, formed by a round
head on one bone, and by a pretty
deep hollow for receiving it, in the
one above it.

TOLU BALSAM. See *Balſamum*
tolutanum.

TOLUIFĔRA BALSĂMUM. The
ſyſtematic name of the tree which af-
fords the tolu balſam. See *Balſamum*
tolutanum.

TOLUTANUM BALSĂMUM. See
Balſamum tolutanum.

TOMENTUM CĔRĔBRI, (*Tomen-*
tum, i, n. a flock of wool). The ſmall
veſſels that penetrate the cortical ſub-
ſtance of the brain, from the pia mater
which, when ſeparated from the brain,
and adhering to the pia mater, give
it a flocky appearance.

TONICS. (*Medicamenta tonica*,
from τονεω, to ſtrengthen). Medi-
cines which increaſe the tone of the
muſcular fibre; ſuch as ſtimulants,
adſtringents, &c.

TONIC SPASM, (*Spaſmus tonicus.*
Τονικος, from τεινω, to pull or draw).
Contractura a ſpaſmo. A rigid con-
traction of the muſcles, without re-
laxation, as in triſmus, tetanus, &c.

TONGUE, (*Lingua, æ*, f.). A ſoft
fleſhy viſcus, very moveable in every
direction, ſituated inferiorly in the
cavity of the mouth, and conſtituting

the organ of taſte. It is divided into a baſe, body, and back, an inferior ſurface, and two lateral parts. It is compoſed of muſcular fibres, covered by a nervous membrane, on which are a great number of nervous papillæ, particularly at the apex and lateral parts; the rete mucoſum, and epidermis. The arteries of the tongue are branches of the ranine and labial. The veins empty themſelves into the great lingual, which proceed to the external jugular. The nerves come from the eighth, ninth, and fifth pair. The uſe of this organ is for chewing, ſwallowing, ſucking, and taſting. See alſo *Taſte*.

TONSILS, *Tonſillæ. Amygdalæ.* Two oblong, ſuboval glands, ſituated one on each ſide of the fauces, and opening into the cavity of the mouth by twelve or more large excretory ducts.

TOOTH. See *Teeth*.

TOOTH-ACH. See *Odontalgia*.

TOPHUS, (*Tophus, i*, m. Heb.). A ſmall ſwelling of a bone.

TORCŬLAR HEROPHĬLI, (*Torcular, aris*, n. from *torqueo*, to twiſt). The preſs of Herophilus. That place where the four ſinuſſes of the dura mater meet together, firſt accurately deſcribed by Herophilus, the anatomiſt.

TORDYLĬUM OFFICINALE. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal *ſeſeli creticum*. See *Seſeli creticum*.

TORMENTIL. See *Tormentilla*.

TORMENTILLA, (*Tormentilla, æ*, f. from *tormentum*, pain; becauſe it was ſuppoſed to relieve pain in the teeth). *Heptaphyllum*. Common tormentil, or upright ſeptfoil. *Tormentilla erecta* of Linnæus. *Tormentilla caule erectiuſculo, foliis ſeſſilibus*. Claſs *Icoſandria*. Order *Polyginia*. The root is the only part of the plant which is uſed medicinally: it has a ſtrong ſtyptic taſte, but imparts no peculiar ſapid flavour: it has been long held in eſtimation as a powerful adſtringent; and, as a proof of its efficac in this way, it has been ſubſtitute for oak bark in the tanning of ſki for leather. Tormentil is ordered the *pulvis e creta compoſitus* of the Lo don pharmacopœia.

TORMENTILLA ERECTA. T ſyſtematic name of the upright ſep foil. See *Tormentilla*.

TORMĬNA, (*Tormina, um*, pl. n. Gripes. Pains in the bowels.

TORPOR, (*Torpor, oris*, m.). numbneſs, or deficient ſenſation.

TOTA BONA. See *Bonus henric*

TOUCH. *Tactus*. The ſenſati by which we perceive any thing t is applied to the ſkin. The org of touch is formed by the nerv papillæ, which are ſituated all o the ſkin, but more eſpecially at t points of the fingers.

Touch is underſtood in a twof manner. For, by this term, in gene we call every change of the ner ariſing from heat, cold, roughn ſmoothneſs, weight, moiſture or d neſs in external bodies, in whate part of the body that change may ar In this acceptation, touch is aſcril to almoſt all parts of the human bo in a greater or leſs degree; as in ferent places of the body the ne are more numerous, bare, or cove with thinner membranes; and in s ſenſe pain, pleaſure, hunger, th anxiety, itching, and the other ſations, belong to the ſenſe of tou

But, in a ſomewhat different more proper acceptation, the ſenſ touch is ſaid to be the change f external bodies which is produce the ſkin, more eſpecially at the of the fingers, and is repreſente the mind. For, by the fingers, moſt accurately diſtinguiſh the gible qualities of bodies.

Indeed, in the ſkin we do not e diſtinguiſh any particle which not feel. But ſince the touc is commonly aſcribed in a peculiar ner to the papillæ, the ſtructur

he ſkin muſt be deſcribed. What is ſtrictly called the ſkin, is compoſed of a denſe web of very compact cellular ſubſtance, whoſe fibres are intermixed and interwoven, which renders it highly extenſible, contractile, and porous. Its ſtrata which are expoſed to the air, and next to the epidermis, are more cloſely compacted; as they approach the fat, they are gradually relaxed, and reſolved into a ſofter cellular texture. It is more tender in ſome places, and in others firmer. It is pervaded by many ſmall arteries, which come from the ſubcutaneous ones: they are neither large nor long, but are numerous in ſome parts where the ſkin is red, as in the cheeks; in other parts they are fewer in number. The veins riſe in great numbers from the ſubcutaneous reticulations: the nerves likewiſe in the ſkin are very numerous; but they vaniſh ſo ſuddenly, that it is very difficult to trace their ultimate extremities. Betwixt the ſkin and muſcles, there is cellular ſubſtance, into which the ſkin inſenſibly reſolved, degenerates, in moſt parts repleniſhed with fat, of which the little eminences form pits in the ſkin; but in ſome parts, as the penis, and part of the lips, &c. it is deſtitute of fat. There are very few parts in the human body where muſcular fibres are immediately contiguous to the ſkin, without any ſeparation by it; for the dartos is only cellular ſubſtance, and has no muſcular fibres. There are ſome places where tendinous fibres are inſerted into the ſkin; as in the palms of the hands, and ſoles of the feet.

Throughout the ſkin in general, in moſt parts of the body of man or of the larger animals, on removing the epidermis, ſcarcely an unevenneſs is perceptible, unleſs very minute granulations, raiſed hardly any viſible height, and obtuſe. But in the ends of the fingers, papillæ, ſomewhat larger, but ſtill very difficult of demonſtration to the ſight, are ſeated in cavities of the cuticle, and receive nerves ſcarcely viſible; they are minute projections, formed of veſſels with one or more ſmall nerves, wrapped up in cellular ſubſtance. In the lips, after maceration, they appear long and villous; in the penis they are flaky; and in the tongue they are moſt evident, from the fabric of which we conclude, by analogy, with reſpect to the other cutaneous papillæ.

The ſkin is ſurrounded by another covering, which reſiſts completely the action of the air, and which coheres with the ſkin by an infinite number of ſmall veſſels, and by hairs paſſing through it. The outer ſurface of this covering, of a corneous nature, dry, inſenſible, not ſubject to putrefaction, deſtitute of veſſels and nerves, wrinkled in a particular manner, and reticular towards the ſkin, is called the epidermis. It is perforated by an infinite number of pores, of which the larger ones are perſpirative, and the ſmaller vaporiferous, and is connected with the ſkin by numerous minute veſſels reſembling down. By preſſure or burning, the cuticle grows thicker, by the addition of new plates, formed between it and the ſkin; and is then ſaid to be callous. But even without diſeaſe, in negroes the two plates are diſtinct.

The inner ſurface of the cuticle, more ſoft, pulpy, half fluid, reſembling concreted mucus, is ſeparated with difficulty in Europeans, but eaſily in the African negro, in whom it is truly membranaceous, ſolid, and ſeparable; and in the palate of brutes. It is incumbent on the ſkin, of which it receives the papillæ into ſoft pits. It is called the rete Malpighianum, although it be certain that it is not perforated in a conſpicuous manner, as a ſieve.

That this reticular body is com-

poſed by the concretion of ſome fluid tranſuding from the ſkin, ſeems very probable. The fabric of the cuticle is ſtill uncertain; for ſince it is deſtitute of veſſels, is regenerated, and is inſenſible, it does not ſeem to belong to the organical parts of the body. Is it the outer part of the Malpighian mucus, coagulated and condenſed by the air and by preſſure, which is perforated in many places by exhaling and inhaling ducts, the mouths of which are cemented together by the interpoſed condenſed glue? Is this opinion ſupported by the mucous expanſion upon the membrane of the tympanum? by its diſſolution in water, as obſerved by eminent anatomiſts, though by others denied, in the cuticle of negroes? See *Skin*.

Moreover, to the hiſtory of the ſkin belong the ſimple glands, which are ſeated in very many places under the ſkin in the cellular ſubſtance, and perforate it by their excretory ducts, and pour out upon the cuticle, in the hairy ſcalp, and in the convex ſurface of the ear, a fat ſoft half fluid liniment. Other ſebaceous glands, partly ſimple and partly compound, generate in the face, though more ſlowly, a dry white liniment, but in the groins and arm-pits one more oily, with which the ſkin being anointed, ſhines, and is defended both from the air and from friction. They are found in all parts of the human body that are under the neceſſity of being more immediately expoſed to the air, as in the face, where there are a great number of the compound ſort; or wherever the ſkin is liable to great friction, as in the breaſts, arm-pits, groins, glans, penis, nymphæ anus, and hams. They frequently ſend out hairs. Are follicles of this kind ſeated in all parts of the ſkin? Although anatomy does not demonſtrate them, yet it ſeems probable that they are preſent every where, as appears from the ſordes collected about the whole ſurface of the body ſeemingly of the ſebaceous kind. But another ſort of oily ointment is poured out upon the ſkin, through its pores, from the fat itſelf, without the intervention of glands, eſpecially where the ſkin is clothed with hair.

The hair and nails are alſo appendages to the ſkin. The former are ſcattered over almoſt the whole ſurface of the body, the palms of the hands and ſoles of the feet excepted, in moſt parts ſhort and ſoft; but longer upon the ſkin of the head, cheek, chin, and breaſt in men; alſo upon the forepart of the limbs, in the arm-pits, groins, and pubis. They ariſe from the ſubcutaneous cellular ſubſtance, originating from a little bulb, which is membranous, ſtrong, vaſcular, of an oval ſhape, and more lax towards the cellular texture at which part it is alſo furniſhed with veſſels; in which little bulb another bulb lies hid, roundiſh at its beginning, but afterwards cylindrical, and ſurrounded with blood. In this ſecond bulb lies the hair, covered with a fatty humour. The hair, with both its cylindrical ſheaths, arrives at a cutaneous pore, goes out through it, and forces the epidermis into a ſimilar ſheath; whence the very great ſtability of the hair: after this the ſheath cannot be any longer ſeparated from the cortex; the filaments, and ſpongy and cellular matter, are continued throughout the whole length of the hair. The hairs grow naturally in the ſubcutaneous cellular ſubſtance; but, by diſeaſe, they are ſometimes formed in other ſituations within the fat. They grow continually; and, when cut, are renewed by the protruſion of their medullar ſubſtance from the ſkin outwardly, and by the prolongation of the cuticle. In old age, the hairs, deſtitute of this medulla, dry up, ſplit and fall off. Their colour is from the juice, which fills the internal ce-

lular texture. They ſeem to exhale through their extremities, and poſſibly throughout their whole ſurface, as we may conclude from the conſtant protruſion of their medulla, which ought to have an end, from the plica polonica, and from the luminous rays that come out from the hairs of an animal electrified. The ſubcutaneous fat follows the courſe of the hairs, and is exhaled.

The nails are of the nature and fabric of the cuticle, and fall off along with it, being in like manner inſenſible, and capable of reproduction. They are found upon the ends of the fingers and toes, occupying their upper and back part, and correſpond to the tactile papillary apex, which they ſupport, and retain applied to the object felt. They ariſe from a ſquare root, between an internal ſtratum of the ſkin, mixed with perioſteum, and another external ſtratum, a little beyond the laſt articulation: they go out by a lunar cleft in the external plate of the ſkin, where the cuticle partly returns back towards the root of the nail, to which it adheres, and is partly laid over the outſide of the nail, and extended forward with it, forming its outer covering. The nail itſelf is ſoft when it is firſt produced, and in the part covered by the ſkin; but, by age, and contact with the air, it becomes harder, corneous, ſolid, and elaſtic, compoſed of long fibres cemented by gluten, ſeparated by ſulci, fiſſile, and of many layers. The nail thus formed, extends itſelf to the extremity of the finger; and, through its whole extent, its internal ſtriated ſurface is lined by furrowed ſkin, blended with perioſteum, of which the filaments are firſt ſhort, afterwards longer, and thoſe which adhere near the point of the nail are the longeſt of all. Theſe are moſt intimately connected with the root of the nail. Beyond the adhering part of the nail, the ſkin again becomes free and unconnected with the nail, and has its own epidermis. A furrowed net-work is interpoſed betwixt the ſkin and nail, which is ſeparable and ſoft, for the protection of the papillæ; where the furrows are, it becomes gradually harder, ſo that at laſt it can ſcarcely be diſtinguiſhed from the nail. The tendons do not reach ſo far as the nail.

The ſubcutaneous cellular ſubſtance in very few places is without fat, on account of the neceſſary motion of the ſkin. Where it is repleniſhed with fat, it defends the warmth of the internal parts from the air; it renders the ſkin moveable upon the muſcles; it fills up the cavities between the muſcles themſelves; and contributes to the whiteneſs and beauty of the body. The ſkin, Malpighian mucus, and cuticle, not only cover the external ſurface of the body every where, but likewiſe, where they ſeem to be perforated; returning inwards they gradually change their appearance. For the cuticle is manifeſt in the anus, urethra, vagina, cornea of the eye, auditory paſſage, mouth, and tongue; nor is it wanting even in the ſtomach itſelf and inteſtines; although, by the perpetual emollition, its fabric be altered, and relaxed into their villous coat. Thus the true ſkin, being continuous with the internal fabric of the palate, tongue, pharynx, noſtrils, vagina, &c. changes every where into the white, thick, pulpy, commonly called nervous, coat of thoſe parts.

What has been hitherto advanced is ſufficient to enable us to underſtand the nature of touch. The papillæ at the ends of the fingers, ſomewhat larger in the inſide, beautifully diſpoſed in ſpiral folds, probably ſomewhat erected by the attention of the mind, as appears from ſhiverings, from the nipples of women, from the prolapſus of an inteſtine, from the handling of tangible objects, and from gentle friction, receive the im-

preſſion of the object on their nervous fabric, and tranſmit it to the trunks of the nerves, and to the brain. This is the ſenſe of touch. It enables us to diſtinguiſh chiefly the roughneſs of objects; and has been poſſeſſed to ſo exquiſite a degree by ſome perſons, that they have been known to diſtinguiſh coloured ſurfaces by the touch alone. We perceive heat, when external bodies are warmer than our fingers; and weight likewiſe, when they gravitate more in compariſon with their bulk than uſual. Humidity we judge of by the preſence of adhering water; ſoftneſs, by the yielding of the object; hardneſs, by the yielding of the finger; figure, by the hard limits circumſcribing them; diſtance, by an inaccurate calculation derived from experience, to which the length of the arm ſerves as a meaſure, &c. Touch corrects the errors of our other ſenſes, although it ſometimes errs itſelf, and though other ſenſes, independent of touch, furniſh animals with juſt perceptions.

The mucous body of Malpighius moderates the action of the object touched, and preſerves the integrity and ſoftneſs of the papillæ. The cuticle excludes the air from the deſtructible ſkin; moderates the impreſſions of bodies, ſo that they may be only ſufficient to effect the touch without cauſing pain: and, therefore when thickened by uſe, the ſenſe of feeling is loſt; but, if it be too ſoft, the touch becomes painful. The hairs defend the cuticle from friction, generate and preſerve the heat, conceal ſome parts, and render the membranes of others irritable, which require to be defended againſt the entrance of inſects; and perhaps they excrete ſomething excrementitious, and afford a paſſage to the exhaled oil. The nails are ſubſervient to the touch, by reſiſting the object touched ſo as to prevent the papillæ from yielding, and being bent back; they increaſe the power of apprehenſion, and aſſiſt in the handling of minute objects. In moſt animals, they ſerve as weapons of offence; and would be of the ſame uſe to man, if they were not cut.

Theſe are not all the uſes of the ſkin. For a moſt important office of that covering is to exhale from the body a large quantity of humours, and to abſorb others from the air. Accordingly, the whole ſurface of the ſkin, by an infinite number of ſmall arteries, both prolonged into the papillæ, and ſeated in the ſkin itſelf, exhales a vapour which exudes through correſponding pores of the cuticle: but when the poſition of the veſſels is changed, it is effuſed between the cuticle and ſkin. Theſe arteries are eaſily demonſtrated by injecting water or iſinglas into the arteries; for then, from all parts of the ſkin, an infinite number of ſmall drops exude, which being effuſed under the cuticle, rendered impervious by death, raiſe it up in bliſters.

During life, this exhalation is demonſtrated in many ways. A bright mirror, when held near the warm and naked ſkin, is quickly obſcured by a moiſt vapour. In ſubterraneous caverns, where the air is denſer, it moſt evidently eſcapes in the air, from the whole ſurface of the body, in the form of viſible and thick clouds.

In man, and in ſome, though not in all animals, whenever the motion of the blood is increaſed, while at the ſame time the ſkin is hot and relaxed, from the ſmall cutaneous pores, inſtead of an inviſible vapour, ſweat exudes in the form of minute, but viſible drops, which, with others of the ſame kind, run together into larger drops. The hotteſt parts are moſt ſubject to ſweat, as the head, breaſt, and folds of the body. The experiment before mentioned, together with the ſimplicity of nature, the viſible denſity of the cutaneous and pulmonary exhalation, perſuades

us, that ſweat is diſcharged through the ſame veſſels which are the organs of perſpiration, and that it differs only in its quantity and celerity, and by the admixture of the liquor of the ſebaceous glands, and the ſubcutaneous oil, which being diluted by the more plentifully ſecreted arterial fluid, exude of an oily and yellow conſiſtence, and chiefly cauſe the ſmell and colour of the ſweat. Hence, it is more fetid and yellower in the armpits and groins, where thoſe glands are moſt numerous. Both blood and ſmall ſand have eſcaped from the ſkin along with the ſweat.

The nature of perſpiration muſt be inveſtigated by experiments, and by its analogy with the pulmonary exhalation, which, in like manner, but more frequently, becomes viſible in a cold air. That this exhalation is chiefly water, has been proved by experiments, in which the breath, being received into large veſſels, has condenſed into watery drops. This is confirmed by the tenuity of the cloud on the mirror, and its volatility and by the familiar change of the perſpired matter, when obſtructed, into a diureſis or diarrhœa, and from the eaſy determination of warm liquors to aſſume the form of perſpiration by heat, or of urine by cold. This water is derived from our drink, which furniſhes a great part of the perſpiration, and from inhalation. Frequently, even the odours of our aliments may be plainly perceived in the perſpiration; there is alſo an admixture of the electrical matter in every perſon, and in ſome it is evidently lucid.

That it alſo contains ſome volatile particles of an alkaline nature, is evident, both from the nature of our blood, and from the conſiderable evils which ſucceed the retention of the perſpiration, moſt conſpicuouſly in acute diſeaſes, when, by being repelled inward, it renders the urine pale, and from the corruption of the air by reſpiration. This volatile alkaline matter ariſes from the particles of the blood, attenuated by perpetual heat and trituration, and changed into an acrimonious nature. Dogs trace theſe odours, and could not know their maſters unleſs ſomething of a particular nature were perſpired from each perſon.

The quantity of matter perſpired is very large, whether we conſider the extent of the organ ſecreting it, the quantity of vapour exhaled by the lungs alone, or the experiments of Sanctorius, by which it would ſeem, that of eight pounds of food and drink, five pounds, or, according to other experiments in a colder country, from fifty-ſix to thirty ounces are perſpired, which neither add to the weight of the body, nor eſcape by any viſible excretion except the ſaliva, ſweat, and mucus of the noſe. But the cutaneous exhalation is even much larger than this; ſince it not only throws off ſuch a proportion of the alimentary matters, but likewiſe rediſcharges what the blood requires by inhalation. In this, however, the different ſtates of the air, and of the body, have great influence. In warm countries, in the ſummer months, and in young active perſons, more goes off by perſpiration, and leſs by the urine. But in cold climates, during the temperate and winter ſeaſons, in aged or inactive perſons, more goes off by the urine than by the inſenſible perſpiration. In temperate countries, making a computation throughout the whole year, ſomething more is perſpired than what paſſes off by urine; and, by collating all the experiments made in different countries, both excretions are almoſt alike. It is alſo ſomewhat affected by the difference of time after eating; and the law which ſeems to obtain, is, that the perſpiration is moſt copious

at that time when the alimentary matters, being moſtly digeſted, and received into the blood, are fitted for exhalation. It is naturally diminiſhed during ſleep, even in the warmer climates; but it is increaſed by the heat of the bed-clothes.

In general, a plentiful and equable perſpiration, at the ſame time that the body is ſtrong, are good ſigns of health; for exceſſive perſpiration, when conjoined with debility, is obſerved to do more miſchief than its entire ſuppreſſion, if what has been written on this ſubject is ſufficiently to be depended on. It is a ſign of health, becauſe it denotes the perviouſneſs of theveſſels diſperſed throughout the whole body, and the complete digeſtion of the aliments, of which a great part is reſolved into halitus. When it is diminiſhed, it indicates conſtriction of the ſkin, weakneſs of the heart, and imperfect digeſtion. When exceſſive, it perhaps waſtes the nervous ſpirits. This diſcharge is, by moderate exerciſe, increaſed to ſix times that of a perſon at reſt, to the extent of a pound in an hour, or even in half an hour. It is farther increaſed, if aided by ſtrong and open veſſels, by warm, watery, and cordial drinks, by food of eaſy digeſtion, by a denſe and temperate atmoſphere, and by chearfulneſs. It is diminiſhed or ſuppreſſed by the contrary cauſes; as a denſe ſkin, a moiſt, or a cold and dry atmoſphere, reſt, an increaſed flow of urine, the ſupervention of a diarrhœa; and laſtly, nervous agitation, from a diſagreeable affection of the mind. However, the continuance of life does not depend ſo intimately on this diſcharge which is ſo eaſily, and without bad conſequences, increaſed or diminiſhed by ſlight cauſes; and is ſo inconſiderable, in many nations, anointing their ſkins with oil, and in many animals. When by being ſuppreſſed, it produces ſuch bad effects in fevers of a bad kind, it hurts chiefly by the putreſcent particles, which are retained by the perſpiration being ſuppreſſed.

The ſweat is evidently of a ſaline nature; as appears both from its taſte and from the cryſtals which form upon the clothes of glaſs-blowers; and by diſtillation, which demonſtrates its alkaline nature. Hence, by this diſcharge, the miaſmata of the moſt peſtilential diſeaſes are frequently expelled. But, in reality, ſweat is always a preternatural diſcharge, and ought never to exiſt in a healthy perſon, unleſs by violent bodily exerciſe, he have induced a temporary diſeaſe. It alſo is frequently injurious in acute diſeaſes; by waſting the water of the blood, ſo that the reſt becomes thicker, and the ſalts more acrimonious. By violent exerciſe, or the heat of the climate, the ſweat is extremely fetid; and even ſanguineous: being electrical, it ſometimes is lucid.

The uſes of perſpiration are, to free the blood of its redundant water, of its alkaline impurities, rendered more acrid by repeated circulations; and of an extremely volatile oil, probably prepared from the ſame blood. The ſame perſpiration likewiſe qualifies and ſoftens the cuticle, and preſerves the neceſſary ſoftneſs of the papillæ.

But the ſame ſkin, which has veſſels exhaling into the air, is likewiſe repleniſhed with veſſels, which abſorb thin vapours from the air, either perpetually, or at leaſt in a moderate depree of cold; in a moiſt atmoſphere; in the night-time, when the body is at reſt, the mind depreſſed, and under circumſtances, contrary to thoſe mentioned above, which increaſe perſpiration. Theſe veins are demonſtrated by anatomical injections, which, if thin or watery, exude through them in the ſame manner as through the arteries: moreover, by

the manifeſt operations of medicines, diffuſed in the air, or applied to the ſkin: of vapours, mercury, turpentine, ſaffron; of baths, mercurial plaſters, tobacco, coloquintida, opium, cantharides, arſenic; by the fatal effects of poiſons, abſorbed by the ſkin; as the venereal poiſon; by the living of animals, without drink, in hot but humid iſlands; by the perſpiration and urine being ſufficiently copious in ſuch ſituations, without much drink; and laſtly, by extraordinary morbid caſes, in which the quantity of urine diſcharged has far exceeded the drink taken in; in which it is probable, that the inhaling pores were more open; for that new ones were generated, is not credible. It is difficult to aſcertain its quantity; that it is very great in plants in the night-time, is proved by certain experiments.

Both the exhaling and inhaling veſſels, may be contracted and relaxed by the nervous power. This appears from the effects of the paſſions of the mind; which, if lively and exhilirating, relax the exhaling veſſels, by increaſing the impulſe of the influx of blood; and by the remiſſion of the nerves; hence redneſs, moiſture, and turgeſcence of the ſkin. Thoſe paſſions, which are languid and depreſſing, contract the exhaling veſſels; as appears from the dryneſs of the ſkin, produced by them; from the gooſe-ſkin, by terror; and from diarrhœa, cauſed by fear. They alſo ſeem to dilate the inhaling veſſels, whence fear facilitates the action of the ſmall-pox and the plague.

TOUCH ME NOT. See *Noli me tangere*.

TOUCHWOOD. See *Agaricus*.

TOXICARIA MACASARIENSIS. An Indian poiſon, obtained from a tree hitherto undeſcribed by any medical botaniſt, known by the name of Boas-upas; it is a native of South America. Concerning this plant various and almoſt incredible particulars have been related, both in ancient and modern times; ſome of them true, others probably founded on ſuperſtition. Rumphius teſtifies that he had not met with any other more dreadful produced from any vegetable. And he adds, that this poiſon, of which the Indians boaſt, was much more terrible to the Dutch than any warlike inſtrument. He likewiſe ſays, it is his opinion, that it is of the ſame natural order if not of the ſame genus as the ceſtrum.

The Dutch inhabitants of India call it Giftboom, or Spatenboom. By Rumphius it is called Arbor toxicaria, and among the Malay inhabitants of Malacca, Java, and Sumatra, it has the names of Ipo, Cajo-upas, Boa-upas, and Lupo matta ju. There are two ſpecies of it mentioned by Rumphius, a male and female; but the flowers and the fruit are unknown. The tree is repreſented as having a thick trunk, ſpreading branches, aſh coloured bark; the wood is ſolid, of a yellowiſh white colour, variegated with black ſpots.

This tree grows in ſeveral of the warmer parts of India, principally in the iſlands of Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Bali, Macaſſer, and Celebes. It is found for the moſt part in very deſert places, and on bare mountains. It is eaſily diſtinguiſhed at a diſtance, as no other tree will grow near it; the ground on which it ſtands, is barren and parched up.

The juice of this tree, in which the whole deleterious power reſides, is of a dark brown colour, and being dried, appears like a reſin. That obtained from the male tree, is ſaid to be the hardeſt and beſt, reſembling pitch; being friable by the fire.

Thoſe who collect this juice muſt be extremely cautious, that they may not be endangered. They ſhould be covered with linen, that they may

not be incommoded by the vapours which it emits. Long bamboos are therefore employed, pointed like a ſpear at the extremity, as no one dare remove the juice with their hands. Theſe canes are puſhed obliquely into the bark of the trunk, that the juice may gradually drop into the hollow of the cane, where it condenſes into a ſubſtance, and of the colour as above mentioned. The nearer the root that the juice is obtained the more efficacious the poiſon. Upwards of twenty reeds are left in the tree for three or four days, that the juice may collect and harden in their cavities. The upper joint of the reed being thus filled, is cut off from the remaining part. This juice while yet recent, is formed into ſmall globules, put into the hollow cavities of reeds, and then kept in a dry place, covered with ſeven or eight folds of linen, but it muſt every week be taken out and cleaned, leſt it ſhould become mouldy. By exhalation it loſes its activity which is much diminiſhed in the ſpace of one year; and in a few years is entirely gone.

The poiſonous quality of this tree is very dreadful. From the mere halitus which it emits, the limbs are as it were congealed, and at the ſame time affected with ſpaſms. If any one ſtand under it with his head bare, a loſs of hair is the conſequence; and if a drop from the tree falls on any part, an exceſſive ſwelling ariſes. Even the air about this tree is ſo infected, that birds, when ſitting on its branches, in a ſhort time fall down dead; they can even with difficulty fly over it; and the ground is barren for near a ſtone caſt around it.

The poiſon of the female tree, however, is ſaid to be much weaker, and from that reaſon it is employed in catching wild beaſts. It is not uſed for poiſoning weapons, unleſs mixed with the ſtronger kind; but by this the power of both is ſuppoſed to be increaſed. When any perſon is wounded with a dart, upon which this poiſon has been rubbed, it very quickly diffuſes itſelf through every part, exciting a violent ſenſe of heat and vertigo, to which death ſoon ſucceeds. The poiſoned weapons in general preſerve their power for two years; but in ſome inſtances only two or three months. It is for the moſt part fatal, from immediate admiſſion into the blood; and accordingly Rumphius aſſerts, that the inhabitants of Celebes ſometimes venture to employ it as a remedy internally.

The ſtrength of this poiſon is determined as follows. A quantity of of the expreſſed juice of the root of the Lamprijang or Amomum zerumbet, having a portion of water mixed with it, is ſtrained through linen, and to this a ſmall portion of the poiſon is added. Upon this mixture a ſudden ebullition takes place, by which the ſtrength of the poiſon is determined, according to the violence of the boiling. This operation is ſaid not to be dangerous as the operation feels only a ſudden increaſe of heat.

The deleterious poiſon in general proves fatal, in the ſpace of half an hour, ſometimes in a quarter of an hour; ſo that antidotes can be very rarely employed. The Macaſſerian kings, with the view of exploring the deleterious power of the poiſon, have directed experiments to be performed on criminals. But even when a finger or thumb be wounded and amputated it cannot be ſaved.

It is not entirely of a gummy nature, as it may be diſſolved in arrack. The Indians employ this poiſon to puniſh criminals, and likewiſe to rub on the weapons they uſe. But nevertheleſs in its crude ſtate it is employed as an antidote againſt other poiſons, both internally and

externally. It is chiefly uſed in the form of plaſter, againſt the bite of poiſonous inſects. It is ſaid to allay pain quickly, and extract the poiſon ſooner than any other remedy. A pill formed by the mixing it with the pulp of ſome fruits, is ſucceſsfully employed in caſes of obſtinate ulcers, and cutaneous eruptions. When weakened, it is uſed in killing deer, and the fleſh thus killed is by no means obnoxious.

Toxicology, (*Toxicologia*, æ, f. τοξικολογια, from τοξον, an arrow or bow; becauſe the darts of the ancients were uſually beſmeared with ſome poiſonous ſubſtance; and λογος, a diſcourſe). A diſſertation on poiſons. See *Poiſon*.

Trabĕculæ, (*Trabecula*, æ, f. a ſmall beam). This word is moſtly applied by anatomiſts to the ſmall medullary fibres of the brain, which conſtitute the commiſſures.

Trachea, (*Trachea*, æ, f. τραχεια; ſo called from its roughneſs; from τραχυς, rough). The windpipe. The trachea is a cartilaginous and membranous canal, through which the air paſſes into the lungs. Its upper part which is called the larynx, is compoſed of five cartilages. The uppermoſt and ſmalleſt of theſe cartilages, is placed over the glottis or mouth of the larynx, and is called epiglottis, as cloſing the paſſage to the lungs in the act of ſwallowing. The ſides of the larynx are compoſed of the two arytenoid cartilages, which are of a very complex figure, not eaſy to be deſcribed. The anterior and larger part of the larynx is made up of two cartilages, one of which is called thyroides or ſcutiformis, from its being ſhaped like a buckler: and the other cricoides or annularis, from its reſembling a ring. Both theſe cartilages may be felt immediately under the ſkin, at the fore part of the thorax; and the thyroides, by its convexity, forms an eminence called the pomum adami, which is uſually more conſiderable in the male than in the female ſubject.

All theſe cartilages are united to each other by means of very elaſtic ligamentous fibres; and are enabled by the aſſiſtance of their ſeveral muſcles, to dilate or contract the paſſage of the larynx, and to perform that variety of motion which ſeems to point out the larynx, as the principal organ of the voice; for when the air paſſes out through a wound in the trachea, it produces no ſound.

Theſe cartilages are moiſtened by a mucus, which ſeems to be ſecreted by minute glands ſituated near them. The upper part of the trachea, and the cricoid and thyroid cartilages, are in ſome meaſure covered anteriorly by a conſiderable body, which is ſuppoſed to be of a glandular ſtructure, and from its ſituation is called the thyroid gland, though its excretory duct has not yet been diſcovered, or its real uſe aſcertained. The glottis is entirely covered by a very fine membrane, which is moiſtened by a conſtant ſupply of a watery fluid. From the larynx the canal begins to take the name of trachea or aſpera arteria, and extends from thence as far down as the fourth or fifth vertebræ of the back, where it divides into two branches, which are the right and left bronchial tube. Each of theſe bronchia ramifies through the ſubſtance of that lobe of the lungs, to which it is diſtributed, by an infinite number of branches, which are formed of cartilages ſeparated from each other like thoſe of the trachea, by an intervening membraneous and ligamentary ſubſtance. Each of theſe cartilages is of an angular figure; and as they become gradually leſs and leſs in their diameter, the lower ones are in ſome meaſure received into thoſe above

them, when the lungs after being inflated, gradually collapse by the air being pushed out from them in expiration. As the branches of the bronchiæ become more minute, their cartilages become more and more angular and membranous, till at length they become perfectly membraneous, and at last become invisible. The trachea is furnished with fleshy or muscular fibres, some of which pass through its whole extent longitudinally, while the others are carried round it in a circular direction, so that by the contraction or relaxation of these fibres, it is enabled to shorten or lenghten itself, and likewise to dilate or contract the diameter of its passage. The trachea and its branches, in all their ramifications, are furnished with a great number of small glands which are lodged in their cellular substance, and discharge a mucous fluid on the inner surface of these tubes.

The cartilages of the trachea, by keeping it constantly open, afford a free passage to the air which we are obliged to be incessantly respiring; and its membranous part, by being capable of contraction or dilatation, enables us to receive and expel the air in a greater or less quantity, and with more or less velocity, as may be required in singing and declamation. This membraneous structure of the trachea posteriorly, seems likewise to assist in the descent of the food, by preventing that impediment to its passage down the œsophagus, which might be expected, if the cartilages be complete rings. The trachea receives its arteries from the carotid and subclavian arteries, and its veins pass into the jugulars. Its nerves arise from the recurrent branch of the eighth pair, and from the cervical plexus.

TRACHĒLO, (from τραχηλος, the neck). Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached to the neck; as the

TRACHĒLO-MASTOIDĒUS, (*Musculus trachelo mastoideus*). A muscle situated on the neck, which assists the complexus, but pulls the head more to one side.

TRACHEOTOMY, (*Tracheotomia, æ*, f. τραχειοτομια, from τραχυς, rough, and τεμνω, to cut). A synonym of bronchotomy. See *Bronchotomy*.

TRACHŌMA, (*Trachoma, atis*. n. τραχωμα; from τραχυς, rough). An asperity in the internal superficies of the eyelid. The effects are a violent ophthalmia, and a severe pain, as often as the eyelid moves. The species are, 1. *Tracoma fabulosum*, from sand falling between the eye and the eyelid of persons travelling, blown by a high wind; this happens chiefly in fabulous situations, and may be prevented by spectacles for the purpose, or by guarding against the flights of sand by covering the eyes. 2. *Trachoma carunculosum*, which arises from caruncles, or fleshy verucæ, growing in the internal superficies of the eyelid. This species of the trachoma is called morum palpebræ internæ, because the tuberculous internal superficies appears of a livid red like a mulberry. Others call these carunculæ pladorotes. 3. *Trachoma herpeticum*, which are hard pustules in the internal superficies of the eyelids. This is also called sycosis, seu palpebra ficosa, from its resemblance to granulated substances in cut fig. With the Greeks it is nominated atomablepharon, or proptoris; by the Latins, prolapsus palpebræ superioris.

TRAGĂCANTHA, (*Tragacantha, æ*, f. τραγακανθα, from τραγος, a goat, and ακανθα, a thorn; so called from its pods resembling the goat's beard). Goat's-thorn. Milk-vetch. *Astragalus tragacantha caudice arborescente, petiolis spinescentibus* of Linnæus. Class

Diadelphia. Order *Decandria*. Gum tragacanth, or gum dragant (which is forced from this plant by the intenſity of the ſolar rays about Mount Ida, where it is concreted into irregular lumps or vermicular pieces, bent into a variety of ſhapes, and larger or ſmaller proportions, according to the ſize of the wound from which it iſſues), differs from all other known gums in imparting to a very large quantity of water a thick and glutinous conſiſtence. The demulcent qualities of this gum are to be conſidered as ſimilar to thoſe of gum arabic. (See *Arabic gum*). It is ſeldom given alone, but frequently in combination with more powerful medicines, eſpecially in the form of troches, for which it is peculiarly well adapted: it gives name to an officinal powder, and is an ingredient in the compound powder of ceruſs.

TRAGACANTH GUM. See *Tragacantha*.

TRAGĬCUS, (*Muſculus tragicus*). A proper muſcle of the ear, which pulls the point of the tragus a little forward.

TRAGOPŌGON, (*Tragopogon*, i, n. τραγοπωγων, from τραγος, a goat, and πωγων, a beard; ſo called becauſe its downy ſeed while encloſed in the calyx reſembles a goat's beard). Goat's beard. The young ſtems of this plant, *Tragopogon pratenſe* of Linnæus, are eaten like aſparagus, and are a pleaſant and wholeſome food. The root is alſo excellent, and was formerly uſed medicinally as a diuretic.

TRAGOPŌGON PRATENSE. The ſyſtematic name of the common goat's beard. See *Tragopogon*.

TRAGOSELĪNUM, (*Tragoſelinum*, i, n. τραγοσελινον, from τραγος, a goat, and σελινον, parſley; named from its hairy coat like the beard of a goat). The burnet ſaxifrage was ſo called. See *Rapinella*.

TRAGUS, (*Tragus*, i, m. τραγος, a goat; ſo called from its having numerous little hairs, or from its being hairy like the goat). A ſmall cartilaginous eminence of the auricula or external ear, placed anteriorly, and connected to the anterior extremity of the helix. It is beſet with numerous little hairs, defending in ſome meaſure the entrance of the external auditory paſſage.

TRANSPIRATION, (*Tranſpiratio*, from *trans*, through, and *ſpiro*, to breathe). A ſynonym of perſpiration. See *Perſpiration*.

TRANSVERSĀLIS ABDOMINIS, (*Muſculus tranſverſalis*). A muſcle, ſituated on the anterior part of the abdomen, which ſupports and compreſſes the abdominal viſcera.

TRANSVERSĀLIS ANTICUS PRIMUS. See *Rectus capitis lateralis*.

TRANSVERSĀLIS CERVĪCIS. See *Longiſſimus dorſi*.

TRANSVERSĀLIS COLLI, A muſcle, ſituated on the poſterior part of the neck, which turns the neck obliquely backwards, and a little to one ſide.

TRANSVERSĀLIS DORSI. See *Multifidus ſpinæ*.

TRANSVERSĀLIS MAJOR COLLI. See *Longiſſimus dorſi*.

TRANSVERSĀLIS PEDIS, (*Muſculus tranſverſalis pedis*). A muſcle of the foot, which it contracts by bringing the great toe and the two outermoſt toes nearer each other.

TRANSVERSE SUTURE, (*Sutura tranſverſalis*). This ſuture runs acroſs the face, and ſinks down into the orbits, joins the bones of the ſkull to the bones of the face; but with ſo many irregularities and interruptions, that the ſtudent will ſcarcely recognize it as a ſuture.

TRANSVERSO-SPINALES. See *Multifidus ſpinæ*.

TRANSVERSUS AURIS, (*Muſculus tranſverſus auris*). A muſcle of the external ear, which draws the upper part of the concha towards the helix.

TRANSVERSUS PERINÆI, (*Musculus transversus perinæi*). A muscle of the organs of generation, which sustains and keeps the perinæum in its proper place.

TRANSVERSUS PERINĔI ALTER. *Inferior profstate* of Winslow. A small muscle occasionally found accompanying the former.

TRAPA NATANS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the nux aquatica. See *Tribulus aquaticus*.

TRAPEZĬUM OS, (*Trapezium, i*, n. τραπεζιον, a four-sided figure; so called from its shape). The first bone of the second row of the carpus.

TRAPEZĬUS, (*Musculus trapezius*, from τραπεζα, four-square; so named from its shape). *Cucullaris*. A muscle situated immediately under the integuments of the posterior part of the neck and back. It arises, by a thick, round, and short tendon, from the lower part of a protuberance in the middle of the occipital bone backwards, and from the rough line that is extended from thence towards the mastoid process of the os temporis, and, by a thin membranous tendon, which covers part of the complexus and splenius. It then runs downwards along the nape of the neck, and rises tendinous from the spinous processes of the two lowermost vertebræ of the neck, and from the spinous processes of all the vertebræ of the back, being inseparably united to its fellow, the whole length of its origin, by tendinous fibres, which, in the nape of the neck, form what is called *ligamentum colli*, or the cervical ligament. It is inserted fleshy into the broad and posterior half of the clavicle, tendinous and fleshy into one half of the acromion, and into almost all the spine of the scapula.

This muscle serves to move the scapula in different directions. Its upper descending fibres pull it obliquely upwards; its middle transverse ones pull it directly backwards; its inferior fibres, which ascend obliquely upwards, draw it obliquely downwards and backwards.

The upper part of the muscle acts upon the neck and head, the latter of which it draws backwards, and turns upon its axis. It likewise concurs with other muscles in counteracting the flexion of the head forwards.

TRAPEZOIDES OS. The second bone of the second row of the carpus so called from its resemblance to the *trapezium* or quadrilateral geometrical figure.

TRAUMATIC, (*Medicamenta traumatica*, from τραυμα, a wound). Anything relating to a wound.

TRAVELLERS JOY. See *Vitalba*.

TREACLE. See *Theriaca*.

TREACLE, MUSTARD. See *Thlaspi*.

TREFOIL, MARSH. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

TREMOR, (*Tremor, oris*, m.). An involuntary trembling of parts.

TREPAN. An instrument used by surgeons to remove a portion of bone from the calvaria.

TRIANGULARIS. See *Sternocostalis*.

TRIANGULARIS. See *Depressor anguli oris*.

TRIBULUS AQUATĬCUS, (*Tribulus, i*, m. τριβολος, from τριβω to vex, an instrument of war to be thrown in the way to annoy the enemy's horse: hence the name of an herb from its resemblance to this instrument). *Nux aquatica* The fruit of the *Trapa nata* of Linnæus, of a quadrangular and somewhat ova shape, including a nut of a sweet farinaceous flavour, somewhat like that of the chesnut which is apt to constipate the bowels, and produce disease; a poultice of these nuts is said to be efficacious in resolving hard and indolent tumours.

TRICEPS ADDUCTOR FEMŎRIS

Triceps, from *tres*, three, and *caput*, a ead; having three heads). Under us appellation are comprehended hree diſtinct muſcles. See *Adductor revis*, *longus*, and *magnus femoris*.

TRICEPS EXTENSOR CUBITI. his muſcle, which occupies all the oſterior part of the os humeri, is eſcribed as two diſtinct muſcles by ouglas, and as three by Winſlow. he upper part of its long head is overed by the deltoides: the reſt of ie muſcle is ſituated immediately nder the integuments.

It ariſes, as its name indicates, by ree heads. The firſt, or long head, he long head of the biceps exter-us, of *Douglas*; anconeus major, of *Winſlow*, as it is called), ſprings, by flat tendon of an inch in breadth, om the anterior extremity of the ferior coſta of the ſcapula, near its ck, and below the origin of the teres inor. The ſecond head, (the ſhort ad of the biceps externus of *Doug-*; anconeus externus, of *Winſlow*), ſes by an acute tendinous and fleſhy ginning, from the upper and outer rt of the os humeri, at the bottom its great tuberoſity. The third ad, (brachialis externus, of *Douglas*; coneus internus, of *Winſlow*), which the ſhorteſt of the three, originates an acute fleſhy beginning, from e back part of the os humeri, be-id the flat tendon of the latiſſimus rſi. Theſe three portions unite out the middle of the arm, ſo as to m one thick and powerful muſcle, ich adheres to the os humeri to thin an inch of the elbow, where begins to form a broad tendon ich, after adhering to the capſular ament of the elbow, is inſerted o the upper and outer part of the cranon, and ſends off a great num-of fibres, which help to form the cia on the outer part of the fore-n.

The uſe of this muſcle is to extend the fore-arm.

TRICHIĂSIS, (*Trichiaſis*, *is*, f. τριχιασις, from τριξ, a hair). *Trichoſis*. A diſeaſe of the eye-laſhes, in which they are turned inwards, towards the bulb of the eye.

TRICHŌMA, (*Trichoma*, *ătis*, n. τριχωμα, from, τριχες, the hair). The plaited hair. See *Plica polonica*.

TRICHŎMĂNĒS, (*Trichomanes*, *is*, m. τριχομανης, from τριχες, hair, and μανος, thin, lax; ſo called becauſe it reſembles fine hair). Common maiden hair, or ſpleen wort. *Aſplenium trichomanes* of Linnæus. *Aſplenium frondibus pinnatis*, *pinnis ſubrotundis crenatis*. Claſs *Cryptogamia*. Order *Filices*. This plant is admitted into the Edinburgh pharmacopœia: the leaves have a mucilaginous, ſweetiſh, ſubadſtringent taſte, without any particular flavour: they are eſteemed uſeful in diſorders of the breaſt, being ſuppoſed to promote the expectoration of tough phlegm, and to open obſtructions of the viſcera.

TRICHURIS, (*Trichuris*, *idis*, f. τριχυρις, from τριξ, a hair). The long hair-worm. See *Worms*.

TRICUSPID VALVES, (*Valvulæ tricuſpides*, from *tres*, three, and *cuſpis*, a point; ſo called from their being three-pointed). The name of the three valves ſituated at the origin of the aorta and pulmonary artery.

TRIFOIL, WATER. See *Trifolium paludoſum*.

TRIFOLIŬM ACETŌSUM. The wood ſorrel was ſo called. See *Lujula*.

TRIFOLĬUM AQUATĬCUM. See *Trifolium paludoſum*.

TRIFOLĬUM FIBRĪNUM. See *Trifolium paludoſum*.

TRIFOLĬUM HEPATĬCUM. See *Hepatica nobilis*.

TRIFOLĬUM MILILŌTUS OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the officinal melilot. See *Melilotus*.

TRIFOLĬUM ODORĀTUM. See *Melilotus.*

TRIFOLĬUM PALUDŌSUM, (*Trifolium, i,* n. from *tres,* three, and *folium,* a leaf; ſo called becauſe it has three leaves on each ſtalk). *Trifolium aquaticum. Trifolium fibrinum. Menyanthes.* Water treſoil, or buck-bean. *Menyanthes trifoliata* of Linnæus. *Menyanthes foliis ternatis.* Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Monogynia.* The whole plant is ſo extremely bitter, that in ſome countries it is uſed as a ſubſtitute for hops, in the preparation of malt liquor. It is ſometimes employed in country places as an active eccoprotic bitter in hydropic and rheumatic affections. Caſes are related of its good effects in ſome cutaneous diſeaſes of the herpetic and ſeemingly cancerous kind.

TRIGĔMĬNI, (*Trigeminus,* from *tres,* three, and *geminus,* double; three times double). The fifth pair of nerves, which ariſe from the crura of the cerebellum, and are divided within the cavity of the cranium into three branches, viz. the *orbital, ſuperior,* and *inferior maxillary.* The orbital branch is divided into the frontal, lachrymal, and naſal nerves; the ſuperior maxillary into the ſphænopalatine, poſterior alveolar, and infra-orbital nerves; and the inferior maxillary into two branches, the internal lingual, and one more properly called the inferior maxillary.

TRIGONELLA FŒNUM GRÆCUM. The ſyſtematic name of the fœnugrek. See *Fænum græcum.*

TRINITĀTIS HERBA. See *Hepatica nobilis.*

TRINITY HERB. See *Hepatica nobilis.*

TRIQUĔTRA OSSICŬLA, (*Triquetrus,* from *tres,* three). *Officula Wormiana.* The triangular-ſhaped bones, which are found moſtly in the courſe of the lambdoidal ſuture.

TRISMUS, (*Triſmus, i,* m. τρισμος, from τριζω, to gnaſh). Locked jaw. See *Tetanus.*

TRISSĀGO, (*Triſſago, inis,* f. *quaſi triſtago,* from *triſtis,* ſad; becauſe it diſpels ſadneſs). The common germander is ſometimes ſo called. See *Chamædrys.*

TRISSĀGO PALUSTRIS. The water germander was ſo called. See *Scordium.*

TRITĬCUM, (*Triticum, i,* n. from *tero,* to threſh from the huſk). See *Wheat.*

TROCAR, (corrupted from *trois quart,* French). The name of an inſtrument uſed in tapping for the dropſy.

TROCHANTERS, (*Trochanter, is,* m. τροχαντηρ, from τρεχω, to run; becauſe the muſcles inſerted into them perform the office of running). Two proceſſes of the thigh-bone, which are diſtinguiſhed into the greater and leſſer. See *Femur.*

TROCHĪSCI AMŸLI. Starch lozenges are uſed in tickling coughs and acidities of the ſtomach and bowels.

TROSCHĪSCI CRETÆ. Theſe are exhibited in cardialgia, acidities of the primæ viæ and diarrhæa.

TROCHĪSCI GLYCYRRĪZÆ. A pectoral and demulcent lozenge.

TROCHĪSCI GLYCYRRĪZÆ CUM OPĬO. This lozenge poſſeſſes pectoral and anodyne qualities, but requires that the quantity be regulated one grain being contained in a drachm.

TROCHĪSCI MAGNESĬÆ. Extremely ſerviceable in pyroſis and flatulent colic.

TROCHĪSCI NITRI. An attenuating diaphoretic, calculated to remove viſcid phlegm ariſing from inflammatory angina.

TROCHĪSCI SULPHŪRIS. Aperient and antiſcorbutic.

TROCHISCUS, (*Trochiſcus, i,* m. τροχισκος, dim. of τροχος, a wheel, A troch or round tablet. Troche

and lozenges are compoſed of powders made up with glutinous ſubſtances into little cakes, and afterwards dried. This form is principally uſed for the more commodious exhibition of certain medicines, by fitting them to diſſolve ſlowly in the mouth, ſo as to paſs by degrees into the ſtomach; and hence theſe preparations have generally a conſiderable portion of ſugar or other materials grateful to the palate. Some powders have likewiſe been reduced into troches, with a view to their preparation, though poſſibly for no very good reaſons: for the moiſtening them and afterwards drying them in the air, muſt on this account be of greater injury, than any advantage accruing from this form can counterbalance.

General rules for making troches.

1. If the maſs prove ſo glutinous as to ſtick to the fingers in making up, the hands may be anointed with any ſweet or aromatic oil; or elſe ſprinkled with powder or ſtarch, or of liquorice, or with flour.

2. In order to thoroughly dry the troches, put them on an inverted ſieve, in a ſhady airy place, and frequently turn them.

3. Troches are to be kept in glaſs veſſels, or in earthen ones well glazed.

TROCHLĔA, (*Trochlea, æ*, f. τροχλια, a pulley, from τρεχω to run). A kind of cartilaginous pulley, through which the tendon of one of the muſcles of the eye paſſes.

TROCHLEĀRIS, (*Trochlearis* ſc. *muſculus*. See *Obliquus ſuperior oculi*.

TROCHLEATŌRES, (*Trochleator, ris*, m.). The fourth pair of nerves are ſo called, becauſe they are inſerted into the muſculus trochlearis of the eye). See *Pathetici*.

TROCHOIDĒS, (*Trochoides, is*, f. from τροχος, a wheel, and ειδος, reſemblance). A ſpecies of diarthroſis, or moveable connexion of bones, in which one bone rotates upon another; as the firſt cervical vertebræ upon the odontoid proceſs of the ſecond.

TROPEOLUM MAJUS. The ſyſtematic name of the Indian creſs. See *Naſturtium indicum*.

TRUFFLE. *Lycoperdon tuber* of Linnæus. A ſolid fungus of a globular figure, which grows under the ſurface of the ground, ſo as to be totally hidden. It has a rough blackiſh coat, and is deſtitute of fibres. Cooks are well acquainted with its uſe and qualities. It is found in woods and paſtures in ſome parts of Kent, but is not very common in England. In France and Spain truffles are very frequent, and grow to a much larger ſize than they do here. In theſe places the peaſants find it worth their while to ſearch for them, and they train up dogs and ſwine for this purpoſe, who after they have been inured to their ſmell by their maſters frequently placing them in their way, will readily ſcrape them up as they ramble the fields and woods.

TUBA EUSTACHĬĀNA, (*Tuba, æ*, f.). The Euſtachian tube; ſo called becauſe it was firſt deſcribed by Euſtachius. The auditory tube. This tube ariſes in each ear from the anterior extremity of the tympanum by means of a bony ſemi-canal; runs forwards and inwards, at the ſame time becoming gradually ſmaller; and after perforating the petrous portion of the temporal bone terminates in a paſſage, partly cartilaginous and partly membranous, narrow at the beginning, but becoming gradually larger, and ending in a pouch behind the ſoft palate. It is through this orifice that the pituitary membrane of the noſe enters the tympanum. It is always open, and affords

a free passage for the air into the tympanum; hence persons hear better with their mouth open.

TUBA FALLOPIĀNA. The Fallopian tube, first described by Fallopius. The uterine tube. A canal included in two laminæ of the peritonæum, which arises at each side of the fundus of the uterus, passes transversely, and ends with its extremity turned downwards at the ovarium. Its use is to grasp the ovum, and convey the prolific vapour to it, and to conduct the fertilized ovum into the cavity of the uterus.

TUBERCLE, (*Tuberculum, i,* n.). A hard superficial tumour, circumscribed and permanent; or proceeding very slowly to suppuration.

TUBERCŬLA QUADRIGĔMĬNA, *Corpora quadrigemina. Eminentiæ quadrigeminæ.* Four white oval tubercles of the brain, two of which are situated on each side over the posterior orifice of the third ventricle and the aqueduct of Sylvius. The ancients called them nates and testes, from their supposed resemblance.

TUBERCULUM LOWERI. An eminence in the right auricle of the heart where the two venæ cavæ meet; so called from Lower, who first described it.

TUMŌRES, (*Tumor, oris,* m. from *tumeo,* to swell). Tumours. An order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosology, comprehending partial swellings without inflammation.

TUNBRIDGE WATER. A chalybeate water, the analysis of which shows it to be a very pure water, as to the quantity of solid matter; and the saline contents (the iron excepted) are such as may be found in almost any water that is used as common drink. It is only as a chalybeate, and in the quantity of carbonic acid, that it differs from common water. Of this acid it contains 1-22d bulk. The general operation of this chalybeate water is to increase the power of the secretory system in a gradual, uniform manner, and to impart tone and strength to all the functions. It is recommended in a variety of complaints incident to the female sex, in menorrhagia, fluor albus, chlorosis, &c.

TUNGSTEN, (*Tungsten,* Swed. ponderous stone). A mineral of peculiar gravity.

TUNGSTIC ACID. Tungsten is a true earthy salt, composed of calcareous earth and a peculiar acid, called acid of tungsten.

TUNIC, (*Tunica, æ,* f. *a tuendo corpore,* because it defends the body). A membrane or covering, as the coats of the eye, &c.

TUNĬCA, (*Tunica, æ,* f. *a tuendo corpore,* because it defends the body). See *Tunic.*

TUNĬCA ALBUGINĔA OCŬLI. See *Conjunctive membrane.*

TUNĬCA ALBUGINĔA TESTIS. See *Albuginea testis.*

TUNĬCA ARACHNOIDĒA. See *Arachnoid membrane.*

TUNĬCA CHOROIDĒA. See *Choroid membrane.*

TUNĬCA CONJUNCTĬVA. See *Conjunctive membrane.*

TUNĬCA CORNĔA. See *Cornea.*

TUNĬCA RETĬNA. See *Retina.*

TUNĬCA VAGINĀLIS TESTIS. A continuation of the peritonæum through the inguinal ring, which loosely invests the testicle and spermatic cord.

TUNSTATS, (*Tunstas, atis,* m.). Salts formed by the combination of the tungstic acid with different bases, as *tunstat of ammonia.*

TURBETH MINERAL. See *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus.*

TURBETH ROOT. See *Turpethum.*

TURBINATED BONES, (*Ossa turbinata*, from *turbino*, to sharpen at the top, shaped like a sugar-loaf). The superior spongy portion of the ethmoid bone, and the inferior spongy bones, are so called by some writers.

TURMERIC. See *Curcuma*.

TURNHOOF. A vulgar name of the ground-ivy. See *Hedera terrestris*.

TURNIP. See *Rapa*.

TURNIP, FRENCH. See *Rapus*.

TURPETH MINERAL. See *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus*.

TURPETHUM, (*Turpethum*, *i*, n. from *turpeth*, Ind.). Turbeth. The cortical part of the root of a species of convolvulus, the *Convolvulus turbethum* of Linnæus, brought from the East Indies, in oblong pieces, of a brown or ash colour on the outside and whitish within: the best is ponderous, not wrinkled, easy to break, and discovers to the eye a large quantity of resinous matter. When chewed, it at first imparts a sweetish taste, which is followed by a nauseous acrimony. It is considered as a purgative, liable to much irregularity of action.

TURPETHUM MĬNERĀLE. See *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus*.

TURPENTINE, (*Terebinthina*, *æ*, f.). The different turpentines employed medicinally are, the Chian or Cyrus turpentine, (see *Terebinthus vulgaris*), the common turpentine, (see *Terebinthina communis*), and the Venice turpentine, (see *Terebinthina veneta*). All these have been considered as hot, stimulating corroborants and detergents; qualities which they possess in common. They stimulate the primæ viæ, and prove laxative; when carried into the blood-vessels they excite the whole system, and thus prove serviceable in chronic rheumatism and paralysis. Turpentine readily passes off by urine, which it imbues with a peculiar odour; also by perspiration and by exhalation from the lungs: and to these respective effects are ascribed the virtues it possesses in gravelly complaints, scurvy, and pulmonic disorders. Turpentine is much used in gleets and fluor albus, and in general with much success. The essential oil, in which the virtues of turpentine reside, is not only preferred for external use as a rubefacient, but also internally as a diuretic and styptic; the latter of which qualities it possesses in a very high degree. Formerly turpentine was much used as a digestive application to ulcers, &c. but in the modern practice of surgery it is almost wholly exploded.

TUSSILĀGO, (*Tussilago*, *ĭnis*, f. from *tussis*, a cough; because it relieves coughs). *Farfara*. *Tussilago vulgaris*. *Farfara bechiam*. *Ungula caballina*. Coltsfoot. *Tussilago farfara scapo unifloro imbricato, foliis subcordatis angulatis denticulatis* of Linnæus. Class *Syngenesia*. Order *Polygamia superflua*. The sensible qualities of this plant are very inconsiderable; it has a rough mucilaginous taste, but no remarkable smell. The leaves have always been esteemed as possessing demulcent and pectoral virtues, and hence they have been exhibited in pulmonary consumptions, coughs, asthmas, and catarrhal affections. It is used as tea, or given in the way of infusion with liquorice-root or honey.

TUSSILĀGO FARFĂRA, (*Farfara*, *æ*, f. from *farfarus*, the white poplar; so called because its leaves resemble those of the white poplar). The systematic name of the coltsfoot. See *Tussilago*.

TUSSILĀGO PETASĪTES, (*Petasites*, *æ*, n. πεταστης, from πετασος, a hat; so named because its leaves are shaped like a hat). The systematic name of the butter-bur. See *Petasites*.

TUSSIS, (*Tussis*, *is*, f.). A cough. A sonorous concussion of the breast,

produced by the violent, and, for the moſt part, involuntary motion of the muſcles of reſpiration. It is ſymptomatic of many diſeaſes.

Tussis convulsīva. See *Pertuſſis*.

Tussis exanthematĭca. A cough attendant on an eruption.

Tussis ferīna. See *Pertuſſis*.

Tutia, (*Tutia, æ*, f. Perſian). *Pompholyx. Cadmia.* Tutty. A grey oxyd of zinc, it is generally formed by fuſing lead or mixed with blende, when it is incruſted in the chimneys of the furnace. Mixed with any common cerate, it is applied to the eye, in debilitated ſtates of the conjunctive membrane.

Tutĭa preparātā. Prepared tutty is often put into collyria, to which it imparts an adſtringent virtue.

Tutty, (*Tutia, æ*, f.). An oxyd of zinc. See *Tutia*.

Tylōsis, (*Tyloſis, is*, f. τυλωσις, from τυλος, a callous). An induration or callous of the margin of the eye-lids.

Tympăni membrāna. See *Membrana tympani*.

Tympanītes, (*Tympănītes, æ*, m. τυμπανιτης, from τυμπανον, a drum; ſo called becauſe the belly is diſtended with wind, and ſounds like a drum when ſtruck.). Tympany. An elaſtic diſtention of the abdomen not readily yielding to preſſure, and ſounding like a drum, with coſtiveneſs and atrophy, but no fluctuation. Species: 1. *Tympanites inteſtinalis*, a lodgment of wind in the inteſtines, known by the diſcharge of wind giving relief: 2. *Tympanites abdominalis*, when the wind is in the cavity of the abdomen.

Tympănum, (*Tympanum, i*, n. τυμπανον). The drum or barrel of the ear. The hollow part of the ear in which are lodged the bones of the ear. It begins behind the membrane of the tympanum, which terminates the external auditory paſſage, and is ſurrounded by the petrous portion of the temporal bone. It terminates at the cochlea of the labyrinth, and has opening into it four foramina, viz. the orifice of the Euſtachian tube and maſtoid ſinus, the feneſtra ovalis, and rotunda. It contains the four oſſicula auditus.

Typhus, (*Typhus, i*, m. from τυφος, ſtupor). A ſpecies of continued fever. See *Febris continua*.

Typhus putridus. This fever takes its name from the malignancy of its nature, and the evident ſymptoms of putrefaction which are to be obſerved when it has been of any continuance. It is to be readily diſtinguiſhed from the inflammatory, by the ſmallneſs of the pulſe, and the ſudden and great debility which enſues on its firſt attack; and, in its more advanced ſtage, by the petechiæ, or purple ſpots, which come out on various parts of the body, and the fetid ſtools which are diſcharged; and it may be diſtinguiſhed from a nervous fever, by the great violence of all the ſymptoms on its firſt coming on.

The moſt general cauſe that gives riſe to this diſeaſe, is contagion, applied either immediately from the body of a perſon labouring under it, or conveyed in clothes or merchandiſe, &c. but it may be occaſioned by the effluvia ariſing from either animal or vegetable ſubſtances in a decayed or putrid ſtate; and hence it is, that in low and marſhy countries it is apt to be prevalent when intenſe and ſultry heat quickly ſucceeds any great inundation. A want of proper cleanlineſs, and confined air, are likewiſe cauſes of this fever; hence it prevails in hoſpitals, gaols, camps, and on board of ſhips, eſpecially when ſuch places are much crouded, and the ſtricteſt attention is not paid to a free ventilation and due cleanlineſs. A cloſe ſtate of the atmoſphere, with

damp weather, is likewiſe apt to give riſe to putrid fever. Thoſe of lax fibres, and who have been weakened by any previous debilitating cauſe, ſuch as poor diet, long faſting, hard labour, continued want of ſleep, &c. are moſt liable to it.

On the firſt coming on of the diſeaſe, the perſon is ſeized with languor; dejection of ſpirits; amazing depreſſion and loſs of muſcular ſtrength; univerſal wearineſs and soreneſs; pains in the head, back, and extremities, and rigors; the eyes appear full, heavy, yellowiſh, and often a little inflamed; the temporal arteries throb violently; the tongue is dry and parched; reſpiration is commonly laborious, and interrupted with deep ſighing; the breath is hot and offenſive; the urine is crude and pale; the body is coſtive; and the pulſe is uſually quick, ſmall, and hard, and now and then fluttering and unequal. Sometimes a great heat, load, and pain are felt at the pit of the ſtomach, and a vomiting of bilious matter enſues.

As the diſeaſe advances, the pulſe increaſes in frequency, (beating often from 100 to 130 in a minute); there is vaſt debility; great heat and dryneſs in the ſkin; oppreſſion at the breaſt, with anxiety, ſighing, and moaning; the thirſt is greatly increaſed; the tongue, mouth, lips, and teeth are covered over with a brown or black tenaceous fur; the ſpeech is inarticulate, and ſcarcely intelligible; the patient mutters much, and delirium enſues. The fever continuing to increaſe ſtill more in violence, ſymptoms of putrefaction ſhew themſelves; the breath becomes highly offenſive; the urine depoſits a black and fetid ſediment; the ſtools are dark, offenſive, and paſs off inſenſibly; hæmorrhages iſſue from the gums, noſtrils, mouth, and other parts of the body; livid ſpots or petechiæ appear on its ſurface; the pulſe intermits and ſinks; the extremities grow cold; hiccups enſue; and death at laſt cloſes the tragic ſcene.

When this fever does not terminate fatally, it generally begins in cold climates to diminiſh about the commencement of the third week, and goes off gradually towards the end of the fourth, without any very evident criſis; but in warm climates it ſeldom continues above a week or ten days, if ſo long.

Our opinion, as to the event, is to be formed by the degree of violence in the ſymptoms, particularly after the appearance of petechiæ, although in ſome inſtances, recoveries have been effected under the moſt unpromiſing appearances. An abatement of febrile heat and thirſt, a gentle moiſture diffuſed equally over the whole ſurface of the body; looſe ſtools, turbid urine, riſing of the pulſe, and the abſence of delirium and ſtupor, may be regarded in a favorable light. On the contrary, petechiæ, with dark, offenſive, and involuntary diſcharges by urine and ſtool, fetid ſweats, hæmorrhages, and hiccups, denote the almoſt certain diſſolution of the patient.

The appearances uſually perceived on diſſection, are inflammations of the brain and viſcera, but more particularly of the ſtomach and inteſtines, which are now and then found in a gangrenous ſtate. In the muſcular fibres, there ſeems likewiſe a ſtrong tendency to gangrene.

TYRIĀSIS, (*Tyriaſis, is*, f. τυριασις). A ſpecies of leproſy in which the ſkin may be eaſily withdrawn from the fleſh.

U.

ULCER, (*Ulcus, eris*, n. from ελκος, a ſore). A purulent ſolution of continuity of the ſoft parts of an animal body. Ulcers may ariſe from a variety of cauſes, as all thoſe which produce inflammation, from wounds, ſpecific irritations of the abſorbents, from ſcurvy, cancer, the venereal or ſcrofulous virus, &c. The proximate or immediate cauſe is an increaſed action of the abſorbents, and a ſpecific action of the arteries, by which a fluid is ſeparated from the blood upon the ulcerated ſurface. They are variouſly denominated: the following is the moſt frequent diviſion: 1. *The ſimple ulcer*, which takes place generally from a ſuperficial wound. 2. The *ſinuous*, which runs under the integuments, and whoſe orifice is narrow, but not callous. 3. The *fiſtulous ulcer*, or *fiſtula*, a deep ulcer, whoſe orifice is narrow and callous. 4. The *fungous ulcer*, whoſe ſurface is covered with fungous fleſh. 5. The *gangrenous*, which is livid, fetid, and gangrenous. 6. The *ſcorbutic*, which depends on a ſcorbutic acrimony. 7. The *venereal*, ariſing from the venereal diſeaſe. 8. The *cancerous ulcer*, or open cancer, (ſee *Cancer*). 9. The *carious ulcer*, depending upon a carious bone. 10. The *inveterate ulcer*, which is of long continuance, and reſiſts the ordinary applications. 11. The *ſcrofulous ulcer*, known by its having ariſen from indolent tumours, its diſcharging a viſcid, glary matter, and its indolent nature.

ULCERATED SORE THROAT. See *Cynanche*.

ULMARIA, (*Ulmaria, æ*, f. from *ulmus*; the elm ſo named becauſe it has leaves like the elm). *Regina prati. Barba capræ*. Meadow ſweet, Queen of the meadows. This beautiful and fragrant plant is the *Spiræa ulmaria* of Linnæus. The leaves are recommended as mild adſtringents. The flowers have a ſtrong ſmell reſembling that of May: they are ſuppoſed to poſſeſs antiſpaſmodic and diaphoretic virtues, and as they are very rarely uſed in medicine, Linnæus ſuſpects that the neglect of them has ariſen from the plant being ſuppoſed to be poſſeſſed of ſome noxious qualities, which it ſeemed to betray by its being left untouched by cattle. It may be obſerved however that the cattle alſo refuſe the Angelica and other herbs, whoſe innocence is apparent from daily experience.

ULMUS, (*Ulmus, i*, f.). Common elm. *Ulmus campeſtris foliis duplicato-ſerratis, baſi inæqualibus* of Linnæus. Claſs *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*. The inner tough bark of this tree, which is directed for uſe by the pharmacopœias, has no remarkable ſmell, but a bitteriſh taſte, and abounds with a ſlimy juice, which has been recommended in nephritic caſes, and externally as a uſeful application to burns. It is alſo highly recommended in ſome cutaneous affections allied to herpes and lepra. It is moſtly exhibited in the form of decoction, by boiling four ounces in four pints of water, to two pints; of which from four to eight ounces are given two or three times a day.

ULMUS CAMPESTRIS. The ſyſtematic name of the common elm. See *Ulmus*.

ULNA, (*Ulna, æ*, f. from ωλενη, the ulna or cubit). *Cubitus*. The ulna is ſmaller and ſhorter than the os humeri, and becomes gradually ſmaller as it deſcends to the wriſt. We may divide it into its upper and lower

extremities, and its body or middle part. At its upper extremity are two conſiderable proceſſes, of which the poſterior one and largeſt is named *olecranon*, and the ſmaller and anterior one, the *coronoid* proceſs. Between theſe two proceſſes, the extremity of the bone is formed into a deep articulating cavity, which, from its ſemi-circular ſhape, is called the *greater ſygmoid cavity*, to diſtinguiſh it from another, which has been named the *leſſer ſygmoid cavity*. The olecranon begins by a conſiderable tuberoſity, which is rough, and ſerves for the inſertion of muſcles, and terminates in a kind of hook, the concave ſurface of which moves upon the pulley of the os humeri. This proceſs forms the point of the elbow. The coronoid proceſs is ſharper at its extremity than the olecranon, but is much ſmaller, and does not reach ſo high. In bending the arm it is received into the foſſa at the fore part of the pulley. At the external ſide of the coronoid proceſs is the leſſer ſygmoid cavity, which is a ſmall, ſemi-lunar, articulating ſurface, lined with cartilage, on which the round head of the radius plays. At the fore part of the coronoid proceſs we obſerve a ſmall tuberoſity, into which the tendon of the brachialis internus is inſerted. The greater ſygmoid cavity, the ſituation of which we juſt now mentioned, is divided into four ſurfaces by a prominent line which is interſected by a ſmall ſinuoſity that ſerves for the lodgment of mucilaginous glands. The whole of this cavity is covered with cartilage. The body, or middle part of the ulna, is of a priſmatic or triangular ſhape, ſo as to afford three ſurfaces and as many angles. The external and internal ſurfaces are flat and broad, eſpecially the external one, and are ſeparated by a ſharp angle, which, from its ſituation, may be termed the internal angle. This internal angle, which is turned towards the radius, ſerves for the attachment of the ligament that connects the two bones, and which is therefore called the *interoſſeus* ligament. The poſterior ſurface is convex, and correſponds with the olecranon. The borders, or angles, which ſeparate it from the other two ſurfaces, are ſomewhat rounded. At about a third of the length of this bone from the top, in its fore part, we obſerve a channel for the paſſage of veſſels. The lower extremity is ſmaller as it deſcends, nearly cylindrical, and ſlightly curved forwards and outwards. Juſt before it terminates it contracts, ſo as to form a neck to the ſmall head with which it ends. On the outſide of this little head, anſwering to the olecranon, a ſmall proceſs, called the *ſtyloid* proceſs, ſtands out, from which a ſtrong ligament is ſtretched to the wriſt. The head has a rounded articulating ſurface, on its internal ſide, which is covered with cartilage, and received into a ſmall ſemi-lunar cavity formed at the lower end of the radius. Between it and the os cuneiforme, a moveable cartilage is interpoſed, which is continued from the cartilage that covers the lower end of the radius, and is connected by ligamentuous fibres to the ſtyloid proceſs of the ulna. The ulna is articulated above with the lower end of the os humeri. This articulation is of the ſpecies called ginglimus. it is articulated alſo both above and below to the radius, and to the carpus at its loweſt extremity. Its chief uſe ſeems to be to ſupport and regulate the motions of the radius. In children, both extremities of this bone are firſt cartilaginous, and afterwards epiphyſes, before they are completely united to the reſt of the bone.

ULNAR ARTERY. *Arteria ulnaris.* See *Cubital artery.*

ULNAR NERVE. *Nervus ulnaris.* See *Cubital nerve.*

ULNARIS EXTERNUS. See *Extenſor carpi ulnaris.*

ULNARIS INTERNUS. See *Flexor carpi ulnaris.*

UMBILICAL CORD. *Funis umbilicalis. Funiculus umbilicalis.* The navel-ſtring. A cord-like ſubſtance, of an inteſtinal form, about half a yard in length, that proceeds from the navel of the fœtus to the centre of the placenta. It is compoſed of a cutaneous ſheath, cellular ſubſtance, one umbilical vein, and two umbilical arteries; the former conveys the blood to the child from the placenta, and the latter return it from the child to the placenta.

UMBILICAL HERNIA. *Hernia umbilicalis.* A protruſion of part of any of the abdominal viſcera at the navel. See *Hernia.*

UMBILICAL REGION. *Regio umbilicalis.* The part of the abdominal parietes about two inches all round the navel.

UMBĬLĪCUS MARĪNUS, *Cotyledon marina. Androſace. Acetabulum marinum. Androſace mathioli. Fungus petræus marinus.* A ſubmarine production found on rocks and the ſhells of fiſhes, about the coaſt of Montpelier, &c. It is ſaid to be in the form of powder a uſeful antithelmetic and diuretic.

UNCIFORM BONE, (*Os uneiforme*, from *uncus*, a hook, and *forma*, a likeneſs). The laſt bone of the ſecond row of the carpus or wriſt; ſo named from its hook-like proceſs, which projects towards the palm of the hand, and gives origin to the great ligament by which the tendons of the wriſt are bound down.

UNGUENTUM, (*Unguentum, i*, n. from *ungo*, to anoint). An ointment.

UNGUENTUM ADĬPIS SNILLÆ. The moſt ſimple ointment in uſe, to which a variety of ſubſtances may be added; it is moſtly employed to chapped hands, &c.

UNGUENTUM ÆRUGĬNIS. A ſtimulating and corroſive compound, employed to deterge foul ulcers.

UNGUENTUM CALCIS HYDRARGŸRI ALBÆ. A uſeful ointment to deſtroy vermin in the head, and to aſſiſt in the removal of ſcald head, venereal ulcers of children, and cutaneous eruptions.

UNGUENTUM CANTHARĬDIS. Where a conſtant diſcharge from a bliſter is wanted, this ointment is moſtly applied daily.

UNGUENTUM CĒRÆ. Excoriated ſurfaces, irritable and inflamed ſores are moſtly covered with this, which is alſo applied where ſimply an emollient is wanted.

UNGUENTUM CERŪSSÆ. A ſedative ointment, moſtly applied to the intertrigo of youths.

UNGUENTUM CERŪSSÆ ACETATÆ. A cooling and diſſicative ointment when freſh, but a violently ſtimulating one when rancid.

UNGUENTUM ELĔMI COMPOSĬTUM. Indolent ulcers, chilblains, chronic ulcers after burns, and indolent tumours are often removed by this ointment.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGŸRI FORTĬUS. In very general uſe for mercurial frictions. It may be employed in almoſt all caſes where mercury is indicated.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGŸRI MITĬUS. Weaker than the former.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGŸRI NITRATI. A ſtimulating and detergent ointment. Tinea capitis, prophthalmia indolent tumours on the margin of the eye-lid, and ulcers in the urethra, are cured by its application.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGŸRI NITRATI MITĬUS. Weaker only than the former.

UNGUENTUM PICIS. The ſmell

of this ointment prevents its more general uſe; in cutaneous eruptions and ulcerations about the hair, it is very uſeful.

UNGUENTUM RESĪNÆ FLAVÆ. Yellow baſilicon is in general uſe as a ſtimulant and deterſive; it is an elegant and uſeful form of applying the reſin.

UNGUENTUM SAMBŪCI. A cooling and emollient preparation.

UNGUENTUM SIMPLEX. An emollient.

UNGUENTUM SPERMĂTISCETI. A ſimple emollient.

UNGUENTUM SULPHŬRIS. The moſt effectual preparation to deſtroy the itch. It is alſo ſerviceable in the cure of other cutaneous eruptions.

UNGUENTUM TUTĬÆ. Mildly adſtringent.

UNGUENTUM ZINCI. A very uſeful application to chronic ophthalmia and relaxed ulcers.

UNGUIS, (*Unguis, is*, m. from ονυξ, a hook). The nail. The nails are horny laminæ ſituated at the extremities of the fingers and toes.

UNGUIS, (*Unguis, is*, m. from its reſemblance to the lunated portion of the nail of the finger). *Onyx*. An abſceſs or collection of pus between the lamellæ of the cornea tranſparens of the eye.

UNGUIS OS. The lachrymal bone is ſo named, from its reſemblance to a nail of the finger. See *Lachrymal bone*.

UNGŬLA CABALLĪNA. See *Tuſſilago*.

UNIONES, (*Unio, onis*, m. pl. *uniones*, from *unus*, one; ſo called becauſe there is never more than one found in the ſame ſhell, or according to others, for that many being found in one ſhell not any one of them is like the other). See *Margarita*.

URĂCHUS, (*Urachus, i*, m. from ουρον, urine, and εχω, to contain). The ligamentous cord that ariſes from the baſis of the urinary bladder, which it runs along and terminates in the umbilical cord. In the fœtuſes of brute animals, which the ancients moſtly diſſected, it is a hollow tube and conveys the urine to the allantoid membrane.

UREDO, (*Uredo, inis*, f. from *uro*, to burn). An itching or burning ſenſation of the ſkin, which accompanies many diſeaſes. The nettle raſh is alſo ſo called.

URĒTER, (*Ureter, ĕris*, m. ουρητηρ, from ουρον, urine). The membranous canal which conveys the urine from the kidney to the urinary bladder; at its ſuperior part it is conſiderably the largeſt, occupying the greateſt portion of the pelvis of the kidney; it then contracts to the ſize of a gooſe-quill, and deſcends over the pſoas magnus muſcle and large crural veſſels into the pelvis, in which it perforates the urinary bladder very obliquely. Its internal ſurface is lubricated with mucus to defend it from the irritation of the urine in paſſing.

URETHRA, (*Urethra, æ*, f. ουρηθρα, from ουρον, the urine, becauſe it is the canal through which the urine paſſes). A membranous canal running from the neck of the bladder through the inferior part of the penis to the extremity of the glans penis, in which it opens by a longitudinal orifice, called the *meatus urinarius*. In this courſe it firſt paſſes through the proſtate gland, which portion is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *proſtatical urethra*; it then becomes much dilated, and is known by the name of the *bulbous part*, in which is ſituated a cutaneous eminence called the *caput gallinaginis* or *verumontanum*, around which are ten or twelve orifices of the excretory ducts of the proſtate gland, and two of the ſpermatic veſſels. The remaining part of the urethra contains a number of triangular mouths, which are the *lacunæ*, or openings of the excretory ducts of the mucous glands of the urethra.

Urina, (*Urina, æ*, ουρον, from ορουω, to rush out). See *Urine.*

Urinaria, (*Urinaria, æ*, f. so called from producing a copious evacuation of urine). See *Linaria.*

Urinary bladder. *Vesica urinaria.* A muscular sac, situated in the cavity of the pelvis; in men between the pubes and rectum; and in women between the pubes and uterus; which receives the urine, retains it a certain time, and then expels it. Its external coat is from the peritonæum; internally it is covered with a mucous membrane, which separates mucous from the blood to lubricate and defend it from the acrimony of the urine. Anatomists have distinguished this bladder into a fundus, body, and neck. It has arteries from the hypogastric and hæmorrhoidal; nerves from the intercostal and sacral; and its veins empty themselves into the hypogastric veins.

Urine, (*Urina, æ*, f. ουρον, from ορεω, to rush out). The saline liquid, secreted in the kidneys, and dropping down from them, guttatim, through the ureters, into the cavity of the urinary bladder.

The secretory organ is composed of the arterious vessels of the cortical substance of the kidneys, from which the urine passes through the uriniferous tubuli and renal papillæ, into the renal pelvis; whence it flows drop by drop, through the ureters, into the cavity of the urinary bladder: where, it is detained some hours, and at length, when *abundant*, eliminated through the urethra. The urine of an healthy man is divided in general into,

1. *Crude*, or that which is emitted one or two hours after eating; this is for the most part aqueous, and often vitiated by some foods, and,

2. *Cocted*, which is eliminated some hours after the digestion of the food, as that which is emitted in the morning after sleeping. This is generally in smaller quantity, thicker, more coloured, more acrid than at any other time. Of such cocted urine, the *colour* is usually citrine, and not unhandsome The *degree of heat* agrees with that of the blood; hence in atmospheric air it is warmer, as is perceived if the hand be washed with urine. The *specific gravity* is greater than water, and that emitted in the morning is always heavier than at any other time. The *smell* of fresh urine is not disagreeable. The *taste* is saltish and nauseous. The *consistence* is somewhat thicker than water. The *quantity* depends on that of the liquid drink, its diuretic nature, and the temperature of the air. *Properties* of healthy urine. 1. Fresh urine does not appear to be of an *acid* nor an *alkaline* nature; for it does not change the syrup of violets. 2. Mixed with fixed alkali and aqua calcis, it eructates volatile alkali. 3. Urine is neither coagulated by alcohol of wine, nor mineral acor: hence it is an aqueous liquor, not a serous one. 4. When cold, it is gradually rendered more turbid, and deposits a *sediment*, which, is again dissolved, if the urine be made warm. 5. *Evaporated* to the thickness of honey, it becomes, red, bitter, very acrid, but not alkaline, and is called *sapa of urine*; which, when evaporated to dryness, is called *extract of urine.* 6. Urine distilled to the consistence of honey, and suffered to *crystallize*, deposits *sal digestivus*, *microcosmic salt*, and *phosphorated* and *mineral alkali.*

The *changes of urine in the air*: Preserved in an open vessel, it remains pellucid for some time, and at length there is perceived at the bottom, a *nubecula*, or little cloud, consolidated as it were from the gluten. This nubecula encreases by degrees, occupies all the urine, and renders it opake. The natural smell is changed into a putrid *cadaverous* one; and the surface is now generally covered with

cuticle, compoſed of very minute ryſtals. At length the urine re-ains its tranſparency, and the *co-ur* is changed from a yellow to a rown; the cadaverous ſmell paſſes to an *alkaline*, and a brown, gru-ous *ſediment* falls to the bottom, fil-d with white particles, deliqueſcing the air, and ſo conglutinated as to rm, as it were, little ſoft calculi.

Thus *two ſediments* are diſtinguiſh-ble in the urine; the *one* white and elatinous, and ſeparated in the be-inning; the *other* brown and gru-ous, depoſited by the urine, when utrid.

Spontaneous degeneration: Of all the uids of the body, the urine firſt pu-refies. In ſummer, after a few hours becomes turbid, and ſordidly black; aen depoſits a copious ſediment, nd exhales a fetor, like that of pu-id cancers, which, at length becomes adaverous. Putrid urine effervefces ith acids, and if diſtilled, gives off, efore water, an urinous volatile ſpi-it.

The *conſtituent principles* of healthy rine, are,

1. *Water*, from twenty ounces; ineteen of a nauſeous, fetid water, ere obtained by diſtillation.

2. *The odorous principle* of urine, erceptible to the ſmell, and which, uring diſtillation, paſſes with the vater into the receiver.

3. *Phoſphorated ſoda.* The dry xtract of urine, well calcined, diſ-olved in water, and put to chryſtal-ize, depoſits a ſalt; which chemi-ally examined, conſiſts of mineral lkali and phoſphoric acid. This alt, digeſted with vinegar, loſes ſome art of its alkali; hence the ſalt hat remains is rendered more acid by he phoſphoric acid: and thus by ome is called the *acidum perlatum.*

4. *Phoſphorated volatile alkali.* If alcined extract of wine, diſſolved in pirit of wine, and filtered, be put to *hryſtallize*, chryſtals are formed; which conſiſt of volatile alkali with a ſmall quantity of mineral alkali, and phoſphoric acid. Hence it is of three kinds, and is called *microcoſmic* or *fuſible ſalt of urine.* This ſalt, burnt in a crucible, or upon burning coal, diſmiſſes its volatile alkali and is changed into a vitriform maſs, de-liqueſcing in the air; which, on ac-count of the mineral alkali contain-ed in it, is not pure acid of phoſpho-rous.

5. *Calculous matter*, depoſited in the form of browniſh red earthy glu-ten, from putreſcent urine, at the bottom and ſides of the chamber-pot. It conſiſts of *gluten*, *animal earth*, and the *lithic acid*; as the analyſis of *uri-nary calculous* ſhews.

6. *The extractive principle of urine.* From the liquid reſiduum of urinous ſapa, by chryſtallization, a ſaline li-quid is extracted, attracting the wa-ter from the atmoſphere, but other-wiſe not known. The remaining *ex-tractive principle* is ſoluble in water, and appears to be gelatinous.

7. *Sal digeſtivus*, *culinary ſalt*, and *animal earth* may be elixiviated from the incinerated carbone of diſtilled urine.

Products of the fire. Urine diſ-tilled *in balneo maris*, gives off a co-pious *water*, of a nauſeous fetor, and leaves an earthy reddiſh *extract.* This diſtilled by fire, exhibits *urinous ſpi-rit*, *volatile alkali*, and very fetid *em-pyreumatic oil*; and if the heat be greatly encreaſed, a ſmall portion of *phoſphorous.* At length a carbone re-mains, which incinerated, affords *ſal digeſtivus*, *culinary ſalt*, *phoſphorated ſoda*, and *calcareous earth.*

No liquor in the human body, however pure, is ſo variable in reſpect to *quantity* and *quality*, as the urine; for it varies,

1. *In reſpect to age:* In the *fœtus* it is inodorous, inſipid, and almoſt aqueous; but as the *infant* grows, it becomes more acrid and fetid; and in *old age* more particularly ſo.

2. *In reſpect to drink:* It is ſecreted

in greater quantity, and of a more pale colour, from cold and copious draughts. It becomes green from an infusion of Chinese tea, or the use of the pulp of Cassia.

3. *In respect to food:* From eating the heads of asparagus, or olives, it contracts a peculiar smell: from the fruit of the opuntia, it becomes red; and from fasting, turbid.

4. *In respect to medicines:* From the exhibition of rhubarb root, it becomes yellow; and from turpentine, a violet colour.

5. *In respect to the time of the year:* In the winter, the urine is more copious and aqueous; but in the summer from the encreased transpiration it is more sparing, higher coloured, and so acrid, that it sometimes becomes strangurious. The climate induces the same difference.

6. *In respect of the muscular motion of the body*: It is secreted more sparingly, and concentrated by motion; and is more copiously diluted, and rendered more crude, by rest.

7. *In respect of the affection of the mind:* Thus fright makes the urine pale.

Use: The urine is an excrementitous fluid, like lixivium, by which the human body is not only liberated from the superfluous water; but also from the superfluous salts, and animal earth: and is defended from corruption.

Lastly, The vis medicatrix naturæ sometimes eliminates many morbid and acrid substances with the urine; as may be observed in fevers, dropsies, &c.

URINE, RETENTION OF. A want of the ordinary secretion of urine. In retention of urine there is none secreted: in a suppression, the urine is secreted but cannot be voided.

URINE, SUPPRESSION OF. See *Ischuria.*

URSĪNA RADIX. The root of the plant called baldmoney. See *Meum athamanticum.*

URTĪCA, (*Urtica, æ*, f. *ab urendo*, because it excites an itching and pustules like those produced by fire). The common nettle. *Urtica dioica* of Linnæus. This plant is well known, and though generally despised as a noxious weed, has been long used for medical, culinary, and economical purposes. The young shoots in the spring possess diuretic and antiscorbutic properties, and are with these intentions boiled and eaten instead of cabbage greens.

URTĪCA DIOICA. The systematic name of the common stinging nettle. See *Urtica.*

URTĪCA MORTUA. See *Lamium album.*

URTĪCA PILULĬFĔRA. The systematic name of the pillbearing nettle. See *Urtica romana.*

URTĪCA ROMĀNA. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Urtica pilulifera* of Linnæus. The seed was formerly given against diseases of the chest, but is now deservedly forgotten. To raise an irritation in paralytic limbs the fresh plant may be employed as producing a more permanent sting than the common nettle.

URTĪCA URENS. The systematic name of a lesser nettle than the dioica, and possessing similar virtues.

URTICĀRĬA, (*Urticaria, æ*, f. from *urtica*, a nettle). *Febris urticata. Uredo. Purpura urticata. Scarlatina urticata.* The nettle rash. A species of exanthematous fever, known by pyrexia and an eruption on the skin like that produced by the sting of the nettle. The little elevations, called the nettle rash, often appear instantaneously, especially if the skin be rubbed or scratched, and seldom stay many hours in the same place, and sometimes not many minutes. No part of the body is exempt

om them; and where many of them
ſe together, and continue an hour
r two, the parts are often conſidera-
ly ſwelled, which particularly hap-
ens in the arms, face, and hands.
heſe eruptions will continue to in-
ſt the ſkin, ſometimes in one place
nd ſometimes in another, for one
r two hours together, two or three
mes a day, or perhaps for the great-
ſt part of twenty-four hours. In
me conſtitutions they laſt only a
w days, in others many months.

USNEA. *Muſcus cranii humani.* This moſs *Lichen ſaxatilis* of Linnæus, when growing on the human ſkull, was formerly in high eſtimation but now deſervedly forgotten.

UTERINE FURY. See *Nymphomania.*

UTĔRUS, (*Uterus, i,* m. ὑστέρα). *Matrix.* The womb. A ſpongy receptacle reſembling a compreſſed pear, ſituated in the cavity of the pelvis, above the vagina, and between the urinary bladder and rectum.

The form of the uterus reſembles that of an oblong pear flattened with the depreſſed ſides placed towards the oſſa pubis and ſacrum; but, in the unpregnated ſtate it becomes more oval, according to the degree of its diſtention. For the convenience of deſcription and for ſome practical purpoſes, the uterus is diſtinguiſhed into three parts. The fundus, the body, and the cervix; the upper part is called the fundus, the lower the cervix, the ſpace between them, the extent of which is undefined, the body. The uterus is about three inches in length, about two in breadth at the fundus and one at the cervix. Its thickneſs is different at the fundus and cervix, being at the former uſually either leſs than half an inch, and at the latter ſomewhat more; and this thickneſs is preſerved throughout pregnancy, chiefly by the enlargement of the veins and lymphatics; there being a ſmaller change in the ſize of the arteries. But there is ſo great a variety in the ſize and dimenſions of the uterus in different women, independent of the ſtates of virginity, marriage, or pregnancy, as to prevent any very accurate menſuration. The cavity of the uterus correſponds with the external form; that of the cervix leads from the os uteri, where it is very ſmall, in a ſtraight direction, to the fundus, where it is expanded into a triangular form, with two of the angles oppoſed to the entrance into the fallopian tubes; and at the place of junction between the cervix and the body of the uterus the cavity is ſmaller than it is in any other part. There is a ſwell, or fulneſs, of all the parts towards the cavity, which is ſometimes diſtinguiſhed by a prominent line running longitudinally through its middle. The villous coat of the vagina is reflected over the os uteri, and is continued into the membrane which lines the cavity of the uterus. The internal ſurface of the uterus is corrugated in a beautiful manner, but the rugæ, or wrinkles which are longitudinal, leſſen as they advance into the uterus, the fundus of which is ſmooth. In the intervals between the rugæ are ſmall orifices, like thoſe in the vagina, which diſcharge a mucus, ſerving beſides other purpoſes, that of cloſing the os uteri very curiouſly and perfectly during pregnancy. The ſubſtance of the uterus which is very firm, is compoſed of arteries, veins, lymphatics, nerves, and muſcular fibres, curiouſly interwoven and connected together by cellular membrane. The muſcular fibres are of a pale colour, and appear alſo in their texture ſomewhat different from muſcular fibres in other parts of the body. The arteries of the uterus are the ſpermatic and hypogaſtric. The ſpermatic arteries ariſe from the anterior part of the aorta, a little below the emulgents, and ſome times

from the emulgents. They pafs over the pfoæ mufcles behind the peritonæum, enter between the two laminæ or duplicatures of the peritonæum which form the broad ligaments of the uterus, and proceed to the uterus, near the fundus of which they infinuate themfelves, giving branches in their paffage to the ovaria and fallopian tubes. The hypogaftric arteries are on each fide a confiderable branch of the internal iliacs. They pafs to the fides of the body of the uterus fending off a number of fmaller branches, which dip into its fubftance. Some branches alfo are reflected upwards to the fundus uteri, which anaftomofe with the fpermatic arteries, and others are reflected downwards, fupplying the vagina. The veins which reconduct the blood from the uterus are very numerous, and their fize in the unimpregnated ftate is proportioned to that of the arteries; but their enlargement during pregnancy is fuch, that the orifices of fome of them, when divided, will admit even of the end of a fmall finger. The veins anaftomofe in the manner of the arteries which they accompanyout of the uterus, and then, having the fame names with the arteries fpermatic and hypogaftric, the former proceeds to the vena cava on the right fide, and on the left to the emulgent vein; and the latter to the internal iliac.

From the fubftance and furfaces of the uterus an infinite number of lymphatics arife which follow the courfe of the hypogaftric and fpermatic blood veffels. The firft pafs into the gland of the internal iliac plexus, and the other into the glands which are fituated near the origin of the fpermatic arteries. Of thefe Nuck firft gave a delineation.

The uterus is fupplied with nerves from the lower mefocolic plexus, and from two fmall flat circular ganglions, which are fituated behind the rectum. Thefe ganglions are joined by a number of fmall branches from the third and fourth facral nerves. The ovaria derive their nerves from the renal plexus. By the great number of nerves thefe parts are rendered very irritable, but it is by thofe branches which the uterus receives from the intercoftal, that the intimate confent between it and various other parts is chiefly preferved. The mufcular fibres of the uterus have been defcribed in a very different manner by anatomifts, fome of whom have aflerted, that its fubftance was chiefly mufcular, with fibres running in tranfverfe, orbicular, or reticulated order, whilft others have contended that there were no mufcular fibres whatever in the uterus. In the unimpregnated uterus, when boiled for the purpofe of a more perfect examination, the former feems to be a true repreffentation; and when the uterus is diftended towards the latter part of pregnancy, thefe fibres are very thinly fcattered; but they may be difcovered in a circular direction at the junction between the body and the cervix of the uterus, and furrounding the entrance of each fallopian tube in a fimilar order. Yet it does not feem reafonable to attribute the time of labour to its mufcular fibres only, if we are to judge of the power of a mufcle by the number of fibres of which it is compofed, unlefs it is prefumed that thofe of the uterus are ftronger than in common mufcles. With refpect to the glands of the uterus, none are difcoverable difperfed through its fubftance upon the inner furface of the cervix; between the rugæ there are lacunæ which fecrete mucus, and there are fmall follicles at the edge of the os uteri. Thefe laft are only obfervable in a ftate of pregnancy, when they are much enlarged. From the angles at the fundus of the uterus two proceffes of an irregularly round form,

iginate, called, from the name of e firſt deſcriber, the *fallopian tubes*. hey are about three inches in length, id, becoming ſmaller in their proeſs from the uterus, have an uneven, inged termination, called the fimiæ. The canal which paſſes through eſe tubes is extremely ſmall at their igin, but it is gradually enlarged, id terminates with a patulous orifice, e diameter of which is about one ird of an inch, ſurrounded by the nbriæ. It is alſo lined by a very ne vaſcular membrane, formed into rpentine plicæ. Through this nal, the communication between e uterus and ovaria is preſerved. he fallopian tubes are wrapped duplicatures of the peritonæum, hich are called the broad ligaments the uterus; but a portion of their tremities thus folded hangs looſe n each ſide of the pelvis. From ch lateral angle of the uterus, a tle before and below the fallopian bes, the *round ligaments* ariſe, hich are compoſed of arteries, ins, lymphatics, nerves, and a fibrous ucture. Theſe are connected togeer by cellular membrane, and the hole is much enlarged during pregncy. They receive their outward vering from the peritonæum, and ſs out of the pelvis through the ng of the external oblique muſcle the groin, where the veſſels ſubdide into ſmall branches, and termite at the mons veneris and contiious parts. From the inſertion of eſe ligaments into the groin, the aſon appears why that part geneſly ſuffers in all the diſeaſes and fections of the uterus, and why the guinal glands are in women ſo often und in a morbid or enlarged ſtate. he duplicatures of the peritonæum, which the fallopian tubes and ova- a are involved, are called the *broad aments* of the uterus. Theſe preent the entanglement of the parts, d are conductors of the veſſels and nerves as the meſentery is of thoſe of the inteſtines. Both the round and broad ligaments alter their poſition during pregnancy, appearing to riſe lower and more forward than in the unimpregnated ſtate. Their uſe is ſuppoſed to be that of preventing the deſcent of the uterus, and to regulate its direction when it aſcends into the cavity of the abdomen; but whether they anſwer theſe purpoſes may be much doubted. The uſe of the womb is for menſtruation, conception, nutrition of the fœtus, and parturition. The uterus is liable to many diſeaſes, the principal of which are *prolapſus uteri; procidentia uteri*, hydatids, dropſy of the uterus or tympanites uteri, moles, ulceration, &c.

UTERUS, RETROVERSION OF. By the term retroverſion, ſuch a change of the poſition of the uterus is underſtood, that the fundus is turned backwards and downwards upon its cervix, between the vagina and rectum, and the os uteri is turned forewards to the pubis, and upwards in proportion to the deſcent of the fundus, ſo that, by an examination *per vaginam*, it cannot be felt, or not without difficulty, when the uterus is retroverted. By the ſame examination there may alſo be perceived a large round tumour, occupying the inferior part of the cavity of the pelvis, and preſſing the vagina towards the pubis. By an examination *per anum* the ſame tumour may be felt, preſſing the rectum to the hollow of the ſacrum, and if both theſe examinations are made at the ſame time, we may readily diſcover that the tumour is confined between the vagina and rectum. Beſides the knowledge of the retroverſion which may be gained by theſe examinations, it is found to be accompanied with other very diſtinguiſhing ſymptoms. There is in every caſe, together with extreme pain, firſt a retention, and afterwards a ſuppreſſion, of urine;

and by the continuance of this distention of the bladder the tumour formed by it in the abdomen often equals in size, and resembles in shape, the uterus in the sixth or seventh months of pregnancy; but it is necessary to observe, that the suppression of urine is frequently absolute only before the retroversion of the uterus or during the time it is retroferted; for when the retroversion is completed, there is often a discharge of urine, so as to prevent an increase of the distention of the bladder, though not in a sufficient quantity to remove it. There is also an obstinate constipation of the bowels, produced by the pressure of the retroverted uterus upon the rectum, which renders the injection of a glyster very difficult, or even impossible. But it appears that all the painful symptoms are chiefly in consequence of the suppression of urine; for none of those parts, which are apt to sympathize in affections or diseases of the uterus are disturbed by its retroversion. The retroversion of the uterus has generally occurred about the third month of pregnancy, and sometimes after delivery it may likewise happen where the uterus is, from any cause, enlarged to the size it acquires about the third month of pregnancy, but not with such facility as in the pregnant state, because the enlargement is then chiefly at the fundus. If the uterus is but little enlarged, or if it be enlarged beyond a certain size, it cannot well be retroverted; for in the first case should the cause of a retroversion exist, the weight at the fundus would be wanting to produce it; and in the latter the uterus would be raised above the projection of the sacrum, and supported by the spine.

Uva passa major. *Passula major.* The raisin. The dried fruit of the *Vitis vinifera* of Linnæus. *Vitis foliis lobatis sinuatis nudis.* Class *Pentandria.* Order *Monogynia.* Raisins are prepared by immersing the fresh fruit into a solution of alkaline salt and soap lye, made boiling hot, to which is added some olive-oil, and a small quantity of common salt, and afterwards drying them in the shade. They are used as agreeable, lubricating, acescent sweets in pectoral decoctions, and for obtunding the acrimony of other medicines, and rendering them grateful to the palate and stomach. They are directed in the *decoctum hordei comp. tinctura sennæ,* and *tinctura cardamomi comp.*

Uva passa minor. *Passa corinthiaca.* The currants. The dried fruit of the *vitis corinthica.* Their virtues are similar to those of the *uva passa major.*

Uva ursi. Trailing arbutus, or bear-berry. *Arbutus uva ursi* of Linnæus. *Arbutus caulibus procumbentibus, foliis integerrimis.* Class *Decandria.* Order *Monogynia.* This plant, though employed by the ancients in several diseases requiring adstringent medicines, had almost entirely fallen into disuse until the middle of the present century, when it first drew the attention of physicians as a useful remedy in calculous and nephritic complaints, which diseases it appears to relieve by its adstringent qualities.

Uvĕa, (*Uvea, æ,* f. from *uva,* an unripe grape). The posterior lamina of the iris; so called, because in beasts, which the ancients chiefly dissected, it is of the colour of unripe grapes.

Uvula, (*Uvula, æ,* f. a dim. of *uva,* a grape). *Columella.* The small conical fleshy substance hanging in the middle of the *velum pendulum palati,* over the root of the tongue. It is composed of the common membrane of the mouth, and a small muscle resembling a worm which arises from the union of the

palatale bone, and descends to the tip of the uvula. It was called *Palato staphilinus* by Douglas, and *Staphilinus epistaphilinus* by Winslow. By its contraction the uvula is raised up.

Uvularia, (*Uvularia, æ*, f. from *uvula* because it cured diseases of the uvula). The plant which bears this epithet in some pharmacopœias is the *Ruscus hypoglossum* of Linnæus: it was formerly used against relaxation of the uvula, but now laid aside for more adstringent remedies.

V.

Vaccinium, (*Vaccinium, i*, n. quasi *baccinium*, from its berry). The moor berry.

Vaccinium myrtillus. The systematic name of the myrtle berry. See *Myrtillus*.

Vaccinium oxycoccos. The systematic name of the cranberry plant. See *Oxycoccos*.

Vaccinium vitis idæa. The systematic name of the red whortleberry. See *Vitis idæa*.

Vagina, (*Vagina, æ*, f.). *Vagina uteri*. That canal which leads from the pudendum or external orifice to the uterus, is called the vagina. It is somewhat of a conical form, with the narrowest part downwards, and is described as being five or six inches in length, and about two in diameter. But it would be more proper to say, that it is capable of being extended to those dimensions; for in its common state, the os uteri is seldom found to be more than three inches from the external orifice, and the vagina is contracted as well as shortened. The vagina is composed of *two coats*, the first or innermost of which is villous, interspersed with many excretory ducts, and contracted into plicæ, or small transverse folds, particularly at the fore and back part, but, by child bearing these are lessened or obliterated. The second coat is composed of a firm membrane, in which muscular fibres are not distinctly observeable, but which are endowed, to a certain degree, with contractile powers like a muscle. This is surrounded by cellular membrane, which connects it to the neighbouring parts. A portion of the upper and posterior part of the vagina is also covered by the peritonæum. The entrance of the vagina is constricted by muscular fibres, originating from the rami of the pubis, which run on each side of the pudendum, surrounding the posterior part, and executing an equivalent office, though they cannot be said to form a true sphincter.

The upper part of the vagina is connected to the circumference of the os uteri, but not in a straight line, so as to render the cavity of the uterus a continuation of that of the vagina. For the latter stretches beyond the former, and, being joined to the cervix, is reflected over the os uteri, which, by this mode of union, is suspended with protuberant lips in the vagina, and permitted to change its position in various ways and directions. When therefore these parts are distended and unfolded at the time of labour, they are continued into each other, and there is no part which can properly be considered as the precise beginning of the uterus or termination of the vagina.

The diseases of the vagina are, first, such an abbreviation and contraction as render it unfit for the uses for which it was designed

ſecondly, a coheſion of the ſides in conſequence of preceding ulceration: thirdly, cicatrices after an ulceration of the parts: fourthly, excreſcences: fifthly, fluor albus. This abbreviation and contraction of the vagina, which uſually accompany each other, are produced by original defective formation, and they are ſeldom diſcovered before the time of marriage, the conſummation of which they ſometimes prevent. The curative intentions are to relax the parts by the uſe of emollient applications, and to dilate them to their proper ſize by ſponge or other tents, or, which are more effectual, by bougies gradually enlarged. But the circumſtances which attend this diſorder are ſometimes ſuch as might lead us to form an erroneous opinion of the diſeaſe. A caſe of this kind, which was under Dr. Denman's care, from the ſtrangury, from the heat of the parts, and the profuſe and inflammatory diſcharge, was ſuſpected to proceed from venereal infection; and with that opinion the patient had been put upon a courſe of medicine compoſed of quickſilver for ſeveral weeks without relief. When ſhe applied to the Dr. he prevailed upon her to ſubmit to an examination, and found the vagina rigid, ſo much contracted as not to exceed half an inch in diameter, and not more than one inch and a half in length. The repeated, though fruitleſs, attempts which had been made to complete the act of coition, had occaſioned a conſiderable inflammation upon the parts, and all the ſuſpicious appearances before mentioned. To remove the inflammation ſhe was bled, took ſome gentle purgative medicines, uſed an emollient fomentation, and afterwards ſome unctuous applications; ſhe was alſo adviſed to live ſeparate from her huſband for ſome time. The inflammation being gone, tents of various ſizes were introduced into the vagina, by which it was diſtended, though not very amply. She then returned to her huſband, and in a few months became pregnant. Her labour, though ſlow, was not attended with any extraordinary difficulty. She was delivered of a full-ſized child, and afterward ſuffered no inconvenience. Another kind of conſtriction of the external parts ſometimes occurs, and which ſeems to be a mere ſpaſm. By the violence or long continuance of a labour, by the morbid ſtate of the conſtitution, or by the negligent and improper uſe of inſtruments, an inflammation of the external parts or vagina, is ſometimes produced in ſuch a degree as to endanger a mortification. By careful management this conſequence is uſually prevented, but in ſome caſes, when the conſtitution of the patient was prone to diſeaſe, the external parts have ſloughed away, and in others equal injury has been done to the vagina. But the effect of the inflammation is uſually confined to the internal or villous coat, which is ſometimes caſt off wholly or partially. An ulcerated ſurface being thus left, when the diſpoſition to heal has taken place, cicatrices have been formed of different kinds, according to the depth and extent of the ulceration; and there being no counteraction to the contractile ſtate of the parts, the dimenſions of the vagina become much reduced, or, if the ulceration ſhould not be healed, and the contractibility of the parts continue to operate, the ulcerated ſurfaces being brought together may cohere, and the canal of the vagina be perfectly cloſed.

Cicatrices in the vagina very ſeldom become an impediment to the connexion between the ſexes; when they do, the ſame kind of aſſiſtance is required as was recommended in the natural contraction or abbreviation of the part; they always give way to the preſſure of the head of the child in

he time of labour, though in many aſes with great difficulty. Sometimes the appearances may miſlead he judgment; for the above author vas called to a woman in labour, vho was thought to have become pregnant; the hymen remained unbroken; but, on making very particular inquiry, he diſcovered that his was her ſecond labour, and that he part which from its form and ſituation was ſuppoſed to be the hymen, with a ſmall aperture, was a cicatrice, r unnatural contraction of the entrance into the vagina, conſequent to n ulceration of the part after her ormer labour. Fungous excreſcenes ariſing from any part of the vaina or uterus have been diſtinguiſhed, hough not very properly, by the eneral term polypus. See *Polypus*.

VAGINA OF THE NERVES. The uter covering of the nerves. By ome it is ſaid to be a production of he pia mater only, and by others of he dura mater, becauſe it agrees ith it in tenacity, colour, and texure.

VAGINA OF THE TENDONS. A oſe membranous ſheath formed of ellular membrane, inveſting the tenons, and containing an unctuous ice, which is ſecreted by the veſſels f its internal ſurface. Ganglions are othing more than an accumulation f this juice.

VAGUM PAR. See *Parvagum*.

VALERIAN, CELTIC. See *Narus celtica*.

VALERIAN GARDEN. See *Valeriana major*.

VALERIAN, GREAT. See *Valeriana major*.

VALERIAN, LESSER. See *Valeriana ſylveſtris*.

VALERIAN, WILD. See *Valeana ſylveſtris*.

VALERĬĀNA CELTĬCA. The ſtematic name of the celtic nard. ee *Nardus celtica*.

VALERĬĀNA MAJOR. *Phu*. The garden valerian. The root of this plant, *valeriana phu* of Linnæus, is ſaid to be efficacious in removing rheumatiſm, eſpecially the ſciatica, and alſo inveterate epilepſies.

VALERĬĀNA MINOR. See *Valeriana ſylveſtris*.

VALERĬĀNA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the wild valerian. See *Valeriana ſylveſtris*.

VALERĬĀNA PHU. The ſyſtematic name of the garden valerian. See *Valeriana major*.

VALERĬĀNA SYLVESTRIS (*Valeriana, æ*, f. from *Valerius*, who firſt particularly deſcribed it). *Valeriana minor*. Officinal valerian. *Valeriana officinalis* of Linnæus. *Valeriana floribus triandris, foliis omnibus pinnatis*. Claſs *Triandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The root of this plant has been long extolled as an efficacious remedy in epilepſy, which cauſed it to be exhibited in a variety of other complaints termed nervous, in which it has been found highly ſerviceable. It is alſo in very general uſe as an antiſpaſmodic, and is exhibited in convulſive hyſterical diſeaſes. A ſimple and volatile tincture are directed in the pharmacopœias.

VALVE OF THE COLON. The end of the iliac portion of the ſmall inteſtine enters the large one obliquely, and projects ſomewhat within it, ſo as to form a kind of valve, called from its diſcoverer the valve of Tulpius, alſo the valve of the cœcum.

VALVES. (*Valva, æ*, f. from *valveo*, to fold up). Thin and tranſparent membranes, ſituated within certain veſſels, as arteries, veins, and abſorbents, whoſe office appears to be to prevent the contents of the veſſel from flowing back.

VALVES, SEMILUNAR. See *Semilunar valves*.

VALVES, TRICUSPID. See *Tricuſpid valves*.

VALVES, TRIGLOCHIN. See *Tricuſpid valves*.

VALVŬLA, (*Valvula, æ*, f. dim. of *valva*). A little valve.

VALVŬLA TULPĬI. See *Valve of the colon.*

VALVŬLA COLI. See *Valve of the colon.*

VALVŬLA EUSTACHĬI. A membranous ſemilunar valve, which ſeparates the right auricle from the inferior vena cava, firſt deſcribed by Euſtachius.

VALVŬLA TULPĬI. See *Valve of the colon.*

VALVŬLÆ CONNĪVENTES. The ſemilunar folds formed of the villous coat of the inteſtinum duodenum, and jejunum. Their uſe appears to be, to increaſe the ſurface of the inteſtines.

VALVŬLÆ MĪTRĀLES. See *Mitral valves.*

VALVŬLÆ SEMĬLUNARES. See *Semilunar valves.*

VALVŬLÆ TRICUSPĬDĀLES. See *Tricuſpid valves.*

VALVŬLÆ TRIGLOCHINES. See *Tricuſpid valves.*

VANELLOE. A long, flattiſh pod, containing under a wrinkled brittle ſhell, a reddiſh brown pulp, with ſmall ſhining black ſeeds. The plant which affords this fruit is the *Epidendrum vanilla*; *ſcandens, foliis ovato-oblongis nervoſis ſeſſilibus caulinis, cirrhis ſpi alibus* of Linnæus. Vanelloes have an unctuous aromatic taſte, and a fragrant ſmell like that of ſome of the finer balſams heightened with muſk. Although chiefly uſed as perfumes, they are ſaid to poſſeſs aphrodiſiac virtues.

VANELLOES. See *Vanilla.*

VANILLA. See *Vanelloe.*

VARI. See *Jonthi.*

VARICELLA, (*Varicella, æ*, f. a dim. of *varia*, the ſmall pox; ſo called from its being changeable). *Variola lymphatica.* The chicken-pox. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen; known by moderate ſynocha; pimples bearing ſome reſemblance to ſmall-pox, quickly forming puſtules, which contain a fluid matter, and after three or four days from their firſt appearance deſquamate.

VARICOCELE, (*Varicocele, es*, f. from *varix*, a diſtended vein, and κηλη, a tumour). A ſwelling of the veins of the ſcrotum or ſpermatic cord; hence it is divided into the *ſcrotal varicocele*, which is kown by the appearance of livid and tumid veins on the ſcrotum; and *varicocele of the ſpermatic cord*, known by feeling hard vermiform veſſels in the courſe of the ſpermatic cord. Varicocele moſtly ariſes from exceſſive walking, running, jumping, wearing of truſſes, and the like, producing at firſt a ſlight uneaſineſs in the part, which if not remedied continues advancing towards the loins.

VARIŎLA, (*Variola, æ*, f. from *varius*, changing colour, becauſe it diſfigures the ſkin). The ſmall-pox. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *pyrexiæ* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen; diſtinguiſhed by ſynocha; eruption of red pimples on the third day, which on the eighth day contain pus, and drying, fall off in cruſts.

It is a diſeaſe of a very contagious nature, ſuppoſed to have been introduced into Europe from Arabia, and in which there ariſes a fever, that is ſucceeded by a number of little inflammations in the ſkin, which proceed to ſuppuration, the matter formed thereby being capable of producing the diſorder in another perſon. It makes its attack on people of all ages, but the young of both ſexes are more liable to it than thoſe who are much advanced in life; and it may prevail at all the ſeaſons of the year, but in general is moſt prevalent in the ſpring and ſummer.

The ſmall-pox is diſtinguiſhed into the diſtinct and confluent, implying

that in the former, the eruptions are perfectly ſeparate from each other, and that in the latter, they run much into one another.

Both ſpecies are produced either by breathing air impregnated with the effluvia ariſing from the body of thoſe who labour under the diſeaſe, or by the introduction of a ſmall quantity of the variolus matter into the habit by inoculation; and it is probable that the difference of the ſmall-pox is not owing to any difference in the contagion, but depends on the ſtate of the perſon to whom it is applied, or on certain circumſtances concurring with the application of it.

A variety of opinions have been entertained reſpecting the effect of the variolous infection on the fœtus in utero; a ſufficient number of inſtances, however, has been recorded, to aſcertain that the diſeaſe may be communicated from the mother to the child. In ſome caſes, the body of the child at its birth has been covered with puſtules, and the nature of the diſeaſe has been moſt ſatisfactorily aſcertained by inoculating with matter taken from the puſtules. In other caſes, there has been no appearance of the diſeaſe at the time of the birth, but an eruption and other ſymptoms of the diſeaſe have appeared ſo early, as to aſcertain that the infection muſt have been received previouſly to the removal of the child from the uterus.

Four different ſtates or ſtages are to be obſerved in the ſmall-pox: firſt, the febrile; ſecond, the eruptive; third, the maturative; and fourth, that of declination or ſcabbing which is uſually known by the name of ſecondary fever. When the diſeaſe has ariſen naturally, and is of the diſtinct kind, the eruption is commonly preceded by a redneſs in the eyes, ſoreneſs in the throat, pains in the head, back, and loins, wearineſs and faintneſs, alternate fits of chillneſs and heat, thirſt, nauſea, inclination to vomit, and a quick pulſe.

In ſome inſtances, theſe ſymptoms prevail in a high degree, and in others they are very moderate and trifling. In very young children, ſtartings and convulſion are apt to take place a ſhort time previous to the appearance of the eruption, always giving great alarm to thoſe not converſant with the frequency of the occurrence.

About the third or fourth day from the firſt ſeizure, the eruption ſhews itſelf in little red ſpots (ſimilar to flea-bites) on the face, neck, and breaſt, and theſe continue to increaſe in number and ſize for three or four longer, at the end of which time, they are to be obſerved diſperſed over ſeveral parts of the body.

If the puſtules are not very numerous, the febrile ſymptoms will generally go off on the appearance of the eruption, or they will become very moderate. It ſometimes happens, that a number of little ſpots of an eryſipelatous nature are interſperſed amongſt the puſtules; but theſe generally go in again as ſoon as the ſuppuration commences, which is uſually about the fifth or ſixth day, at which period, a ſmall veſicle containing an almoſt colourleſs fluid, may be obſerved upon the top of each pimple. Should the puſtules be perfectly diſtinct and ſeparate from each other, the ſuppuration will, probably be completed about the eighth or ninth day, and they will then be filled with a thick yellow matter; but ſhould they run much into each other, it will not be completed till ſome days later.

When the puſtules are very thick and numerous on the face, it is apt about this time to become much ſwelled, and the eyelids to be cloſed up, previous to which, there uſually ariſes a hoarſneſs, and difficulty of ſwallowing, accompanied with a con-

ſiderable diſcharge of viſcid ſaliva. About the eleventh day, the ſwelling of the face uſually ſubſides, together with the affection of the fauces, and is ſucceeded by the ſame in the hands and feet, after which the puſtules break, and diſcharge their contents, and then becoming dry, they fall in cruſts, leaving the ſkin which they covered of a brown red colour, which appearance continues for many days. In thoſe caſes where the puſtules are large, and are late in becoming dry and falling off, the are very apt to leave pits behind them; but where they are ſmall, ſuppurate quickly, and are few in number, they neither leave any marks behind them, nor do they occaſion much affection of the ſyſtem.

In the confluent ſmall-pox, the fever which precedes the eruption is much more violent than in the diſtinct, being attended uſually with great anxiety, heat, thirſt, nauſea, vomiting, and a frequent and contracted pulſe, and often with coma or delirium. In infants, convulſive fits are apt to occur, which either prove fatal before any eruption appears, or they uſher in a malignant ſpecies of the diſeaſe.

The eruption uſually makes its appearance about the third day, being frequently preceded or attended with a roſy efflorescence, ſimilar to what takes place in the meaſles; but the fever, although it ſuffers ſome ſlight remiſſion on the coming out of the eruption, does not go off as in the diſtinct kind; on the contrary, it becomes increaſed after the fifth or ſixth day, and continues conſiderable throughout the remainder of the diſeaſe.

As the eruption advances, the face being thickly beſet with puſtules, becomes very much ſwelled, the eyelids are cloſed up, ſo as to deprive the patient of ſight, and a gentle ſalivation enſues, which towards the eleventh day is ſo viſcid as to be ſpit up with great difficulty. In children, a diarrhœa uſually attends this ſtage of the diſeaſe inſtead of a ſalivation, which is to be met with only in adults. The veſicles on the top of the pimples are to be perceived ſooner in the confluent ſmall-pox than in the diſtinct; but they never riſe to an eminence, being uſually flatted in; neither do they arrive to proper ſuppuration, as the fluid contained in them, inſtead of becoming yellow, turns to a brown colour.

About the tenth or eleventh day, the ſwelling of the face uſually ſubſides, and then the hands and feet begin to puff up and ſwell, and about the ſame time the veſicles break, and pour out a liquor that forms into brown or black cruſts, which, upon falling off, leave deep pits behind them that continue for life, and where the puſtules have run much into each other, they then diſfigure and ſcar the face very conſiderably.

Sometimes it happens that a putreſcency of the fluids takes place at an early period of the diſeaſe, and ſhews itſelf in livid ſpots interſperſed amongſt the puſtules, and by a diſcharge of blood by urine, ſtool, and from various parts of the body.

In the confluent ſmall-pox, the fever, which, perhaps, had ſuffered ſome ſlight remiſſion from the time the eruption made its appearance to that of maturation, is often renewed with conſiderable violence at this laſtmentioned period, which is what is called the ſecondary fever, and this is the moſt dangerous ſtage of the diſeaſe. It has been obſerved, even amongſt the vulgar, that the ſmall-pox is apt to appear immediately before or after the prevalence of the meaſles. Another curious obſervation has been made relating to the ſymptoms of theſe complaints, namely, that if, while a patient labours under the ſmall-pox, he is ſeized with the meaſles, the courſe of

the former is retarded till the eruption of the measles is finished. The measles appear, for instance, on the second day of the eruption of small-pox, the progress of this ceases till the measles terminate by desquamation, and then it goes on in the usual way. Several cases are however recorded in the Medical and Physical Journal, as likewise in the third volume of the Medical Commentaries, in which a concurrence of the small-pox and measles took place without the progress of the former being retarded. The distinct small-pox is not attended with danger, except when it attacks pregnant women, or approaches nearly in its nature to that of the confluent; but this last is always accompanied with considerable risk, the degree of which is ever in proportion to the violence and permanence of the fever, the number of pustules on the face, and the disposition to putrescency which prevails.

When there is a great tendency this way, the disease usually proves fatal between the eighth and eleventh day, but in some cases, death is protracted till the fourteenth or sixteenth. The confluent small-pox, although it may not prove immediately mortal, is very apt to induce various morbid affections.

Both kinds of small-pox leave behind them a predisposition to inflammatory complaints, particulaly to ophthalmia and visceral inflammations, but more especially of the thorax; and they not unfrequently excite scrophula into action which might otherwise have laid dormant in the system.

The regular swelling of the hands and feet upon that of the face subsiding, and its continuance for the due time, may be regarded in a favorable light.

The dissections which have been made of confluent small-pox, have never discovered any pustules internally on the viscera. From them it also appears that variolous pustules never attack the cavities of the body, except those to which the air has free access, as the nose, mouth, trachea, the larger branches of the bronchiæ, and the outermost part of the meatus auditorius. In cases of prolapsus ani, they likewise frequently attack that part of the gut which is exposed to the air. They have usually shewn the same morbid appearances inwardly, as are met with in putrid fever, where the disease has been of the malignant kind. Where the febrile symptoms have run high, and the head has been much affected with coma or delirium, the vessels of the brain appear, on removing the cranium and dura mater, more turgid, and filled with a darker coloured blood than usual, and a greater quantity of serous fluid is found, particularly towards the base of the brain. Under similar circumstances, the lungs have often a darker appearance, and their moisture is more copious than usual. When no inflammatory affection has supervened, they are most usually found.

VARIŎLÆ VACCĪNÆ. The cow-pox. Any pustulous disease affecting the cow, may be called the cow-pox: whether it arises from an over-distention of the udder, in consequence of a neglect of milking the cow, or from the sting of an insect, or any other cause. But the species which claims our particular attention is that which was recommended to the world by Dr. Jenner, in the year 1798, as a substitute for the small-pox. This, which originates from the grease in the horse's heel, is called the *genuine cow-pox*; all other kinds are *spurious*.

That the vaccine fluid, fraught with such unspeakable benefits to mankind, derives its origin from this humble source, however it may mortify human pride or medical vanity,

is confirmed by the obſervations and experiments of competent judges. For proofs of this aſſertion, the reader may conſult the works of Dr. Jenner; the Medical and Phyſical Journal; and a treatiſe on the ſubject by Dr. Loy, of which an analyſis is given in the Annals of Medicine for the year 1801; and Mr. Ring's work on this diſeaſe which contains the whole maſs of evidence that has appeared concerning it.

The genuine cow-pox appears on the teats of the cow, in the form of veſicles, of a blue colour approaching to livid. Theſe veſicles are elevated at the margin, and depreſſed at the centre. They are ſurrounded with inflammation. The fluid they contain is limpid. The animals are indiſpoſed; and the ſecretion of milk is leſſened. Solutions of the ſulphats of zinc and copper are a ſpeedy remedy for theſe puſtules; otherwiſe they degenerate into ulcers which are extremely troubleſome. It muſt however, be recollected, that much of the obſtinacy attending theſe caſes is owing to the friction of the puſtules, in conſequence of milking. It is probable, that a ſolution of ceruſſa acetata would be preferable to irritating applications.

Similar effects are produced in the hands of the milkers, attended with febrile ſymptoms, and ſometimes with tumours in the axilla. Other parts where the cuticle is abraded, or which are naturally deſtitute of that defence, are alſo liable to the ſame affection; provided active matter is applied. It even appears, that in ſome inſtances, puſtules have been produced by the application of vaccine virus to the ſound cuticle. One caſe of this kind may be found in a letter from Dr. Fowler of Saliſbury to Dr. Pearſon, publiſhed in the firſt work of Dr. Pearſon on this ſubject.

The ſpurious cow-pox is white; and another criterion is, that both in the brute animal, and in the human ſubject, when infected with the caſual cow-pox, the ſores occaſioned by the genuine ſpecies are more difficult to heal, than thoſe which are occaſioned by the ſpurious kind. It is of the utmoſt importance to diſtinguiſh the genuine from the ſpurious ſort, which is alſo in ſome degree infectious; ſince a want of ſuch diſcrimination would cauſe an idea of ſecurity againſt the ſmall pox, which might prove deluſive.

Dr. Jenner has elucidated one point of the firſt importance, relative to the genuine cow-pox itſelf. It had frequently been obſerved, that when this diſorder prevailed in a farm ſome of the perſons who contracted it by milking were rendered inſuſceptible of the ſmall-pox, while others continued liable to that infection. This is owing to the different periods, at which the diſeaſe was excited in the human ſubject; one perſon, who caught the diſeaſe while the virus was in an active ſtate, is rendered ſecure from variolous contagion; while another who received the infection of the cow-pox when it had undergone a decompoſition, is ſtill ſuſceptible of the ſmall-pox. This uncertainty of the prevention, whoſe value is beyond all calculation, is probably the reaſon why it was not before introduced into practice.

From the violent oppoſition which vaccine inoculation has met with, in conſequence of certain apparent failures in the caſual way, it may be doubted whether the public would ever have adopted the practice, had not this fallacy been detected by Dr. Jenner. To him alſo we are indebted for another diſcovery of the firſt importance, namely, that the puſtule excited in the human ſubject by vaccine matter, yields a fluid of a ſimilar nature with that which was in-

ſerted. This experiment, ſo eſſential to the general propagation of the practice, and ſo happy in its reſult, was never before attempted. It was reſerved to crown the labours of Dr. Jenner.

A conſiderable number of inſtances are on record, to prove that farriers and others who receive infection from the heel of a horſe, are either partly or totally deprived of the ſuſceptibility of the ſmall-pox. When Dr. Jenner firſt publiſhed an account of his diſcoveries, this point was enveloped in ſome degree of obſcurity. He then conceived, that the matter of greaſe was an imperfect preſervative againſt the ſmall-pox. This opinion was founded on the following circumſtance: It had been remarked, that farriers either wholly eſcaped the ſmall-pox, or had that diſtemper in a milder manner than other people. This, however, is eaſily reconcileable to reaſon, if we only ſuppoſe, that in ſome caſes the infection is communicated when the virus poſſeſſes all its prophylactic virtue; and in others, when its ſpecific quality is in ſome meaſure loſt.

This variation in the effects produced by the virus of the horſe, inclined Dr. Jenner to believe that it was modified, and underwent ſome peculiar alteration in the teats of the cow. He now concludes, that it is perfect when it excites the genuine diſeaſe in the cow; yet a conſiderable advantage is derived from its being transferred to the latter animal, whoſe nipples furniſh a more obvious and a more abundant ſource of this ineſtimable fluid, than its original element the horſe.

This theory, that the preſervative againſt variolous contagion is perfect when its iſſues from the fountain-head, and comes immediately from the hands of Nature, is conſonant with reaſon, and conſiſtent with analogy. Thus one obſtacle more to the univerſal adoption of the practice is removed.

Another point reſpecting vaccine inoculation, which has been much controverted, is the permanency of its effect. Inſtances have been known where perſons have eſcaped the ſmall-pox for a number of years, and yet have ultimately proved not inſuſceptible of its infection. When ſuch perſons had previouſly undergone the vaccine diſeaſe, their apparent ſecurity was erroneouſly aſcribed to that cauſe; but we have not even a ſhadow of proof, that the cow-pox poſſeſſes in the leaſt degree the property of a temporary prophylactic, ſince it appears not even to retard the eruption of the ſmall-pox, where previous infection has been received.

By this remark, it is not meant to be aſſerted, that it never ſuperſedes or modifies the ſmall-pox, for we have great reaſon to believe that ſuch beneficial effects often flow from vaccination; but where an eruption of the ſmall-pox actually takes place after vaccine inoculation, the two diſeaſes frequently co-exiſt, without retarding each other in the ſmalleſt degree. It is therefore contrary to all reaſon and analogy, to conſider the cow-pox as a mere temporary preſervative: it is nothing leſs than a perfect and permanent ſecurity againſt that terrible diſeaſe.

A number of caſes are recorded by Dr. Jenner, and other authors who have written on this ſubject, in which perſons who had received the cow-pox by caſual infection, twenty, thirty, forty, and fifty years before, ſtill continued inſuſceptible of variolous contagion, in whatever form it was applied.

As the cow-pox deſtroys the ſuſceptibility of the ſmall-pox, ſo the ſmall-pox deſtroys that of the cow-pox. To this general rule, however, a few exceptions are ſaid to have occurred. Certain it is, that a puſtule

has now and then been excited by the inſertion of vaccine virus, in thoſe who have had the ſmall-pox, and that this puſtule has been known to yield the genuine virus; but it is not equally certain that the puſtule has been perfect in all reſpects. Poſſibly it may have been defective in point of ſize or duration; in reſpect to its areola, or the limpidity of its contents. That ſuch a puſtule has, in ſome inſtances, yielded effectual virus, is admitted; but this is no more than what has often happened, in caſes where perſons who have had the ſmall-pox are a ſecond time ſubmitted to that infection in the ſame form.

The artificial cow-pox in the human ſubject is much milder than the caſual diſeaſe; and incomparably milder than the ſmall-pox, even under the form of inoculation. It neither requires medicine nor regimen; it may be practiſed at any ſeaſon of the year; and, not being infectious by effluvia, one perſon may be inoculated without endangering the life of another.

This affection produces no puſtulous eruptions. When ſuch attend vaccine inoculation, they are owing to ſome adventitious cauſe, ſuch as the ſmall-pox, which, it is well known, may co-exiſt with the cow-pox. The vaccine veſicle is confined to the parts where matter is inſerted; it is therefore entirely a local and an inoculated diſeaſe. Nevertheleſs it is certain, that eruptions of other kinds in ſome inſtances attend vaccine inoculation; ſuch as a nettle raſh, or an eruption reſembling a tooth raſh, but rather larger than what is commonly called by that name.

Among other ſingularities attending the cow-pox, the mildneſs of the diſeaſe, under the form of inoculation, has been urged as an argument againſt the practice, the cauſe appearing to ordinary comprehenſions, inadequate to the effect. This, it muſt be allowed, is the beſt apology that can be offered for ſepticiſm on that point; but it will weigh but little when put into the ſcale againſt actual obſervation, and incontrovertable fact. The efficacy of the cow-pox as a ſafeguard againſt the ſmall-pox, reſts, perhaps, on more extenſive evidence, and a more ſolid foundation, than any other axiom in the whole circle of medical ſcience can boaſt.

That the cow-pox is not infectious by effluvia, is naturally concluded from its never being communicated from one perſon to another in the dairies; where the diſeaſe is caſual, and appears under its worſt form. The ſame inference may be drawn from its never ſpreading in a family, when only one perſon is inoculated at a time. To confirm this propoſition more fully, the vaccine puſtules have been ruptured, and perſons who have never had the diſorder have been ſuffered to inhale the effluvia ſeveral times a day, but to no purpoſe. This is no more than might be expected, in an affection where the puſtulous appearance on the ſurface of the body is nearly local.

As to the conſtitutional indiſpoſition, it is ſeldom conſiderable, unleſs there is a complication of this with ſome other diſtemper; and whenever any unfavourable ſymptoms appear they may in general be traced to ſome other cauſe. We have indeed great reaſon to believe, that no ill conſequence ever ariſes from the cow-pox itſelf, unleſs from ignorance or neglect.

But notwithſtanding the ſymptoms are ſo mild, they frequently occur at a very early period. A drowſineſs which is one of the moſt common attendants of the diſeaſe, is often remarked by the parents themſelves, within forty eight hours after the matter is inſerted. In a majority of caſes, a ſlight increaſe of heat is per-

ceptible, together with an acceleration of the pulſe, and other ſigns of pyrexia; but not in ſuch a degree as to alarm the moſt timorous mother. Sometimes the patient is reſtleſs at nights; and now and then a caſe is met with, in which vomiting occurs, but in many caſes, no conſtitutional indiſpoſition whatever can be perceived. Even then, the cow-pox has never failed to prove an effectual preſervative againſt the ſmall-pox, provided the puſtule has been perfect.

This being the grand criterion of the ſecurity of the patient, too minute an attention cannot be paid to its riſe, progreſs, and decline. The beſt mode of inoculating is by making a very ſmall oblique puncture in the arm, near the inſertion of the deltoid muſcle, with the point of a lancet charged with fluid matter. In order to render infection more certain, the inſtrument may be charged again, and wiped upon the puncture.

In places where the patient is likely to be expoſed to variolous contagion, it is adviſeable to inoculate in more places than one, but, unleſs there is imminent danger of catching the ſmall-pox, it is better not to make more than one puncture in each arm, leſt too much inflammation ſhould enſue.

The vaccine fluid may be taken for inoculation as ſoon as a veſicle appears; but if the veſicle is punctured at a very early period, it is more apt to be injured. When virus is wanting for inoculating a conſiderable number, it is better to let the puſtule remain untouched till about the eighth day, by which time it has in general acquired a reaſonable magnitude. After that day, if the puſtule has made the uſual progreſs, the matter begins to loſe its virtue; but it may, in general, be uſed with ſafety, though with leſs certainty of producing infection, till the areola begins to be extenſive.

The firſt ſign of infection commonly appears on the third day. A ſmall red ſpot, rather elevated, may be perceived at the place where the puncture was made. Sometimes, however, the mark of infection having ſucceeded is not viſible till a much later period. It may be retarded, or even entirely prevented, by any other diſorder, ſuch as dentition, or any complaint attended with fever, or by extreme cold. Another frequent cauſe of a ſlow progreſs in the puſtule, or a total failure of ſucceſs, is debility. Sometimes it is impoſſible to diſcover any ſign of infection for above a fortnight. In this reſpect the cow-pox is ſubject to the ſame laws, and liable to the ſame variation, as the ſmall-pox.

When a conſiderable inflammation appears within two or three days after inoculation, there is reaſon to ſuſpect that infection has not taken place; and if ſuppuration enſues, that ſuſpicion ought, in general, to ſtand confirmed. Now and then, however, it happens, that after the ſpurious puſtule, or, more properly ſpeaking, the phlegmon, has run its courſe, which is within a few days, a veſicle begins to appear, bearing every characteriſtic of the genuine vaccine diſeaſe, and yielding a limpid and efficient virus for future inoculations. In this caſe the patient is as perfectly ſecured from all danger of the ſmall-pox, as if no feſtering of the puncture had preceded. The occurrence of ſuch a caſe, though rare, is worthy to be recorded; becauſe ſome practitioners have concluded a ſpurious puſtule to be a certain proof of failure.

The areola commonly begins to be extenſive on the ninth day, and to decline about the eleventh or twelfth. At this period alſo the puſtule begins to dry; the firſt ſign of which is a brown ſpot in the centre. In proportion as this increaſes,

the ſurrounding efflorescence decreaſes, till at length nothing remains but a circular ſcab, of a dark brown mahogany colour, approaching to black. Sometimes it reſembles the ſection of a tamarind ſtone; and it often retains the depreſſion in the centre, which characteriſes this diſeaſe before exſiccation takes place.

Inſtances have been known, where the vaccine puſtule, though regular, and perfect in all other reſpects, has been totally deſtitute of areola; at leaſt, where neither the medical practitioner, on viſiting the patient, nor the attendants, have remarked any appearance of that ſymptom. In theſe caſes, the patient has proved as inſuſceptible of variolous infection, as if the ſurrounding efflorescence had covered the whole arm. It muſt, however, be confeſſed, that we have no proof of the non-exiſtence of an areola in theſe caſes. It might have been trivial; it might have been tranſient; yet it might have been effectual. There is, however, greater reaſon to believe, that the ſurrounding efflorescence, though uſually a concomitant circumſtance, is not an eſſential requiſite to the vaccine diſeaſe.

If by any accident the veſicle is ruptured, ſuppuration often enſues. In this caſe more attention than ordinary ought to be paid to the progreſs, and to all the phenomena of the local affection; both on account of the uncertainty of ſucceſs in the puſtule, as a prophylactic; and the greater probability of tedious ulceration.

If there is room for the leaſt doubt of the ſufficiency of the firſt inoculation, a ſecond ought to be performed without delay. This, if unneceſſary, is ſeldom attended with inconvenience, and never with danger. Either no effect is produced, or a ſlight feſtering, which terminates in a few days. An exception occurs, but rarely, where a ſpurious, or, perhaps, even a genuine puſtule, takes place, in thoſe perſons who are known to have had the cow-pox or the ſmall-pox already; but this cannot be the leaſt cauſe of alarm to any one who knows the benign character of the diſtemper.

Various topical applications, both ſtimulant and ſedative, have been recommended, in order to allay the violence of inflammation. If the operation of inſition of matter is not unneceſſarily ſevere, nor the puſtule irritated by friction or preſſure, or other violence, no ſuch applications are neceſſary. Nevertheleſs, if either the anxiety of the profeſſional man, or the importunity of a tender parent, ſhould demand a deviation from this general rule, any of the following remedies may be had recourſe to. The puſtule may be touched with diluted ſulphuric acid; which ſhould be permitted to remain on the part half a minute, and then be waſhed off with a ſponge dipped in cold water. This has been ignorantly, or artfully, called an eſcharotic; but any one who tries the application will ſoon diſcover, that its operation is mild and harmleſs.

To avoid cavil and miſrepreſentation, it is better to apply a ſaturnine lotion; either made with aq. litharg. comp. or ceruſſa acetata. compreſſes, dipped in ſuch a lotion, may be applied at any time when inflammation runs high, and renewed as occaſion requires.

If the puſtule ſhould chance to be broken, a drop of aq. litharg. acet. undiluted, may be applied as an exſiccant; but if ulceration threatens to become obſtinate, or extenſive, a mild cataplaſm is the beſt reſource. In caſe the ulceration is only ſuperficial, and not attended with immoderate inflammation, a bit of any adheſive plaiſter, ſpread on linen, will prove the moſt convenient dreſ-

ſing, and ſeldom fail of ſucceſs. It will, in general, be unneceſſary to renew it oftener than every other day.

Theſe minute obſervations no one will deſpiſe, unleſs there be any perſon ſo ignorant as not to know, that the care of the arm is almoſt the whole duty of the medical practitioner in vaccine inoculation; and that nothing diſguſts the public ſo much againſt the practice, as a ſore arm, and the ill conſequences which, from a neglect of that ſymptom, too often enſue.

When fluid virus cannot be procured, it is neceſſary to be cautious how it is preſerved in a dry ſtate. The moſt improper mode is that of keeping it on a lancet; for the metal quickly ruſts, and the vaccine matter becomes decompoſed. This method, however, is as likely to ſucceed as any, when the matter is not to be kept above two or three days. If the virus be taken on glaſs, care muſt be taken not to dilute it much; otherwiſe it will in all probability fail.

Cotton thread is a very commodious vehicle. If it is intended to be ſent to any conſiderable diſtance, it ought to be repeatedly dipped in the virus. No particular caution is neceſſary with regard to the excluſion of air; nevertheleſs, as it can be done with ſo little trouble, and is more ſatisfactory to thoſe who receive the matter, it is better to comply with the practice. On this account it may be incloſed in a glaſs tube, or in a tobacco pipe ſealed at each end, or between two ſquare bits of glaſs, which may, if neceſſary, be alſo charged with the matter, and wrapped in gold-beater's ſkin.

Nothing is more deſtructive to the efficacy of cow-pock matter than heat: on this account it muſt not be dried near the fire, nor kept in a warm place. The advantage of inſerting it in a fluid ſtate is ſo great, that it is to be wiſhed every practitioner would endeavour to keep a conſtant ſupply for his own uſe, by inoculating his patients in ſucceſſion, at ſuch periods as are moſt likely to anſwer that purpoſe.

The rapidity with which this practice now ſpreads in various parts of the globe, juſtifies our cheriſhing a hope, that it will ere long extinguiſh that moſt dreadful peſtilence, and perpetual bane of human felicity, the ſmall-pox.

VARIX, (*Varix, icis*, m. from *varus*, i. e. *obtortus*). A dilatation of a vein. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *tumores* of Cullen; known by a ſoft tumour on a vein which does not pulſate. Varicoſe veins moſtly become ſerpentine, and often form a plexus of knots, eſpecialy in the groins and ſcrotum.

VAS DEFERENS (*Vas, is*, n. and *deferens*, from *defero*, to convey) A duct which ariſes from the epididymis, and paſſes through the inguinal ring in the ſpermatic cord into the cavity of the pelvis, and terminates in the veſiculæ ſeminales. Its uſe is to convey the ſemen ſecreted in the teſticle, and brought to it by the epididymis into the veſiculæ ſeminales.

VASA BREVĬA. The arteries which come from the ſpleen, and run along the large arch of the ſtomach to the diaphragm.

VASA DEFERENTĬA. See *Vas deferens*.

VASA VORTICŌSA. The contorted veſſels of the choroid membrane.

VASTUS EXTERNUS, (*Vaſtus*, ſo called from its ſize). This large, thick, and fleſhy muſcle is ſituated on the outer ſide of the thigh: it ariſes, by a broad thick tendon, from the lower and anterior part of the great trochanter, and upper part of the linea aſperia; it likewiſe adheres by fleſhy fibres, to the whole outer edge of that rough line. Its fibres

deſcend obliquely forwards, and after it has run four or five inches downwards, we find it adhering to the anterior ſurface and outer ſide of the cruræus, with which it continues to be connected to the lower part of the thigh, where we ſee it terminating in a broad tendon, which is inſerted into the upper part of the patella laterally, and ſends off an aponeuroſis that adheres to the head of the tibia, and is continued down the leg.

VASTUS INTERNUS. This muſcle, which is leſs conſiderable than the vaſtus externus, is ſituated at the inner ſide of the thigh, being ſeparated from the laſt deſcribed muſcle by the rectus.

It ariſes tendinous and fleſhy from between the fore-part of the os femoris, and the root of the leſſer trochanter, below the inſertion of the pſoas magnus, and the iliacus internus; and from all the inner ſide of the linea aſpera. Like the vaſtus externus it is connected with the cruræus, but it continues longer fleſhy than that muſcle. A little above the knee we ſee its outer edge uniting with the inner edge of the rectus, after which it is inſerted tendinous into the upper part and inner ſide of the patella, ſending off an aponeuroſis which adheres to the upper part of the tibia.

VEINS, (*Vena, æ*, f. from *venio*, to come, becauſe the blood comes through it). Long membranous canals, which continually become wider, do not pulſate, and return the blood from the arteries to the heart. All veins originate from the extremities of arteries only, by anaſtomoſis, and terminate in the auricles of the heart; *e. g.* the vena cava in the right, and the pulmonary veins in the left auricle. They are compoſed, like arteries, of three tunics or coats, which are much more ſlender than in the arteries, and are ſupplied with ſemilunar membranes or folds called valves. Their uſe is to return the blood to the heart.

The blood is returned from every part of the body into the right auricle: the vena cava ſuperior receives it from the head, neck, thorax, and ſuperior extremities: the vena cava inferior from the abdomen and inferior extremities: and the coronary vein receives it from the coronary arteries of the heart.

The vena cava ſuperior: This vein terminates in the ſuperior part of the right auricle, into which it evacuates the blood, from the *right* and *left ſubclavian veins*, and the *vena azygos*. The right and left ſubclavian veins receive the blood from the head and upper extremities, in the following manner. The veins of the fingers, called *digitals*, receive their blood from the digital arteries, and empty it into,

1. The *cephalic of the thumb*, which runs on the back of the hand along the thumb, and evacuates itſelf into the external radial.

2. The *ſalvatella*, which runs along the little finger, unites with the former, and empties its blood into the internal and external cubital veins. At the bend of the fore-arm are three veins, called the great cephalic, the baſilic, and the median.

The *great cephalic* runs along the ſuperior part of the fore-arm, and receives the blood from the external radial.

The *baſilic* aſcends on the under ſide, and receives the blood from the *external* and *internal cubital veins*, and ſome branches which accompany the brachial artery, called *venæ ſatellitum*.

The *median* is ſituated in the middle of the fore-arm, and ariſes from the union of ſeveral branches. The three veins all unite above the bend of the arm, and form

The *brachial vein*, which receiv

d their blood, and is continued into he axilla, where it is called

The *axillary vein:* This receives ſo the blood from the ſcapula, and perior and inferior parts of the neſt, by the *ſuperior* and *inferior oracic vein*, the *vena muſcularis*, and ne *ſcapularis*.

The axillary vein then paſſes un- er the clavicle, where it is called the *bclavian*, which unites with the ex- rnal and internal jugular veins, and ne vertebral vein which brings the ood from the vertebral ſinuſes; it ceives alſo the blood from the *me- aſtinal*, *pericardiac*, *diaphragmatic*, *ymic*, *internal mammary* and *laryn- al* veins, and then unites with its llow, to form the vena cava ſupe- or, or, as it is ſometimes called, *na cava deſcendens*.

The blood from the external and ternal parts of the head and face is turned in the following manner to the external and internal jugu- rs, which terminate in the ſubcla- ans.

The *frontal*, *angular*, *temporal*, *au- cular*, *ſublingual*, and *occipital* veins ceive the blood from the parts after hich they are named; theſe all con- rge to each ſide of the neck, and rm a trunk, called the *external ju- ular vein*.

The blood from the ellum, medulla oblo anes of theſe parts, e lateral ſinuſes, or ater, one of which rough the foram anii into the *int* ſcends in the teries, receive *yroideal* and *in* d empties it s within the

The vena ood from t ophageal, *ve ins*, and emp va.

Vena cava inferior: The vena cava inferior is the trunk of all the abdominal veins and thoſe of the lower extremities, from which parts the blood is returned in the following manner. The veins of the toes, called the *digital veins*, receive the blood from the digital arteries, and form on the back of the foot three branches, one on the great toe called the *cephalic*, another which runs along the little toe, called the *vena ſaphena*, and on the back of the foot, *vena dorſalis pedis*; and on the ſole of the foot they evacuate themſelves into the *plantar veins*.

The three veins on the upper part of the foot coming together above the ankle, form the *anterior tibial*; and the plantar veins with a branch from the calf of the leg, called the *ſural vein*, form the *poſterior tibial*; a branch alſo aſcends in the direction of the fibula, called the *peroneal vein*. Theſe three branches unite before the ham, into one branch, the *ſubpopliteal vein*, which aſcends through the ham, carrying all the blood from the foot: it then proceeds upon the anterior part of the thigh, where it is termed the *crural* or *femoral vein*, receives ſeveral muſcular branches, and paſſes under Poupart's ligament is, where it

ſpermatic veins, and the *vena cava hepatica*; and having arrived at the diaphragm, it paſſes through the right foramen, and enters the right auricle of the heart, into which it evacuates, all the blood from the abdominal viſcera and lower extremities.

Vena cava hepatica: This vein ramifies in the ſubſtance of the liver, and brings the blood into the vena cava inferior from the branches of the *vena portæ*, a great vein which carries the blood from the abdominal viſcera into the ſubſtance of the liver. The trunk of this vein, about the fiſſure of the liver in which it is ſituated, is *divided* into the hepatic and abdominal portions. The *abdominal portion* is compoſed of the *ſplenic*, *meſeraic*, and *internal hæmorrhoidal veins*. Theſe three venous branches carry all the blood from the ſtomach, ſpleen, pancreas, omentum, meſentery, gall-bladder, and the ſmall and large inteſtines, into the *ſinus* of the vena portæ. The *hepatic portion* of the vena portæ enters the ſubſtance of the liver, divides into innumerable ramifications, which ſecrete the bile, and the ſuperfluous blood paſſes into correſponding branches of the *venæ cavæ hepaticæ*.

The *action of the veins:* Veins do not pulſat[illegible] recr[illegible]

rendered it neceſſary for the unfortunate Indians and Negroes, who traverſe the woods almoſt always barefooted, to ſearch out the moſt efficacious remedies for the diſagreeable effects produced by the bite of theſe animals. Of the remedies hitherto diſcovered, none is equal to the juice of a plant of the creeping kind, called vejuco du guaco, for it not only cures the maladies ariſing from the bite of ſerpents, but preſerves from their effects thoſe who have drunk of it before they are bitten; ſo that the Negroes and Indians acquainted with this plant, lay hold with their naked hands, of the moſt venemous ſerpents without ſuſtaining any injury from them. This knowledge, of which they formerly made a great myſtery, gave them much importance in the country, and there is no doubt that they gained a great deal of money, both from thoſe who were bitten by ſerpents, and from thoſe who were deſirous, through curioſity, to ſee them handle theſe dangerous animals.

Being born in the kingdom of Santa-Fé, belonging to South America, I had often heard the inhabitants boaſting of the great ability of theſe Negroes, whom my country[illegible] all empirics. But as in the [illegible]ere I was educated, which [illegible]d diſtrict, there are no [illegible]nts, I had no oppor[illegible]ny till the year 1788, [illegible]argerita, I heard of [illegible]a great reputation [illegible]le to ſerpents, and [illegible] gentleman of that [illegible]ſolved to examine [illegible]ed his maſter to [illegible]a ſufficient pro[illegible]hich he readily [illegible]n the 30th of [illegible]ar, the Negroe [illegible]where I reſided [illegible]ſt venemous ſer[illegible]ſ, which he had

put into a calabaſh; a kind of veſſel employed by theſe people for the ſame purpoſes as bottles are employed in Europe. Having informed him that I was deſirous of ſeeing a ſpecimen of his talents, he replied that he was ready to gratify my curioſity, and taking the ſerpent from the calabaſh, handled it with ſo much confidence and compoſure, that I imagined he had previouſly deprived it of its teeth that contained the poiſon. I therefore cauſed him to open its mouth, but I ſaw that it ſtill had its teeth; and was convinced that the negro poſſeſſed ſome ſecret for ſoothing it, for it appeared as tame and harmleſs as the moſt innocent animal could have been. After a long converſation with the negro, of whom I aſked ſeveral queſtions, to which he gave the moſt pertinent anſwers, I informed him how much I ſhould be gratified if I could be enabled to handle ſerpents with the ſame ſecurity; and finding that he was not averſe to procure me that ſatisfaction, I offered him a recompence, with which he ſeemed ſatisfied. Next morning he returned with the leaves of the plant in queſtion, which he moiſtened, and, having bruiſed them in my preſence, made me drink two large ſpoonfuls of the juice. He then made three inciſions between my fingers in each hand, in which he inoculated me with the ſame juice; he performed a ſimilar operation on each foot, and on each ſide of my breaſt. When theſe operations were finiſhed he informed me that I might lay hold of the ſerpent. I made ſeveral obſervations to him in regard to the diſagreeable conſequences to be apprehended in caſe I ſhould be bit by the animal; but finding that he ſeemed confident in his ſkill, I reſolved to take it into my hands without any fear, which I did ſeveral times, the animal never making the leaſt attempt to do me any injury. One of the individuals, however, who were in my houſe being deſirous to run the ſame riſk, was bit by the ſerpent the ſecond time he took it in his hands; but without any further inconvenience than a ſlight inflammation in the parts. Two of my domeſtics who had been alſo inoculated, encouraged by this firſt attempt went out into the fields and ſoon brought with them another kind of ſerpent equally venemous, without ſuſtaining any hurt from it. In a word, I have caught ſeveral ſince that time without any other preparation than that of having drank a little juice of the vejuco du guaco; and after repeating theſe trials, either on myſelf or my domeſtics, and always with the completeſt ſucceſs, I reſolved in 1791 to give a memoir on this remarkable antidote in a periodical paper publiſhed every week at Santa-Fé. I added a deſcription of the plant, and every thing that appeared to me neceſſary for rendering public and general this diſcovery ſo uſeful to mankind. An account of all my experiments, and of the perſons who were preſent, will be found in that paper, dated Sept. 30, 1791.

I ſhall here only obſerve, that the tradition current among the Indians and negroes of the vice-royſhip of Santa-Fé, reſpecting the manner in which the virtue of this plant was diſcovered, is as follows: A bird of the kite kind, deſcribed by Cateſby under the name of the ſerpent-hawk, feeds chiefly upon ſnakes in the hot and temperate regions of that part of America. This bird has a monotonous cry, ſometimes very diſagreeable by its repetition, which imitates the articulated word guaco, on which account the inhabitants have given it that name; and theſe people ſay that when it cries it is to call forth the ſerpents, over which it exerciſes a certain kind of authority. They add other extravagant fables; but it is

certain that the guaco purſues them wherever it finds them, and that the Indians and negroes, who ſpend the greater part of their time in the foreſts and open fields, aſſert, that to take them with more ſafety they prepare themſelves by eating ſome leaves of the plant in queſtion. This may be true; they may have diſcovered the virtue of it, and experienced it with ſucceſs. In this caſe, as in many others, the inſtinct of animals has been of uſe to us.

In regard to the plant, its genus has not yet been claſſed in any book of botany I have ever ſeen; and for that reaſon I ſhall venture to give a deſcription of it as well as I can, taking advantage of the memoir above mentioned. The root is fibrous, and extends in every direction; the ſtem is ſtraight, perfectly cylindric when the plant is tender, but when old becomes pentagonal, that is to ſay, acquires ſalient angles. The leaves which grow on the ſtem ſtand oppoſite to each other, are ſhaped like a heart, have a dark green colour, intermixed with violet; are ſmooth on the lower ſide, rough on the upper, and ſomewhat velvety; its corymbiferous flowers are yellow, floſculous, and have four florets on each common calyx. The corolla is monopetalous, infundibuliform, with five indentations, and contains five ſtamina, united by antheræ in the form of cylinders, which embrace the ſtyle. The ſtyle has a ſtigma deeply divided, and the calyx contains ſeveral broad ſeeds each with a ſilky aigrette.

The plant is vivacious, and is found in the hot and temperate regions of the vice-royſhip of Santa-Fé; it is, in general, found growing on the borders of rivulets and in ſhady places, rather than in the open plains. Nature has not produced it in the elevated or cold diſtricts of this continent; and for this reaſon, no doubt, that its virtue would be uſeleſs, at there are no venomous ſerpents but in the countries where it grows."

VELUM PENDŬLUM PALATI. *Velum. Velum palatinum.* The ſoft palate. The ſoft part of the palate, which forms two arches, affixed laterally to the tongue and pharynx.

VENA AZŸGOS. *Vena ſine pari.* See *Azygos vein.*

VENA MEDINENSIS. See *Medinenſis vena.*

VENA PORTÆ, (*Vena portæ, a portando*, becauſe through it things are carried). *Vena portarum.* The great vein, ſituated at the entrance of the liver, which receives the blood from the abdominal viſcera, and carries it into the ſubſtance of the liver. It is diſtinguiſhed into the *hepatic* and *abdominal* portion: the former is ramified through the ſubſtance of the liver, and carries the blood deſtined for the formation of bile, which is returned by branches to the trunk of the vena cava; the latter is compoſed of three branches; viz. the ſplenic, meſenteric, and internal hæmorrhoidal veins. See *Veins.*

VENÆ LACTÆ. The lacteal abſorbents were ſo called. See *Lacteals.*

VENEREAL DISEASE. See *Gonorrhœa* and *Syphilis.*

VENTER, (*Venter, ris,* m.) A term formerly applied to the larger circumſcribed cavities of the body, as the abdomen and thorax.

VENTRICLES. A term given by anatomiſts to the cavities of the brain and heart. See *Cerebrum* and *Heart.*

VENTRICŬLUS PULMONĀRIS. The right ventricle of the heart.

VENTRICŬLUS SUCCENTURIĀTUS. That portion of the duodenum, which is ſurrounded by the peritoneum, is ſometimes ſo large as to reſemble a ſecond ſtomach, and is ſo called by ſome writers.

VENUS. Copper was formerly ſo called by the chemiſts.

VERATRUM. See *Helleborus albus.*

VERATRUM ALBUM. See *Helleborus albus.*

VERATRUM NIGRUM. See *Helleborus niger.*

VERBASCUM, (*Verbaſcum*, *i*, n. quaſi *barbaſcum*, from its hairy coat). *Tapſus barbatus. Candelaria. Lanaria.* Mullein. Two plants, the *Verbaſcum nigrum* and *Verbaſcum thapſus*, appear to be ordered indifferently by this name in the pharmacopœias. The flowers, leaves, and roots, are uſed occaſionally as mild adſtringents. The leaves poſſeſs a roughiſh taſte, and promiſe to be of ſervice in diarrhœas and other debilitated ſtates of the inteſtines.

VERBASCUM NIGRUM. The ſyſtematic name of the black mullein. See *Verbaſcum.*

VERBASCUM THAPSUS. The ſyſtematic name of the yellow mullein. See *Verbaſcum.*

VERBĒNA, (*Verbena*, *æ*, f. quaſi *herbena*, a name of diſtinction for all herbs uſed in ſacred rites). *Verbenaca. Periſterium. Hierobotane. Herba ſacra.* Vervain. This plant *Verbena officinalis* of Linnæus, is deſtitute of odour, and to the taſte manifeſts but a ſlight degree of bitterneſs and adſtringency. In former times the verbena ſeems to have been held ſacred, and was employed in celebrating the ſacrificial rites; and with a view to this, more than the natural power of the plant, it was worn ſuſpended about the neck as an amulet.

This practice, thus founded on ſuperſtition, was, however, in proceſs of time, adopted in medicine; and therefore to obtain its virtues more effectually, the vervain was directed to be bruiſed before it was appended to the neck; and of its good effects thus uſed for inveterate head-aches, Foreſtus relates a remarkable inſtance. In ſtill later times it has been employed in the way of cataplaſm, by which we are told the moſt ſevere and obſtinate caſes of cephalagia have been cured, for which we have the authorities of Etmuller, Hartmann, and more eſpecially De Hean. Notwithſtanding theſe teſtimonies in favour of vervain, it has deſervedly fallen into diſuſe in Britain; nor has the pamphlet of Mr. Morley written profeſſedly to recommend its uſe in ſcrophulous affections, had the effect of reſtoring its medical character. This gentleman directs the root of vervain to be tied with a yard of white ſattin ribband round the neck, where it is to remain till the patient recovers. He alſo has recourſe to infuſions and ointments prepared from the leaves of the plant, and occaſionally calls in aid the moſt active medicines of the Materia Medica.

VERBĒNA FÆMĬNA. The hedge muſtard is ſometimes ſo called. See *Eryſimum.*

VERBĒNA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of vervain. See *Verbena.*

VERDIGRIS. See *Æruge.*

VERMES. See *Worms.*

VERMICULĀRIS. See *Illecebra.*

VERMIFORM PROCESS. *Protuberantia vermiformis.* The ſubſtance which unites the two hemiſpheres of the cerebellum like a ring, forming a proceſs. It is called *vermiform*, from its reſemblance to the contortions of worms.

VERMIFUGES, (*Vermifuga*, from *vermis*, a worm, and *fugo*, to drive away). See *Anthelmintics.*

VERMILLION. See *Cinnabar.*

VERMIS TERRESTRIS. See *Earth worm.*

VERONĬCA. *Veronica mas. Thea Germanica. Betonica pauli.* This plant, the *Veronica officinalis; ſpicis lateralibus; pedunculatis foliis oppoſitis; caule procumbente* of Linnæus, is not unfrequent on dry barren grounds and heaths, as that of Hampſtead, flowering in June and July. The leaves have a weak not diſa-

greeable ſmell, which on drying is diſſipated, and which they give over in diſtillation with water but without yielding any ſeparable oil. To the taſte they are bitteriſh and roughiſh; an extract made from them by rectified ſpirit is moderately bitter and adſtringent. This plant a century ago, was much recommended eſpecially in Germany, as a ſubſtitute for tea; and the French ſtill diſtinuiſh it by the name of Thé d'Europe. But though this European tea has a roughneſs and a ſlight bitterneſs, which is not ungrateful to the taſte, yet the qualities are ſo unlike thoſe which we diſcover in the foreign tea, that the extremely high price of the latter, at that time, muſt have been the chief reaſon for cauſing a contrary opinion, and of reconciling Europeans to a ſubſtitute ſo imperfect as the leaves of veronica. As a medicine alſo this plant has had a conſiderable ſhare of fame; Francus and Hoffmann, aſcribe to it numerous virtues; the former calling it polychreſta herba veronica. The diſorders in which it has been eſteemed moſt uſeful are thoſe of the lungs, as coughs, aſthmas, conſumptions, &c. in which it is ſaid not only to prove expectorant, but by its extraordinary vulnerary power to heal internal ulcers. Its uſe has likewiſe been recommended by ſeveral authors in various other complaints requiring medicines of very different characters; but if we judge of the utility of the veronica by its ſenſible qualities, it is only to be recognized as an adſtringent; and not ſufficiently powerful as ſuch to produce any conſiderable effect, and is therefore now diſregarded by medical practitioners.

VERONĬCA AQUATĬCA. The brooklime ſpeedwell is ſometimes ſo called. See *Beccabunga*.

VERONĬCA BECCABUNGA. The ſyſtematic name of the brooklime ſpeedwell. See *Beccabunga*.

VERONĬCA FŒMĬNA. See *Elatine*.

VERONĬCA MAS. See *Veronica*.

VERONĬCA OFFICINĀLIS. The ſyſtematic name of the male ſpeedwell. See *Veronica*.

VERONĬCA TEUCRUM. See *Teucrium*.

VERRŪCÆ, (*Verruca, æ*, f. a *verrendo*, a *verrunco*, to change for the better). Warts. A genus of diſeaſe in the claſs *locales* and order *tumores* of Cullen.

VERTĔBRÆ, (*Vertebra, æ*, f. from *verto*, to turn). The ſpine is a long bony column, which extends from the head to the lower part of the trunk, and is compoſed of a number of irregular bones which are called vertebræ.

The ſpine may be conſidered as being compoſed of two irregular pyramids, which are united to each other in that part of the loins where the laſt of the lumbar vertebræ is united to the os ſacrum.

The vertebræ, which form the upper and longeſt pyramid, are called true vertebræ; and thoſe which compoſe the lower pyramid, or the os ſacrum and the coccyx, are termed falſe vertebræ, becauſe they do not in every thing reſemble the others; and particularly becauſe, in the adult ſtate, they become perfectly immoveable, whilſt the upper ones continue to be capable of motion. For it is upon the bones of the ſpine that the body turns, and their name has its derivation from the Latin verb *verto* as obſerved above.

The true vertebræ, from their ſituation with reſpect to the neck, back, and loins, are divided into three claſſes of *cervical*, *dorſal*, and *lumbar* vertebræ. We will firſt conſider the general ſtructure of all theſe, and then ſeparately deſcribe their different claſſes.

In each of the vertebræ, as in other bones, we may remark the

ody of the bone, its proceſſes and avities. The body may be compard to part of a cylinder cut off tranſerſely; convex before, and concave ehind, where it makes part of the avity of the ſpine.

Each vertebra has commonly ſeven roceſſes. The firſt of theſe is the *pinous* proceſs, which is placed at the ack part of the vertebra, and gives he name of ſpine to the whole of his bony canal. Two others are alled *tranſverſe* proceſſes, from their tuation with reſpect to the ſpine, nd are placed on each ſide of the pinous proceſs. The four others, hich are called *oblique* proceſſes, are re much ſmaller than the other three. here are two of theſe on the upper nd two on the lower part of each ertebra, riſing from near the baſis of he tranſverſe proceſſes. They are metimes called *articular* proceſſes, ecauſe they are articulated with ach other; that is, the two ſuperior roceſſes of one vertebra are articuted with the two inferior proceſſes f the vertebra above it: and they re called oblique proceſſes, from heir ſituation with reſpect to the roceſſes with which they are articuted. Theſe oblique proceſſes are rticulated to each other by a ſpecies f ginglimus, and each proceſs is coered at its articulation with cartige.

There is in every vertebra, between s body and apophyſes, a foramen, rge enough to admit a finger. Theſe foramina correſpond with each ther through all the vertebræ, and orm a long bony conduit, for the odgment of the ſpinal marrow.

Beſides this great hole, there are our notches on each ſide of every ertebra, between the oblique proeſſes and the body of the vertebra. wo of theſe notches are at the upper, and two at the lower part of he bone. Each of the inferior otches, meeting with one of the ſuperior notches of the vertebra below it, forms a foramen; whilſt the ſuperior notches do the ſame with the inferior notches of the vertebra above it. Theſe four foramina form paſſages for blood-veſſels, and for the nerves that paſs out of the ſpine.

The vertebræ are united together by means of a ſubſtance, compreſſible like cork, which forms a kind of partition between the ſeveral vertebræ. This intervertebral ſubſtance ſeems, in the fœtus, to approach nearly to the nature of ligaments; in the adult it has a greater reſemblance to cartilage. When cut horizontally, it appears to conſiſt of concentrical curved fibres, externally, it is firmeſt and hardeſt; internally, it becomes thinner and ſofter, till at length, in the centre, we find it in the form of a mucous ſubſtance, which facilitates the motions of the ſpine.

Genga, an Italian anatomiſt, long ago obſerved, that the change which takes place in theſe intervertebral cartilages, (as they are uſually called) in advanced life, occaſions the decreaſe in ſtature, and the ſtooping forwards, which are uſually to be obſerved in old people. The cartilages then become ſhrivelled, and conſequently loſe, in a great meaſure, their elaſticity. But, beſides this gradual effect of old age, theſe cartilages are ſubject to a temporary diminution, from the weight of the body in an erect poſture, ſo that people who have been long ſtanding, or have carried a conſiderable weight, are found to be ſhorter than when they have been long in bed. Hence we are taller in the morning than at night. This fact, though ſeemingly obvious, was not aſcertained till of late years. The difference in ſuch caſes depends on the age, and ſize of the ſubject; in tall, young people, it will be nearly an inch; but in older, or ſhorter perſons, it will be leſs conſiderable.

Beſides the connection of the ſeveral vertebræ, by means of theſe cartilages, there are likewiſe many ſtrong ligaments, which unite the bones of the ſpine to each other. Some of theſe ligaments are external, and others internal. Among the external ligaments, we obſerve one which is common to all the vertebræ, extending, in a longitudinal direction, from the fore part of the body of the ſecond vertebra of the neck, over all the other vertebræ, and becoming broader as it deſcends towards the os ſacrum, where it becomes thinner, and gradually diſappears. This external longitudinal ligament, if we may ſo call it, is ſtrengthened by other ſhorter ligamentous fibres, which paſs from one vertebra to another, throughout the whole ſpine. The internal ligament, the fibres of which, like the external one, are ſpread in a longitudinal direction, is extended over the back part of the bodies of the vertebræ, where they help to form the cavity of the ſpine, and reaches from the foramen magnum of the occipital bone to the os ſacrum.

We may venture to remark, that all the vertebræ diminiſh in denſity and firmneſs of texture, in proportion as they increaſe in ſize, ſo that the lower vertebræ, though larger, are not ſo heavy in proportion as thoſe above them. In conſequence of this mode of ſtructure, the ſize of the vertebræ is increaſed without adding to their weight; and this is an object of no little importance, in a part of the body, which, beſides flexibility and ſuppleneſs, ſeems to require lightneſs as one of its eſſential properties.

In the fœtus, at the ordinary time of birth, each vertebra is found to be compoſed of three bony pieces, connected by cartilages which afterwards oſſify. One of theſe pieces is the body of the bone; the other two are the poſterior and lateral portions, which form the foramen for the medulla ſpinalis. The oblique proceſſes are at that time complete, and the tranſverſe proceſſes beginning to be formed; but the ſpinous proceſſes are totally wanting.

The cervical vertebræ, are ſeven in number, their bodies are ſmaller and of a firmer texture than the other bones of the ſpine. The tranſverſe proceſſes of theſe vertebræ are ſhort, and forked for the lodgment of muſcles; and, at the bottom of each of theſe proceſſes, there is a foramen, for the paſſage of the cervical artery and vein. The ſpinous proceſs of each of theſe vertebræ is likewiſe ſhorter than in the other vertebræ, and forked at its extremity; by which means it allows a more convenient inſertion to the muſcles of the neck. Their oblique proceſſes are more deſerving of that name than either thoſe of the dorſal or lumbar vertebræ. The uppermoſt of theſe proceſſes are ſlightly concave, and the lowermoſt ſlightly convex. This may ſuffice for a general deſcription of theſe vertebræ; but the firſt, ſecond, and ſeventh, deſerve to be ſpoken of more particularly. The firſt, which is called *Atlas*, from its ſupporting the head, differs from all the other vertebræ of the ſpine. It forms a kind of bony ring, which may be divided into its anterior and poſterior arches, and its lateral portions. Of theſe, the anterior arch is the ſmalleſt and flatteſt; at the middle of its convex fore part we obſerve a ſmall tubercle which is here what the body is in the other vertebræ. To this tubercle a ligament is attached, which helps to ſtrengthen the articulation of the ſpine with the os occipitis. The back part of this anterior portion is concave, and covered with cartilage, where it receives the odontoid proceſs of the ſecond vertebra. The poſterior portion of the vertebra, or,

more properly ſpeaking, the poſterior arch, is larger than the anterior one. Inſtead of a ſpinous proceſs, we obſerve a riſing or tubercle, larger than that which we have juſt now deſcribed, on the fore part of the bone. The lateral portions of the vertebra project, ſo as to form what are called the tranſverſe proceſſes, one on each ſide, which are longer and larger than the tranſverſe proceſſes of the other vertebræ. They terminate in a roundiſh tubercle, the end of which has a ſlight bend downwards. Like the other tranſverſe proceſſes, they are perforated at their baſis, for the paſſage of the cervical artery. But, beſides theſe tranſverſe proceſſes, we obſerve, both on the ſuperior and inferior ſurface of theſe lateral portions of the firſt vertebra, an articulating ſurface, covered with cartilage, anſwering to the oblique proceſſes in the other vertebræ. The uppermoſt of theſe are oblong, and ſlightly concave, and their external edges riſe ſomewhat higher than their internal brims. They receive the condyloid proceſſes of the os occipitis, with which they are articulated by a ſpecies of ginglimus. The lowermoſt articulating ſurfaces, or the inferior oblique proceſſes, as they are called, are large, concave, and circular, and are formed for receiving the ſuperior oblique proceſſes of the ſecond vertebra; ſo that the atlas differs from the reſt of the cervical vertebræ in receiving the bones, with which it is articulated both above and below.

In the fœtus we find this vertebra compoſed of five, inſtead of three pieces, as in the other vertebræ. One of theſe is the anterior arch; the other four are the poſterior arch and the ſides, each of the latter being compoſed of two pieces. The tranſverſe proceſs, on each ſide, remains long in a ſtate of epiphyſis with reſpect to the reſt of the bone.

The ſecond vertebra is called *dentata*, from the proceſs on the upper part of its body, which has been though perhaps improperly, compared to a tooth. This proceſs, which is the moſt remarkable part of the vertebra, is of a cylindrical ſhape, ſlightly flattened, however, behind and before. Anteriorly it has a convex, ſmooth, articulating ſurface, where it is received by the atlas, as we obſerved in our deſcription of that vertebra. It is by means of this articulation that the rotatory motion of the head is performed; the articulation of the os occipitis with the ſuperior oblique proceſſes of the firſt vertebra, allowing only a certain degree of motion backwards and forwards, ſo that when we turn the face either to the right or left, the atlas moves upon this odontoid proceſs of the ſecond vertebra. But, as the face cannot turn a quarter of a circle, that is, to the ſhoulder, upon this vertebra alone, without being liable to injure the medulla ſpinalis, we find that all the cervical vertebræ concur in this rotatory motion, when it is in any conſiderable degree; and indeed we ſee many ſtrong ligamentous fibres ariſing from the ſides of the odontoid proceſs, and paſſing over the firſt vertebra, to the os occipitis, which not only ſtrengthen the articulation of theſe bones with each other, but ſerve to regulate and limit their motion. It is on this account that the name of *moderators* has ſometimes been given to theſe ligaments.

The tranſverſe proceſſes of the vertebra dentata are ſhort, inclined downwards, and forked at their extremities. Its ſpinous proceſs is ſhort and thick. Its ſuperior oblique proceſſes a ſlightly convex, and ſomewhat larger than the articulating ſurfaces of the firſt vertebra, by which mechaniſm, the motion of

that bone upon this ſecond vertebra is performed with greater ſafety. Its inferior oblique proceſſes have nothing ſingular in their ſtructure.

The ſeventh vertebra of the neck differs from the reſt chiefly in having its ſpinous proceſs of a greater length, ſo that, upon this account, it has been ſometimes called *vertebra prominens*.

The dorſal vertebræ, which are twelve in number, are of a middle ſize, between the cervical and lumbar vertebræ; the upper ones gradually loſing their reſemblance to thoſe of the neck, and the lower ones coming nearer to thoſe of the loins. The bodies of theſe vertebræ are more flattened at their ſides, more convex before, and more concave behind, than the other bones of the ſpine. Their upper and lower ſurfaces are horizontal. At their ſides we obſerve two depreſſions, one at their upper, and the other at their lower edge, which, united with ſimilar depreſſions in the vertebræ above and below, form articulating ſurfaces, covered with cartilage, in which the heads of the ribs are received. Theſe depreſſions, however, are not exactly alike in all the dorſal vertebræ; for we find the head of the firſt rib articulated ſolely with the firſt of theſe vertebræ, which has therefore the whole of the ſuperior articulating ſurface within itſelf, independent of the vertebra above it. We may likewiſe obſerve a ſimilarity in this reſpect in the eleventh and twelfth of the dorſal vertebræ, with which the eleventh and twelfth ribs are articulated ſeparately. Their ſpinous proceſſes are long, flattened at the ſides, divided at their upper and back part into two ſurfaces by a middle ridge, which is received by a ſmall groove in the inner part of the ſpinous proceſs immediately above it, and connected to it by a ligament. Theſe ſpinous proceſſes are terminated by a kind of round tubercle, which ſlopes conſiderably downwards, except in the three lowermoſt vertebræ, where they are ſhorter and more erect. Their tranſverſe proceſſes are of conſiderable length and thickneſs, and are turned obliquely backwards. Anteriorly they have an articulating ſurface, for receiving the tuberoſity of the ribs, except in the eleventh and twelfth of the dorſal vertebræ to which the ribs are articulated by their heads only. In the laſt of theſe vertebræ the tranſverſe proceſſes are very ſhort and thick, becauſe otherwiſe they would be apt to ſtrike againſt the lowermoſt ribs, when we bend the body to either ſide.

The lumbar vertebræ, the loweſt of the true vertebræ, are five in number. They are larger than the dorſal vertebræ. Their bodies are extremely prominent, and nearly of a circular form at their fore part; poſteriorly they are concave. Their intermediate cartilages are of conſiderable thickneſs, eſpecially anteriorly, by which means the curvature of the ſpine forwards, towards the abdomen, in this part, is greatly aſſiſted. Their ſpinous proceſſes are ſhort and thick, of conſiderable breadth, erect, and terminated by a kind of tuberoſity. Their oblique proceſſes are of conſiderable thickneſs; the ſuperior ones are concave, and turned inwards; the inferior ones convex, and turned outwards. Their tranſverſe proceſſes are thin and long, except in the firſt and laſt vertebra, where they are much ſhorter, that the lateral motions of the trunk might not be impeded. The inferior ſurface of all theſe vertebræ is ſlightly oblique, ſo that the fore part of the body of each is ſomewhat thicker than its hind part; but this is more particularly obſerveable in the lowermoſt vertebra, which is

nnected with the os sacrum. Many atomists describe the os sacrum and e os occygis as when considering e bones of the spine, whilst others gard them as belonging more pro-rly to the pelvis. These bones e reader may consult. It now re-ains to notice the uses of the spine. Ve find the spinal marrow lodged in is bony canal, secure from external jury. It defends the thoracic and dominal viscera, and forms a pillar hich supports the head, and gives general firmness to the whole unk.

To give it a firm basis, we find the odies of the vertebra gradually in-reasing in breadth as they descend; nd to fit it for a variety of motion, is composed of a great number of oints, with an intermediate elastic ubstance, so that to great firmness here is added a perfect flexibility.

We have already observed, that he lowermost and largest vertebræ re not so heavy in proportion as hose above them; their bodies eing more spongy, excepting at heir circumference, where they are nore immediately exposed to pressure; o that nature seems every where en-leavouring to relieve us of an unne-cessary weight of bone. But be-ind, where the spinal marrow is nore exposed to injury, we find the processes composed of very hard one; and the spinous processes are n general placed over each other in a slanting direction, so that a point-ed instrument cannot easily get be-tween them, excepting in the neck, where they are almost perpendicular and leave a greater space between them. Hence, in some countries, it is usual to kill cattle by thrusting a pointed instrument between the occi-put and the atlas, or between the and the atlas second vertebra. Be-sides these uses of the vertebræ in de-fending the spinal marrow, and in articulating the several vertebræ, as is the case with the oblique processes, we shall find that they all serve to form a greater surface for the lodg-ment of muscles, and to enable the latter to act more powerfully on the trunk, by affording them a lever of considerable length.

In the neck, we see the spine pro-jecting somewhat forwards, to sup-port the head, which, without this assistance, would require a greater number of muscles. Through the whole length of the thorax it is car-ried in a curved direction backwards, and thus adds considerably to the ca-vity of the chest, and consequently affords more room to the lungs, heart, and large blood-vessels. In the loins the spine again projects forwards, in a direction with the centre of gravity, by which means the body is easily kept in an erect posture; for other-wise we should be liable to fall for-wards. But, at its inferior part, it again recedes backwards, and helps to form a cavity called the pelvis, in which the urinary bladder, intesti-num rectum, and other viscera, are placed.

In a part of the body that is com-posed of so great a number of bones, and constructed for such a variety of motion, as the spine is, luxation is more to be expected than fracture; and this is very wisely guarded against in every direction, by the many pro-cesses that are to be found in each vertebra, and by the cartilages, liga-ments, and other means of connec-tion, which we have described as uniting them together.

VERTEBRAL ARTERY. *Arteria vertebralis.* A branch of the sub-clavian, proceeding through the ver-tebræ to within the cranium, where, with its fellow, it forms the basilary artery, the internal auditory, and the posterior artery of the dura mater.

VERTEX, (*Vertex, ĭcis*, m.). The crown of the head.

VERTĬCALĬA OSSA. See *Parital bones.*

VERTĬCIS OS. See *Parietal bones.*

VERTĪGO, (*Vertigo, inis*, f.). Giddineſs. Moſtly ſymptomatic.

VERVAIN. See *Verbena.*

VERVAIN, FEMALE. See *Eryſimum.*

VESANĬÆ, (*Veſania, æ*, f.) The fourth order in the claſs *neuroſes* of Cullen's noſological arrangement; comprehending diſeaſes in which the judgment is impaired, without either coma or pyrexia.

VESĪCA, (*Veſica, æ*, f. a diminutive of *vas*, a veſſel). A bladder.

VESĪCA FELLIS. The gall-bladder. See *Gall bladder.*

VESĪCA URINARĬA. The urinary bladder. See *Urinary bladder.*

VESICATORIES, (*Veſicatoria*, from *veſica*, a bladder; becauſe they raiſe a bladder). See *Epiſpaſtics.*

VESICLE, (*Bulla*). An elevation of the cuticle, of a large ſize, irregularly circumſcribed, and containing a tranſparent watery fluid. Veſicles with a dark red, or livid coloured baſe are uſually denominated phlyctænæ.

VESICŬLÆ PULMONĀLES, (*Veſicula, æ*, f. a diminutive of *veſica*, a bladder). The air cells which compoſe the greateſt part of the lungs, and are ſituated at the termination of the bronchia.

VESICŬLÆ SEMINĀLES. Two membranous receptacles, ſituated on the back part of the bladder above its neck. Its excretory ducts are called ejaculatory ducts. They proceed to the urethra, into which they open by a peculiar orifice at the top of the verumontanum. They have veſſels and nerves from the neighbouring parts, and are well ſupplied with abſorbent veſſels, which proceed to the lymphatic glands about the loins. The uſe of the veſiculæ ſeminalis is to receive the ſemen brought into them by the vaſa deferentia, retain, ſomewhat inſpiſſate, and excern it *ſub coitu* into the ureth from whence it is propelled into t vagina uteri. See *Pemphigus.*

VESICULAR FEVER. This d eaſe ſeems to conſiſt in eruptions d perſed over different parts of the bo (internal as well as external), whi gradually riſe up into veſicles about the ſize of a large nut, co taining a yellow ſerous fluid, that in ſome inſtances of an ichorous n ture, and which again diſappear the courſe of three or four days. I ſome authors it is deſcribed as bei attended both by fever and contagio and by others, as being accompani by neither. It is therefore ſuppoſ that there are two ſpecies of it, t chronic, and the acute. The diſea is, however, of very rare occurrenc

By the generality of the practit oners who have favoured us wit their opinions, the principal of who is Dr. Dickſon, it has not been co ſidered as contagious. This gentl man ſaw ſix caſes of the complaint, i none of which it was received b contagion, nor communicated to thoſ who attended the ſick.

Dr. Cullen informs us that th bliſters are filled with a thin icho which is diſcharged, not abſorbed, a mentioned by Dr. Dickſon; but dur ing his whole practice, it appears that he met only with a ſingle caſ of pemphigus.

Some ſlight degree of laſſitude ſickneſs, and head-ach having prevail ed for a day or two, ſmall veſicles o about the ſize of a pea, then mak their appearance over different part of the body, and not unfrequently in the mouth, and other parts of the alimentary canal, and theſe gradu ally increaſe till they become as large as a nut or almond. Sometimes they are ſo numerous as to run into each other. The pulſe during this time

mall and frequent, and the patient s nſible of a conſiderable degree of d lity.

f the veſicles are not broken, they fi with a yellowiſh ſerum, which is a n abſorbed into the ſyſtem in the c ſe of three or four days. This a ears to be the moſt favourable t hination; as they have been known t leave troubleſome ulcers behind th n when they broke.

emphigus reſembles the ſmall pox in equently leaving pits in the ſkin, a the parts, which the veſicle o pied, remaining of a dark colour f a conſiderable time afterwards. In he third volume of Medical Facts a Obſervations, Dr. Winterbottom t s particular notice of this occurr e.

Ve are to be influenced in our p gnoſis by the ſeat and appearance o the veſicles. When they only a ear on external parts, and are n numerous, they demand little att ion; when they are numerous, w n they attack the alimentary ca n and are attended with a ſmall, h l pulſe, the danger is conſiderable. T danger is likewiſe very great, w n the ulcers, left by veſicles, ſhew a ndency to gangrene by coming ill, which ſeldom happens, how- e , unleſs a fever of the true ty- p id kind has accompanied it.

On taking a comprehenſive ſurvey o what has been recorded by recent w ers on the ſubject, we muſt, be c cluded that pemphicus is an a ction merely ſporadic, and not o contagious nature, and that the ſy ptoms accompanying one or other i nces of this affaction, are thoſe w h attend febrile diſeaſes, whether i mmatory or putrid. The moſt i ortant diſtinctions neceſſary to be a rtained appear therefore to be, 1 Whether the fever is of an in- fl matory nature, and accompanied w a ſtrong and increaſed action of the vaſcular ſyſtem. 2d. Whether the fever has a tendency to the typhoid tipe, is marked by great debility, and ſymptoms which denote a tendency of the fluids to putrefaction. It will be obvious that in the firſt caſe, evacuation and other antiphlogiſtic remedies will be proper; and that in the ſecond it will, on the contrary, be neceſſary to ſhun all evacuations, and to employ thoſe remedies alone which ſupport the ſtrength, and give tone and vigour to the ſyſtem.

VESTIBŬLUM, (*Veſtibulum*, *i*, n. an entry). A round cavity of the internal ear, between the cochlea and ſemicircular canals, in which are, an oval opening communicating with the cavity of the tympanum, and the orifices of the ſemicircular canals. It is within this cavity and the ſemicircular canals, that the new apparatus, diſcovered by the celebrated neurologiſt Scarpa, lies. He has demonſtrated membranous tubes, connected looſely by cellular texture, within the bony ſemicircular canals, each of which is dilated in the cavity of the veſtibule into an ampulla; it is upon theſe ampullæ, which communicate by means of an *alveus communis*, that branches of the portio mollis are expanded.

VETONĬCA CORDI. See *Betonica*.

VIBĪCES, (*Vibex*, *icis*, m.). The large purple ſpots which appear under the ſkin in certain malignant fevers.

VIBRISSÆ, (*Vibriſſa*, *æ*, f. from *vibro*, to quaver). Hairs growing in the noſtrils. See *Capillus*.

VICĬA FABA. The ſyſtematic name of the common bean plant. See *Bean*.

VICTORĀLIS LONGA. This officinal is the *Aillium victoralis* of Linnæus. The root, which when dried looſes its alliaceous ſmell and taſte, is ſaid to be efficacious in allaying the abdominal ſpaſms of graved females.

VIGILANCE. *Pervigilium.* Vigilance when attended by anxiety, pain in the head, loſs of appetite, and diminution of ſtrength, is by Suavage and Sagar conſidered as a genus of diſeaſe, and is called *agrypnia.* It may ariſe they conceive from a variety of cauſes but chiefly,

1. From retrocedent or atonic gout.

2. It may be induced by paſſions of the mind, ſuch as anger, fear, and ſtrong deſire.

3. From hyſterical affections, when it is attended by palpitations, ſtartings, ſubſultus tendinum, impeded reſpiration, ſpaſmodic contraction, and convulſive motions, at the inſtant when ſleep is ſtealing on the ſenſes.

4. From diſeaſe of the head, when it is attended by violent head-ach.

5. An abſceſs in the pancreas has been the cauſe of vigilance attended by cold ſweats with ſyncope.

6. It is often induced by grief, and therefore coinciding with the ſecond ſpecies.

7. Indigeſtion frequently is the cauſe of it.

8. It is common in all fevers.

9. It is an attendant on old age.

10. It not unfrequently precedes epiſtaxis and other critical diſcharges.

11. A very common cauſe is the irritation of inſects; as bugs, lice, fleas, gnats, ants, &c.

The reverend Dr. Townſend conſiders the occaſional cauſes to be evidently ſuch as ſtimulate the ſyſtem.

1. The ſtimuli may be purely mental, ſuch as anger, fear, joy, grief, with intenſity of thought and volition. He informs us he was acquainted thirty years ago with a moſt amiable lady, who having the miſfortune to loſe a huſband, by whom ſhe was tenderly beloved, never ſlept a moment for ſix weeks; and Sauvage makes mention of a young lady at Montpellier, who, having ſeen her huſband murdered by aſſaſſins, was deprived of ſleep more than three months.

2. The ſtimuli may be material, including ſuch changes in the body as excite ſenſation; ſuch as ſtrong light, loud ſounds, offenſive ſmells, diſguſting taſte, hard touch, if they are unuſual or ſuch as commonly call forth volition, for none of theſe produce watchfulneſs, when the mind has been accuſtomed to regard them with indifference. The moſt powerful ſtimulus is pain, becauſe by this the animal is warned of immediate danger; whether the uneaſy ſenſation ariſes from ſpaſm, diſtention, laceration, or any ſolution of continuity produced either mechanically or by chemical attraction. When pain has been for any length of time endured, it proves, like all other ſtimulants a powerful ſedative.

3. The ſtimuli, if not ſo powerful as to excite ſenſation or volition, may yet produce irritation.

The irritation may be,

a. In the lungs; as in caſes of aſthma and catarrh.

b. In the ſtomach, ariſing from indigeſted ſordes, vicid mucus, worms, hunger, and thirſt. Hoffman ſays "*Ventriculo benehabente, totum corpus alacritus eſt, ſomnus ſit placidus, ſi vero onuſtus eſt alimentis incongruis, ſomnus deficit vel inſomniis terrificis interturbatur.*"

c. In the bowels; from bile and flatulence, from fæces in the rectum.

d. In the urinary bladder.

e. In the ſeminal veſſels.

f. In the brain, or its meninges either ariſing from or attended by a quickened circulation of the blood for whatever accelerates the motion of the circulating fluids in the veſſels of the brain, induces vigilance. Thus far, ſays Dr. Townſend, all is clear, but as we advance we ſhall find ourſelves in the regions of doubt, o

arkneſs, and of conjecture. How ien ſhall we account for vigilance? orrowing a ray of light from che-iſtry, ſhall we venture to ſuppoſe it ray ariſe from the uninterrupted ipply of oxygen and hydrogen to he veſſels of the brain? If we ſup-oſe ſleep to be produced by the reſſure of roſcid lymph on the ven-ricles of the brain, and particularly, s I may now proceed to ſtate it, by reſſure on the plexus choroides and he minuter or ſecreting veſſels of the rain, may we not indulge our ima-ination and conjecture, that vigi-ance is produced by the union of xygen and hydrogen; the latter erhaps ſecreted by ſome of the veſ-els of the brain, the former derived y chemical attraction from the ar-erial blood of the plexus choroides? We know, that by vigilance and hought, as well as by motion in the yſtem, whether vital or voluntary, oth oxygen and hydrogen are con-umed and loſt, whilſt heat and wa-er are produced; and it is now un-erſtood that the chemical union of hoſe principles generates water and iſengages heat.

Let the ſtudent recollect, ſays our uthor, that in the ventricles of the rain he finds no coagulable lymph, ut the pureſt water, which is there-ore denominated roſcid lymph by Boerhaave.

I have already ſtated, that the ab-ſorbents recover their tone merely by quieſcence; but ſuppoſing the ſtimuli above ſtated are applied to any part of the ſyſtem, the abſorbents, agree-able to the laws of the animal œco-nomy, will be excited by ſympathy; for it is obſerved, that irritation draws into conſent the neareſt exhal-ents, and the remote abſorbents. The fact is certain, and the wiſdom of this œconomy will be obvious to the ſtudent, if he call to mind the efforts of nature to relieve herſelf.

In ſupport of theſe theoretical con-jectures, the ſubſequent conſiderations are ſuggeſted.

1. A ſuperabundant ſupply of hy-drogen from fermented liquors re-ceived into the ſtomach, at firſt brightens all the faculties and gives increaſe of vigour, but ſpeedily brings on intoxication followed by apoplectic ſleep; but the inſpiration of oxy-genated air, ſtops the progreſs of in-toxication, and therefore prevents apoplectic ſleep.

2. We obſerve in crowded rooms, when candles burn dim for want of air, the human underſtanding is con-fuſed, all its powers are enfeebled; but the imagination kindles, when the lungs take in a freſh ſupply of well oxygenated air.

3. The inſpiration of foul air in mines, whether hydrogenous, car-bonic, or the two combined, brings on deep ſleep and death; but by the admiſſion of uncontaminated air the miners are ſpeedily revived, and the ſame happens frequently in Spain to thoſe who ſit too long, or ſleep in a cloſe room with burning charcoal, which conſumes the oxyen and diſ-charges carbonic air.

4. Boerhaave has remarked, that in acute diſeaſes, the blood is found chiefly in the arteries, while the veins are comparatively empty. For this phænomenon he in vain endea-vours to account; but the cauſe is evidently this: the blood in all in-flammatory fevers, being highly oxy-genated, ſtrongly ſtimulates the heart, and is therefore propelled into the arteries in great abundance, and quicker than the veins can receive it. But when highly oxygenated blood, as in acute diſeaſes, ſuch as ſynocha, pleuritis, and phrenitis, moves with rapidity through the ſyſtem, and therefore in the veſſels of the brain, vigilance, particularly in young ſub-jects, ſometimes continues night and

day for a whole week together. In ſuch circumſtances, as Boerhaave with his uſual accuracy of diſcernment, well obſerved, their body has been rendered lighter by one third part of its weight, ſo that thoſe who had been very fat, have been reduced almoſt to ſkeletons. See his lectures on the theory of phyſic, ſections 599, 600.

In ſuch circumſtances, whilſt the fever rages, the patient can riſe up with eaſe and ſupport himſelf in bed, but when the fever is exhauſted, weak, and relaxed, he ſleeps inceſſantly, or only awakes to take in more food, that is, to ſupply the lamp of life with hydrogen, then ſleeps again.

The proceſs of combuſtion being little underſtood, unleſs by modern chemiſts, it may be explained in the burning of a wax candle. You kindle twiſted threads of cotton and thereby melt the wax; this being fluid is by capillary attraction, drawn up into the wick, and aſcends into the part which is in flame, from whence it ariſes in the form of gas, and in that ſtate, combining readily with the oxygen of the atmoſpheric air, compoſes aqueous vapour, which may be eaſily condenſed, and ſets at liberty both light and heat. A very elegant proceſs of combuſtion, and at the ſame time a very ſimple one, may be ſeen by putting one drop of ether into a two ounce phial of oxygenated air, and kindling with a match. The combination is inſtaneous; water is produced, and the light and heat are not inferior to thoſe which are diſengaged from detonating gold.

It is allowed that the blood, in its return towards the heart, has loſt the oxygen which it had acquired in the lungs. What then is become of it? Surely it is not annihilated. The quantity derived from the air merely by breathing is conſiderable.

It is well known that both mental and muſcular exertion, conſume the fat; and it is well aſcertained that whenever there is motion or any combination in the ſyſtem, heat is generated; it is likewiſe proved by the experiments of Dr. Prieſtly, that oxygen will paſs through the pores of membranes to unite with hydrogen.

Since then we have loſt oxygen aud hydrogen in great abundance, and acquired both heat and water, is it not probable that the oxygen, which diſappeared, has formed a chemical union with hydrogen and produced the water, whilſt at the ſame time heat has been evolved. The water thus continually formed is either taken up inceſſantly by the lymphatics, and conveyed back to the maſs of circulating fluids, or paſſes out of the ſyſtem by the exhalent arteries.

Whatever then becomes of theſe conjectures reſpecting the proximate cauſe of vigilance, it ſtands confeſſed, that the occaſional cauſes are ſuch as ſtimulate the ſyſtem, and that from common watchfulneſs to furious raving, it bears proportion to the degree of excitement of the brain.

Dreaming is the intermediate ſtate between vigilance and ſleep, and may be conſidered here. It takes place uſually towards the morning, and may be at any time excited by irritation in the ſyſtem. It is the imperfect exerciſe of memory; and the impreſſion may be either indifferent, or attended with joy, grief, hope, fear, deſire, and volition.

The intenſity of theſe affections depends on the degree of excitement in the brain, and this again will be in proportion to the irritability of the ſyſtem and to the energy of the exciting cauſe, which cauſe may be either mental or material.

1. If during the day we have ſeen any thing uncommonly ſtriking, al-

though not in the leaſt intereſting, as producing neither pain, pleaſure, hope, nor fear; the image will, unleſs we ſleep profoundly, be renewed by night. Spinoſa relates of himſelf that from the time in which he firſt ſaw Brazilians ſeven feet high with long yellow hair, it made ſo ſtrong an impreſſion, that he had always the ſame image in his dreams, and could with difficulty free himſelf from it during the day.

2. The oftener this image is renewed, the more readily will it be excited in the mind; and by frequency of recurrence a regular habit will be eſtabliſhed.

3. When the paſſions of joy, ſorrow, hope, deſire, fear, and terror, have been ſtrongly excited in the day, the attendant images will preſent themſelves in dreams by night. A lady of Montpellier, no ſooner cloſed her eyes to ſleep, than the image of her murdered huſband, and the aſſaſſins ſprinkled with his blood, were in the moſt vivid forms repreſented to her view.

4. Whatever image is by dreaming preſented to the mind, is apt to aſſociate others between which and it there is either natural or accidental connexion. Thus if a man dreams that he has been guilty of a crime, his imagination will repreſent conſtables purſuing, the judge pronouncing ſentence, and the executioner fixing the halter on his neck.

There is a curious experiment, which ſhews a propenſity in the ſyſtem to renew whatever images have made a vivid impreſſion on the ſight. If, when the ſun ſhines bright, you look through a window at a landſcape, fixing your eyes ſteadily on one ſpot, till viſion is diſtreſſing, and till the view begins to fade, then gently cloſe your eye-lids and put a hat before your face, the repreſentation will alternately appear and vaniſh; and what is ſtill more remarkable, the image of the window-bars and of the neareſt trees will be dark, whilſt the ſky appears to be either purple or light green; but whenever the hat is removed, and light is tranſmitted thorugh the eye-lids, the bars of the window and the trees become red like edged with green, and the ſky is dark. Even when the eyes have been for ſome time opened and engaged with other objects, on being cloſed again, all theſe appearances will be renewed.

When debility and irritability prevail in the extreme, the moſt trifling irritation will be ſufficient to produce the recurrence of images, paſſions, ſenſations, and aſſociation of ideas; but in the more torpid it requires ſome powerful ſtimulus; and this may be either in the ſtomach or the brain itſelf.

The ſtomach is commonly the part in which we may ſeek the occaſional cauſe of dreams; but whatever induces determination to the head, or quickens the circulation in the veſſels of the brain, without producing vigilance, will have the ſame effect. Dr. Lower gives the caſe of one who ſlept ſoundly whilſt his head was inclined forward, yet when his head fell back he was ſoon awakened with horrid dreams and tremors.

In this patient, after death, water was diſcovered in the ventricles of the brain.

VINCA MINOR. The ſyſtematic name of the leſſer perrewincle. See *Vinca pervinca.*

VINCA PERVINCA. The leſſer perrewinkle. This plant *Vinca minor* of Linnæus, poſſeſſes bitter and adſtringent virtues, and is ſaid to be efficacious in ſtopping naſal hæmorrhages when bruiſed and put into the noſe. Boiled it forms a uſeful adſtringent gargle in common ſore throat, and it is given by ſome in phthiſical complaints.

VINCETOXICUM, (*Vincetoxicum,*

i, n. from *vinco* to overcome, and *toxicum*, poiſon; ſo named from its ſuppoſed virtues of reſiſting and expelling poiſons). *Hermidinaria*. Aſclepias. Swallow wort. Tame poiſon. The root of this plant *Aſclepias vincetoxicum* of Linnæus, ſmells when freſh ſomewhat of valerian; chewed it imparts at firſt a conſiderable ſweetneſs which is ſoon ſucceeded by an unpleaſant ſubacrid bitterneſs. It is given in ſome countries in the cure of glandular obſtructions.

VINE. See *Vitis*.

VINE, WHITE. See *Bryonia alba*.

VINE, WILD. See *Bryonia alba*.

VINEGAR. See *Acetum*.

VINEGAR, DISTILLED. See *Acetum diſtillatum*.

VINEGAR, SPIRITS OF. See *Acetic acid*.

VINUM. See *Wine*.

VINUM ALŎĒS. A ſtomachic purgative, calculated for the aged and phlegmatic, who are not troubled with the piles.

VINUM ANTIMONĬI. In ſmall doſes this proves alterative and diaphoretic, and a large doſe emetic; in which laſt intention it is the common emetic for children.

VINUM ANTIMONĬI TARTARĬZĀTI. This may be given in all caſes where the tartar emetic is indicated.

VINUM FERRI. Steel wine is an uſeful form for adminiſtering the iron.

VINUM GENTIĀNÆ COMPOSĬTUM. A good ſtomachic bitter.

VINUM IPECACŬANÆ. In ſmall doſes this preparation proves diaphoretic, and nauſeates; in larger doſes it is emetic.

VINUM NICOTIĀNÆ. Dropſical diſeaſes, obſtinate affections of the ſkin and aſthma, are ſaid to be relieved by a judicious adminiſtration of this wine, which is narcotic and diuretic.

VĪNUM RHABARBĂRI. A ſtomachic, adſtringent and aperient.

VIŎLA, (*Viola*, *æ*, f. from Ιον; becauſe it was firſt found in Ionia). *Violaria*. Sweet violet. *Viola odorata* of Linnæus. *Viola acaulis, foliis cordatis, ſtolonibus repentibus*. Claſs *Syngeneſia*. Order *Monogynia*. The recent flowers of this plant are received into the catalogues of the Materia Medica. They have an agreeable ſweet ſmell, and a mucilaginous bitteriſh taſte. Their virtues are purgative or laxative, and by ſome they are ſaid to poſſeſs an anodyne and pectoral quality. The officinal preparation of this flower is a ſyrup, which, to young children, anſwers the purpoſe of a purgative; it is alſo of conſiderable utility in many chemical inquiries, to detect an acid or an alkali; the former changing the blue colour to a red, and the latter to a green.

VIŎLA CANĪNA. The dog violet. The root of this plant, *Viola canina* of Linnæus, poſſeſſes the power of vomiting and purging the bowels; with which intention a ſcruple of the dried root muſt be exhibited. It appears, though neglected in this county, worthy of the attention of phyſicians.

VIŎLA IPECACUANHA. The plant which was ſuppoſed to afford the ipecacuanha root.

VIŎLA LUTĔA. The wall flower was ſo called. See *Cheiri*.

VIŎLA PALUSTRIS. See *Pinguicula*.

VIŎLA ODORĀTA. The ſyſtematic name of the ſweet violet. See *Viola*.

VIŎLA TRICŎLOR. Heartſeaſe. Panſies. This well known beautiful little plant grows in corn fields, waſte, and cultivated grounds, flowering all the ſummer months. It varies much by cultivation; and by the vivid colouring of its flowers often becomes

extremely beautful in gardens, where it is diſtinguiſhed by various names. To the taſte, this plant in its recent ſtate, is extremely glutinous, or mucilaginous, accompanied with the common herbaceous flavour and roughneſs. By diſtillation with water, according to Haaſe, it affords a ſmall quantity of odorous eſſential oil, of a ſomewhat acrid taſte. The dried herb yields about half its weight of watery extract, the freſh plant about one eighth. Though many of the old writers on the materia medica repreſent this plant as a powerful medicine in epilepſy, aſthma, ulcers, ſcabies, and cutaneous complaints, yet the viola tricolor owes its preſent character as a medicine to the modern authorities of Starick, Metzger, Haaſe, and others, eſpecially as a remedy for the cruſta lactea. For this purpoſe, a handful of the freſh herb, or half a dram of it dried, boiled two hours in milk, is to be ſtrained and taken night and morning. Bread, with this decoction, is alſo to be formed into a poultice and applied to the part. By this treatment it has been obſerved, that the eruption during the firſt eight days increaſes, and that the urine, when the medicine ſucceeds, has an odour ſimilar to that of cats; but on continuing the uſe of the plant a ſufficient time, this ſmell goes off, the ſcabs diſappear, and the ſkin recovers its natural purity. Inſtances of the ſucceſsful exhibition of this medicine, as cited by theſe authors, are very numerous; indeed this remedy, under their management, ſeems rarely, if ever, to have failed. It appears, however, that Murſinna, Akermann, and Flennig, were leſs fortunate in the employment of this plant; the laſt of whom declares, that in the different cutaneous diſorders in which he uſed it, no beneſit was derived. Haaſe, who adminiſtered this ſpecies of violet in various forms, and large doſes, extended its uſe to many chronic diſorders; and from the great number of caſes in which it proved ſucceſful, we are deſirous of recommending it to a farther trial in this country.

It is remarkable that Bergius ſpeaks of this plant as a uſeful mucilaginous purgative, and takes no notice of its efficacy in the cruſta lactea or in any other diſeaſe.

VIOLARĬA. See *Viola*.

VIOLET, DOG. See *Viola canina*.

VIOLET, SWEET. See *Viola*.

VIPER. See *Vipera*.

VIPER, GRASS. See *Scorzonera*.

VIPĔRA, (*Vipera, æ*, f. *quod vi pariat*; becauſe it was thought that its young eat through the mother's bowels). The viper or adder. This viviparous reptile, *Coluber berus* of Linnæus, poſſeſſes the power of forming a poiſonous fluid in little bags near its teeth. The fleſh is perfectly innocent and often taken by the common people againſt the king's evil, and a variety of diſorders of the ſkin. Experience evinces it to be an inefficacious ſubſtance.

VIPERARĬA. See *Serpentaria virginiana*.

VIPERĪNA, (*Viperina, æ*, f. from *viper*, a ſnake; ſo called from the ſerpentine appearance of its roots). See *Serpentaria virginiana*.

VIPERĪNA VIRGINĔĀNA. See *Serpentaria virgineana*.

VIRGA AURĔA. *Herba dorea. Conſolida ſaracenica.* Golden rod. The leaves and flowers of this plant, *Solidago virga aurea* of Linnæus, are recommended as aperients and corroborants in urinary obſtructions, ulcerations of the kidneys and bladder, and cachexies.

VIRGINIAN TOBACCO. See *Nicotiana*.

VIRGINS BOWER, UPRIGHT. See *Flammula jovis*.

VIRGINS MILK. A ſolution of gum benzoinum.

VIRUS, (*Virus, i,* n). A ſynonym of contagion. See *Contagion.*

VIS ELASTĬCA. See *Vis Mortua.*

VIS INSĬTA, (*Vis, vis,* f. pl. *vires*). This property is defined by Haller to be that power by which a muſcle, when wounded, touched, or irritated, contracts, independent of the will of the animal that is the object of the experiment, and without its feeling pain. See *Irritability.*

VIS MEDICATRIX NATURÆ. A term employed by phyſicians to expreſs that healing power in an animated body, by which, when diſeaſed, the body is enabled to regain its healthy actions.

VIS MORTŬA. *Vis elaſtica.* That property by which a muſcle after the death of the animal, or a muſcle immediately after having been cut out from a living body, contracts.

VĬS NERVŌSA. This property is conſidered by Whytt to be another power of the muſcles by which they act when excited by the nerves.

VISCUM, (*Viſcum, i,* n.). Miſsletoe. *Viſcum album* of Linnæus. This ſingular paraſitical plant moſt commonly grows on apple-trees, alſo on the pear, hawthorn, ſervice, oak, haſel, maple, aſh, lime-tree, willow elm, horn-beam, &c. It is ſuppoſed to be propagated by birds, eſpecially by the field fare and thruſh, which feed upon its berries, the ſeeds of which paſs through the bowels unchanged; and along with the excrement adhere to the branches of trees where they vegetate.

The miſsletoe of the oak has, from the times of the ancient druids, been always preferred to that produced on other trees; but it is now well known that the *viſcus quercus* differs in no reſpect from others.

This plant is the ἶξ of the Greeks, and was in former times thought to poſſeſs many medicinal virtues; however, we learn but little concerning its efficacy from the ancient writers on the materia medica, nor will it be deemed neceſſary to ſtate the extraordinary powers aſcribed to the miſsletoe by the crafty deſigns of druidical knavery. Both the leaves and branches of the plant have very little ſmell, and a very weak taſte of the nauſeous kind. In diſtillation they impregnate water with their faint unpleaſant ſmell, but yield no eſſential oil. Extracts, made from them by water, are bitteriſh, roughiſh, and ſub-ſaline. The ſpirituous extracts of the wood has the greateſt auſterity, and that of the leaves the greateſt bitterneſs. The berries abound with an extremely tenacious and moſt ungrateful ſweet mucilage.

The viſcus quercus obtained great reputation for the cure of epilepſy; and a caſe of this diſeaſe, of a woman of quality, in which it proved remarkably ſucceſsful, is mentioned by Boyle. Some years afterwards its uſe was ſtrongly recommended in various convulſive diſorders by Colbach, who has related ſeveral inſtances of its good effects. He adminiſtered it in ſubſtance in doſes of half a dram, or a dram, of the wood or leaves, or an infuſion of an ounce. This author was followed by others, who have not only given teſtimony of the efficacy of the miſsletoe in different convulſive affections, but alſo in thoſe complaints denominated nervous, in which it was ſuppoſed to act in the character of a tonic.

But all that has been written in favour of this remedy, which is certainly well deſerving of notice, has not prevented it from falling into general neglect; and the colleges of London and Edinburgh have, perhaps not without reaſon, expunged it from their catalogues of the materia medica.

VISCUM ALBUM. The syſtematic name of the paraſitical miſsletoe. See *Viſcum*.

VISCUS, (*Viſcus, eris*, n.) Any organ or part which has an appropriate uſe, as the viſcera of the abdomen, &c.

VISION, (*Viſus, us*, m.). See *Sight*.

VISION, DEFECTIVE.

VISUS DEFIGURĀTUS. See *Metamorphopſia*.

VITÆ ARBOR. See *Arbor vitæ*.

VITAL ACTIONS. See *Vital Functions*.

VITAL FUNCTIONS. Vital actions. Thoſe actions of the body upon which life immediately depends, as the circulation of the blood, reſpiration, heat of the body, &c. See *Function*.

VITAL PRINCIPLE. See *Life*.

VITALBA. Travellers joy. This plant is common in our hedges and is the *Clematis vitalba; foliis pinnatis, foliolis cordatis ſcandentibus* of Linnæus: its leaves when freſh produce a warmth on the tongue, and if the chewing is continued, bliſters ariſe. The ſame effect follows their being rubbed on the ſkin. The plant has been adminiſtered internally to cure *lues venerea, ſcrophula*, and *rheumatiſmus*. In France the young ſprouts are eaten, when boiled, as hoptops are in this country.

VITILĪGO, (*Vitiligo, inis*, f. from *vitio*, to infect). A diſeaſe of the ſkin. See *Alphus*.

VITIS, (*Vitis, is*, f.). *Vitis vinifera* of Linnæus. *Vitis foliis lobatis ſinuatis nudis*. Claſs *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. Vine leaves and the tendrils have an adſtringent taſte, and were formerly uſed in diarrhœas, hæmorrhages, and other diſorders requiring refrigerant and ſtyptic medicines. The juice or ſap of the vine, called lachryma, has been recommended in calculous diſorders; and it is ſaid to be an excellent application to weak eyes and ſpecks of the cornea. The unripe fruit has a harſh, rough, ſour taſte; its expreſſed juice, called verjuice, was formerly much eſteemed, but is now ſuperſeded by the juice of lemons: for external uſe however, particularly in bruiſes and pains, verjuice is ſtill employed, and conſidered to be a very uſeful application. See alſo *Uvæ paſſæ, Wine*, and *Acetum*.

VITIS ALBA. The white bryony was ſo called. See *Bryonia alba*.

VITIS IDÆA. The red whertle berry. The leaves of this plant, *Vaccinium vitis idæa* of Linnæus, are ſo adſtringent as to be uſed in ſome places for tanning. They are ſaid to mitigate the pain attendant on calculous diſeaſes when given internally in the form of decoction. The ripe berries abound with a grateful acid juice; and are eſteemed in Sweden as aperient, antiſeptic, and refrigerant, and often given in putrid diſeaſes.

VITIS VINIFĔRA. The ſyſtematic name of the grape tree. See *Vitis, Wine*, &c.

VITIX AGNUS CASTUS. The ſyſtematic name of the chaſte tree. See *Agnus caſtus*.

VITREOUS HUMOUR. *Humor vitreus*. The pellucid body which fills the whole bulb of the eye behind the cryſtalline lens. The whole of the vitreous ſubſtance is compoſed of ſmall cells which communicate with each other, and are diſtended with a tranſparent fluid.

VITRIOL, ACID OF. See *Sulphuric acid*.

VITRIOL ACID, ELIXIR OF. See *Elixir vitrioli acidum*.

VITRIOL, BLUE. See *Cuprum vitriolatum*.

VITRIOL, ELIXIR OF. See *Elixir vitriolum acidum*.

VITRIOL, GREEN. See *Ferrum vitriolatum*.

VITRIOL, ROMAN. See *Cuprum vitriolatum.*

VITRIOL, SPIRITS OF. See *Acidum ſulphuricum dilutum.*

VITRIOL, SWEET ELIXIR OF. See *Elixir vitrioli dulcis.*

VITRIOL, SWEET SPIRIT OF. See *Spiritus ætheris vitriolici.*

VITRIOL, WHITE. See *Zincum vitriolatum.*

VITRIOLATED KALI. See *Kali vitriolatum.*

VITRIŎLUM, (*Vitriolum, i,* n. from *vitrum,* glaſs; ſo called from its likeneſs to glaſs. Hollandus ſays this word is fictitious, and compoſed from the initials of the following ſentence: *Vade in terram rimando, invenies optimum lapidem veram medicinam*). Vitriol.

VITRIŎLUM ALBUM. See *Zincum vitriolatum.*

VITRIŎLUM CŒRULĔUM. See *Cuprum vitriolatum.*

VITRIŎLUM ROMĀNUM. See *Cuprum vitriolatum.*

VITRIŎLUM VIRĬDE. See *Ferrum vitriolatum.*

VITRUM ANTIMONĬI CERATUM. A diaphoretic compound exhibited in the cure of dyſenteries ariſing from checked perſpiration.

VOICE. The principal organ of the voice is the larynx; for, when it is injured, the air paſſes through the windpipe, without yielding any ſound. By the larynx, we underſtand an aſſemblage of cartilages, joined into a hollow machine, which receives the air from the fauces, and tranſmits it into the windpipe, connected with it by ligaments and muſcular fibres. Among the larger of theſe cartilages, the annular and ſcutiform in adults oſſify internally. The anterior and larger part of the larynx, which lies almoſt immediately under the ſkin, is compoſed of two cartilages; the thyroid and cricoid, to which the lateral parts of the larynx alſo belong in ſuch a manner, that the portions of the cricoid cartilage always become larger, as they are higher ſeated. The back-part of the larynx is compoſed firſt of the ſaid annular cartilage, and afterwards of the arytenoid cartilages, connected by muſcles. The epiglottis, looſely connected with the thyroid cartilage, is either raiſed or inclined over the larynx. The veſſels ariſe from the upper and lower thyroids; the nerves are numerous; the inferior ones come from the recurrents; the ſuperior ones from the eighth pair, inoſculating in various ways; ſome alſo from the intercoſtal. The former of theſe nerves is remarkable for its origin in the thorax; for its reflection round the aorta and right ſubclavian; for its giving riſe to ſome of the nerves of the heart; and for the experiment, which proves, that the voice is deſtroyed, by tying this nerve.

All theſe cartilages are connected together by various muſcles and ligaments, ſo that the whole may poſſeſs mobility, while ſome of its parts are firm, and others extremely moveable. The ſcutiform or thyroid cartilage, ſituated on the fore part, is compoſed of two, almoſt quadrangular, plates, inclined to each other in an obtuſe angle, projecting forwards. In theſe plates, two apertures, one on each ſide for the internal veſſels of the larynx, are found ſometimes, though rarely. The upper proceſſes of this cartilage, terminating in a thick point, inclining upwards and backwards, are connected with the horns of the os hyoides, by ſtrong ligaments, ſometimes mixed with bone. The lower proceſſes are ſhorter, are adapted to the ſlightly hollowed, and almoſt flat ſurfaces of the cricoid cartilage: and are connected by a very firm articulation, on account of the ſhortneſs and ſtrength of the cellular ſubſtance,

which unites them. The middle anterior part is joined by ſtrong perforated ligaments, to the middle of the annular cartilage; and likewiſe by other ſuperior ligaments, proceeding from the deſcending horn of the ſcutiform cartilage to the upper part of the annular cartilage.

The cricoid cartilage, anteriorly thick and hard, is increaſed backwards, in form of a ring unequally truncated; and, in the middle, it is divided into two cavities by a protuberant line. It is firmer than the reſt of the cartilages, and forms their baſis. From it longitudinal muſcular fibres and ligaments deſcend to the windpipe. The pharynx connected with each of theſe cartilages by many muſcular layers, receives the larynx into its cavity. From this cartilage a ſhort ligament proceeds to the arytenoid cartilage on each ſide.

The figure of the two arytenoid cartilages is very complex. It ſpontaneouſly divides into two parts, of which the lower is larger, and is connected by a moderately concave baſe with the thick cricoid cartilage, forming a moveable articulation. It ſends a proceſs forwards, which ſeparates the glottis, and ſuſtains the inferior part of the ventricle of the larynx. They aſcend upwards, of a triangular figure; the poſterior baſe is hollow, and the anterior ſide is convex, and divided by three furrows. They are extenuated upwards, till they are at laſt terminated by a pretty thick, oval, cartilaginous head fixed on them. The lower part of theſe cartilages is connected by numerous muſcular fibres, partly tranſverſe, and partly oblique; of which the different directions are evident, though they cannot be ſeparated. Theſe are called the arytenoid muſcles. In their upper part, the arytenoid cartilages are ſeparated by a perpendicular chink, which has been improperly by ſome called the glottis.

The arytenoid cartilages are connected with the thyroid by tranſverſe ligaments, for the moſt part ſufficiently ſtrong and elaſtic, but covered with the common mucous membrane of the larynx. Theſe ligaments ariſe below the middle of the arytenoid cartilages, and are inſerted into the flat angle of the thyroid cartilage, and may be ſeparated from each other, by removing the arytenoid cartilages from being in mutual contact, and may be again brought into contiguity by the cartilages approaching each other. This conſtitutes the true glottis, and is continuous, but at right angles with the above mentioned chink.

From the ſame angle of the thyroid cartilage, under a notch, from a firm ligament, a cartilage ariſes, with an erect ſlender ſtalk, of an oval ſhape, convex before, behind concave, and with its ſuperior extremity reflected backwards and concave. It is kept erect by its own elaſticity, ſo that it riſes upright behind the tongue; but it can be ſo inclined whenever the root of the tongue is preſſed backward, that, having become tranſverſe, it completely ſhuts up and protects the paſſage into the larynx, which deſcends between this, the epiglottis, and the arytenoid cartilages. The epiglottis is joined to the tongue by pale membranous fibres and to the os hyoides by much membranous expanſion. It either has no fibres from the thyro-arytenoidal and arytenoidal muſcles, or they are too minute to counteract its elaſticity.

At the ſides of the ligaments of the glottis, two other upper and ſofter ligaments, leſs tendinous or elaſtic, proceed parallel from each arytenoid cartilage to the thyroid. Betwixt theſe two ligaments of each ſide a peculiar cavity or ventricle deſcends, having the figure of a compreſſed parabolic ſpace, extending

downwards betwixt the double membrane of the larynx, with its ſuperior orifice, of an elliptic form, conſtantly open into the larynx.

Laſtly, all the internal cavity of the larynx is lined with the ſame ſoft, irritable, mucous membrane, we before deſcribed in the windpipe. This membrane is moiſtened by a great number of glands. The uppermoſt are ſmall, and compoſed of ſimple glands. They are ſeated on the anterior convex part of the epiglottis, and ſend prolongations through its various perforations and larger ſinuſes, to its concave ſide, which are there continued into ſimilar firm glands. Moreover, upon the anterior furrowed ſurface of the arytenoid cartilages, there is on each ſide a gland, of a looſe conglomerate fabric, reſembling much a gnomon, compoſed of round acini, doubtleſs mucous, of which a looſe portion deſcends on each ſide as far as the annular cartilage. In the ventricles, there are numerous mucous ſinuſes. Laſtly, all the internal ſurface of the larynx is full of large mucous pores. All theſe glands ſecrete a thin and watery but at the ſame time, viſcid mucous.

Has the thyroid gland any ſimilar uſe? It is of the conglomerate kind, but ſoft, the coverings of the lobules being much more tender than in the ſalival glands; it is very large, is anteriorly ſeated upon the thyroid and cricoid cartilages and windpipe, ſurrounding with lateral productions the ſides of the thyroid; is joined to its companion by an iſthmus, which is narrow and emarginated below; and by a middle very thin proceſs it aſcends on the fore-part, almoſt to the os hyoides. This gland is full of a ſerous, yellowiſh, and ſomewhat viſcid humour. Does it it diſcharge this fluid into the windpipe or into the œſophagus? Into neither. Are ducts certainly known to open? Does it retain its fluid entirely, and afterwards reſtore it to the veins, like the thymus, which is analogous in its ſtructure? Is it a conglobate gland? That the uſe of this gland is very conſiderable, appears from the remarkable ſize of the arteries which it receives from the carotids, and of its inferior ones from the ſubclavians. The veins return into the jugulars and ſubclavians. It has a peculiar muſcle, not however conſtant, ariſing from the margin of the os hyoides, and ſometimes from the lower edge of the thyroid cartilage towards the left, which deſcends without a fellow, and ſpreads its tendinous fibres over the gland, upon which alſo the ſterno-hyoidei and ſterno-thyroidei muſcles are incumbent.

The whole larynx is ſuſpended from the os hyoides, both by ligaments inſerted into the ſuperior horns of the thyroid cartilage, and by the middle of its baſis, united to the junction of the plates, conſtituting that cartilage. The larynx, and os hyoides connected with it, may be raiſed conſiderably, even half an inch above its mean altitude. This is performed by the biventer muſcles, together with the genio-hyoidei, genio-gloſſi, ſtylo-gloſſi, ſtylo-hyoidei, ſtylo-pharyngei, thyro-palatini, hyo-thyroidei; either conjunctly or partially. During its elevation, the glottis is rendered narrower, and the ligaments before mentioned approach nearer together. Thus, by the aſſiſtance of the action of the arytenoid muſcles, both oblique and tranſverſe, the glottis may be accurately cloſed, ſo as to reſiſt with an incredible force the preſſure of the whole atmoſphere.

The whole larynx may alſo be depreſſed about half an inch beneath its ordinary ſituation, by the ſterno-hyoidei, ſterno-thyroidei, and coraco-hyoidei, as they are called: and, when theſe are in action, by the anterior and poſterior crico-thyroidei. By this

motion the arytenoid cartilages remove from each other, and the glottis becomes wider, which is alſo drawn open by the muſcles laterally inſerted into the arytenoid cartilages, and by the crico-arytenoidei poſtici and laterales, and thyro-arytenoidei: theſe alſo, by reſting upon the ventricles of the larynx, are capable of compreſſing them. The particular cartilages which form the larynx, can ſcarcely be moved ſeparately.

From the larynx the air comes into the mouth and noſtrils. By the mouth, we here mean that large and irregularly ſhaped cavity, ſituated between the ſoft and hard palates, both concave in the middle, and the muſcles lying under them, and the lower jaw. The noſtrils aſcend forwards above the ſoft palate; they are two broad cavities, included between the ſeptum medium, and the oſſa cavernoſa, and ſome other parts. They are every where bony and cartilaginous.

The tongue lies in the middle of the mouth; it is a broad piece of fleſh eaſily changeable into any kind of figure, and readily moved without delay to any part of the mouth: by its own fleſhy fibres, and by the muſcles attached either to itſelf or to the os hyoides which is joined to it by many fleſhy fibres and membranes, it may with great facility be made to aſſume any poſition or figure. It is drawn forwards by the genio-gloſſi and genio-hyoidei muſcles; backwards, by the ſtylo-gloſſi, ſtylo-hyoidei, cerato-gloſſi, baſio-gloſſi, chondro-gloſſi, and biventer; downwards, by the ſterno-hyoidei and cerato-hyoidei: and upwards, by the mylo-gloſſi, ſtylo-hyoidei, by the biventers, and likewiſe by the mylo-hyoidei.

So much for the anatomy. It remains that we demonſtrate what effects are produced by air, when expelled, during exſpiration, by the powers above deſcribed, from the lungs through the windpipe into the larynx, and from thence forced through the glottis into the mouth variouſly configured. Theſe effects are, voice, ſpeech, and ſinging. Sound only is produced when the air is expelled with ſo great a velocity through the contracted glottis, that it impinges on the ligaments of the glottis and thus produces in the larynx that tremor, which, being vibratory on account of its elaſticity, it continues and increaſes. Therefore, from the united vibrations of the ligaments and of the cartilages of the larynx, a ſound is produced, which we call the voice, peculiar in every claſs of animals, and which depends entirely on the larynx and glottis. When there are no vibrations, a whiſper is produced.

The ſtrength of the voice depends upon the quanity of air exſpired, and the narrowneſs of the glottis; and therefore, upon capacious lungs eaſily dilatable, an ample, cartilaginous and elaſtic larynx and windpipe, the free reſonance of the noſtrils, and a powerful exſpiration. But the acuteneſs or gravity of the tones, we obſerve to ariſe from various cauſes. The former proceeds partly from the narrowneſs, and partly from the tenſion, of the glottis, and the latter from its relaxation and dilatation. For hence, the air, in a given time, impinges upon the ligaments of the contracted glottis with more numerous undulations, and cauſes more frequent vibrations; but when the glottis is dilated, the contrary of all this follows. And from the greater tenſion of the ligaments, the tremors in like manner become more numerous from the ſame ſtroke. Therefore to produce an acute ſound, the whole larynx is drawn upwards and forwards; and with greater force as the voice is required to be ſharper, inſomuch that the head itſelf is ſome-

times inclined backwards, that the muſcles elevating the larynx may exert their full powers. The truth of this is confirmed by experiment; for by applying the fingers to the larynx when acute ſounds are emitted the elevation of the larynx, which is about half an inch for the octave, is eaſily felt: and by comparative anatomy, which demonſtrates the glottis to be very narrow and cartilaginous in ſinging birds, and wide in hoarſe animals, and ſuch as are low or are mute. This is alſo illuſtrated by whiſtling, where the ſharpneſs of the ſound evidently proceeds from the contraction of the mouth: and by muſical inſtruments, in which the narrowneſs of the opening admitting the air, and the celerity with which it is impelled, are the cauſes of an acute tone.

Gravity of the voice is produced by oppoſite circumſtances, the depreſſion of the larynx by the cauſes already deſcribed; a wide glottis and a very ample larynx. This is proved by the touch, which eaſily perceives the deſcent of the larynx in perſons ſinging, in like manner about half an inch for every octave; by the greater gravity of the voice in males, and by the loweſt tones of the voice degenerating into a ſilent breathing.

Does every diverſity of tone proceed from the length of the ligaments of the glottis, which is augmented when the ſcutiform cartilage is drawn forwards, and the arytenoid ones backwards? Is it according to this rule, that the moſt acute tones are produced, by the ligaments being rendered very tenſe, and therefore vibrating with great celerity? This is aſſerted by ſome late anatomiſts, from experiments, which have been alſo repeated by ſome eminent men; they have obſerved, that, when the chords or ligaments of the glottis are tenſe, the peculiar voice of every kind of animal is produced by blowing air into its trachea: that this voice was rendered more acute by ſtretching the ligaments, and more grave by looſening them: that by ſhutting the whole ligament, the voice was ſuppreſſed; by ſhutting the half, the voice was rendered an octave higher; by ſhutting a third part, a fifth higher, &c. There are not wanting, however, doubts concerning this new theory, ariſing from the cartilaginous and bony, and conſequently immoveable and inextenſible, glottis of birds; from the certain production of more acute ſounds, in whiſtling, from the mere contraction of the lips; from the example of women, in which the larynx is ſofter but the voice more acute, than in men; from experiments which ſhew, that more acute ſounds are produced by bringing the ligaments of the glottis nearer into contact with each other; and from the total abſence of machinery for ſtretching the ligaments, and drawing the thyroid cartilage forwards from the annular one. But ſince it appears from experiments, that the tenſion of the ligaments ſuffices for producing acute ſounds, without the contraction of the glottis, it is probable that difference of tenſion in the glottis contributes more than a difference of its diameter to the diverſity of voice.

Singing, is when the voice, modulated through various degrees of acuteneſs and gravity, is expelled through the larynx, while vibrating and ſuſpended between contrary powers, which chiefly diſtinguiſhes it from ſpeech. It is a labourious action, on account of the perpetual action of the muſcles poiſing the larynx; and it increaſes the animal heat, becauſe acute tones require a contracted glottis, which retards the exſpiration, and at the ſame time a great deal of air, to give them ſtrength, and, therefore, deep inſpirations are

neceſſary. It tends very much to dry the windpipe, from the accelerated paſſage of the air: and renders a great deal of mucus neceſſary, which is the reaſon why there are ſuch numbers of mucous receptacles in the larynx, amongſt which Haller ſuſpects the ventricles before deſcribed ought to be numbered.

Speech is performed when the larynx is at reſt, in tones differing but little in acuteneſs and gravity: by variouſly modifying the voice by the organs of the mouth. Sonorous ſpeech has both variations in the tone, and modifications of the voice by the organs of the mouth.

All ſpeech is reducible to the pronunciation of letters, which differ in various nations, although they agree in the greateſt number over the whole world. Of theſe, ſome are called vowels, which are expreſſed by the mere emiſſion of the voice through the mouth. But conſonants are formed by a colliſion of the tongue againſt ſome part of the mouth, lips, or teeth. The nature of the work forbids us to be more particular, and prevents us from explaining a moſt ingenious art, which, a rare occurrence in phyſics, has ſo clearly determined all the corporeal cauſes of each letter, that by mere inſpection and touch of the organs during their pronunciation, it has taught ſpeech by imitation.

VOLVULUS, (*Volvulus, i*, m. from *volvo*, to roll up). See *Iliac paſſion*.

VOMER, (*Vomer, eris*, m. ſo called from its reſemblance to a ploughſhare). A bone of the noſe ſituated in the cavity of the noſtrils, which it divides into two parts.

VOMĪCA, (*Vomica, æ*, f.). An abſceſs of the lungs.

VOMIC NUT. See *Nux vomica*.

VOMĪCA NUX. See *Nux vomica*.

VOMITING. A forceable ejection of food, or any other ſubſtance from the ſtomach, through the œſophagus and mouth. It is either *idiopathic* when ariſing from a cauſe in the ſtomach itſelf; or *ſymptomatic* when originating from diſeaſes ſeated in any other part of the body. Its immediate cauſe is an antiperiſtaltic, ſpaſmodical, convulſive conſtriction of the ſtomach, and preſſure of the diaphragm, and abdominal muſcles. It is an effort of nature to expel whatever moleſts or is troubleſome in the ſtomach.

VOMITING OF BLOOD. See *Hæmatemeſis*.

VOMĪTUS CRUENTUS. See *Hæmatemeſis*.

VORACIOUS APPETITE. See *Bulimia*.

VULGAGO. The aſarabacca was ſo called. See *Aſarum*.

VULVA, (*Vulva, æ*, f.). *Pudendum muliebre*. The parts of generation proper to women.

VULVARĬA, (*Vulvaria, æ*, f. from *vulva*, the womb; ſo named from its ſmell or uſe in diſorders of the womb). See *Atriplex olida*.

W,

WAKE ROBIN. See *Arum*.

WALLFLOWER. See *Cheiri*.

WALL PELLITORY. See *Parietaria*.

WALL PEPPER. See *Illecebra*.

WALNUT. See *Juglans*.

WATER. *Aqua*. A tranſparent fluid without colour, ſmell, or taſte; in every degree compreſſible; when pure, not liable to ſpontaneous change; liquid in the common temperature of our atmoſphere, aſſum-

ing the ſolid form at 32° Fahrenheit, and the gaſeous at 212°, but returning unaltered to its liquid ſtate on reſuming any degree of heat between theſe points; capable of diſſolving a greater number of natural bodies than any other fluid whatever, and eſpecially thoſe known by the name of the ſaline; performing the moſt important functions in the vegetable and animal kingdoms, and entering largely into their compoſition as a conſtituent part.

Water, therefore, is found throughout the earth, not only in the uncombined ſtates of ice, water, or ſteam, but permanently united to a vaſt number of bodies, both ſolid, fluid, and gaſeous. For inſtance, the common air of the atmoſphere and water are mutually ſoluble in each other; all natural waters containing air, and even that air which is apparently the dryeſt, holding a portion of water in true ſolution. Again many ſolid minerals and all chryſtallized neutral ſalts contain water in their compoſition, ſome of the latter to full half their weight; and by all theſe combinations water, in changing its form, loſes many of its diſtinguiſhing properties.

Chemiſts have long been occupied in the important conſideration, whether water be a ſimple elementary ſubſtance; and two or three totally different controverſies have ſucceeded each other on this queſtion. It was long ſince obſerved, even by Hippocrates, that all natural waters contain air, which is ſeparable from them by heat or by freezing, and that, under particular circumſtances, they all depoſit a portion of earth. Theſe events conſtantly occurring with every natural water as it ſprings from the ſoil, ſeveral ingenious men have imagined that earth and air were neceſſary conſtituent parts of perfect water, and have attempted to allot to each of them their peculiar ſhare in producing the various appearances of this fluid, and its effect on the human body: So Hoffman obſerves, that "water is compoſed of watery moiſture, or water, properly ſo called, of a fluid expanſive ether, and of earthy and ſaline particles." Aſſuming this compoſition as true, he goes on to aſſign the particular properties of each ingredient: "The ethereal part is the cauſe of the ſuperior lightneſs, briſkneſs, inteſtine motion, and exemption from putrefaction; the watery part, which is by far the greateſt in quantity, is compoſed of very ſubtile and mobile particles, which inſinuate into, and penetrate every ſubſtance capable of ſolution; whilſt the earthy and ſaline matter is fixed, and will not riſe in diſtillation. Hence too the quality of different waters muſt, according to this opinion, depend on the proportion of each ingredient.

The moſt ſalubrious waters are thoſe which contain moſt of the etherial particles, and are lighter than the others. They alſo heat and cool the ſooneſt (heat being only the friction of the highly mobile etherial parts upon each other), and hence the beſt waters, when ſhaken, ſhew numerous bubbles, like pearls, on the ſides of the glaſs, and yield much etherial ſpirit under the air pump. When more highly etherial, they become acidulous, as the Seltzer and Pyrmont waters, and can with difficulty be reſtrained in bottles, and therefore are much more ſalubrious when drank at the fountain head. Hence theſe waters do not cool the body like common water, but increaſe the appetite and quicken the circulation. This ether is the univerſal ſpirit, the ſoul, as it were, of minerals. From the abundance of the aqueous parts, the integrity of the body is preſerved, the vital juices attenuated, the extreme

veſſels cleanſed, and the morbid ſaline parts carried off by the excretories." This quotation ſelected from various paſſages in this celebrated German writer will give the reader ſome idea of the prevalent opinions at the time; and ſhew that conſiderable attention was paid to the gaſeous bodies with which various waters are impregnated, but which were then thought to be too ſubtile for chemical examination, and were rather conſidered as eſſential parts of every water in the ſtate of the higheſt perfection, encreaſing its general ſalubrity as a common drink, as well as adding important medical powers. We ſhall preſently ſhew the great acquiſition to our knowledge on theſe ſubjects which modern chemiſtry has made, in diſtinguiſhing accurately the gaſeous, earthy, and ſaline parts, from the purely aqueous, and explaining their nature and formation. The ſuppoſed converſion of water into earth, effected by the proceſs of diſtillation often repeated, and independent of the acknowledged earthy reſidue of all natural waters, was another opinion much controverted at that time, which was apparently ſupported by very ſtrong facts, and employed the ſkill, attention, and eſpecially the patience, of many of the ableſt chemiſts. A moſt exaggerated account of the quality of earth produced by diſtilling ſimple water a number of times ſucceſſively, having been given to the world, ſupported by the great authority of Boyle, other chemiſts made various experiments to aſcertain the truth of this report. The moſt accurate and important in ſupport of this opinion, are thoſe of the eminent Berlin chemiſt, Margraaff; he found that water, though purified by repeated diſtillations, if evaporated to dryneſs, always left a ſmall earthy reſiduum. This amounted, after ſeventy-two diſtillations, to ten grains. But as the earth thus obtained was moſtly ſilicious, and was produced in greater quantity by violent boiling, than by a gentle heat, though the ſame quantity and kind of water in both caſes was operated on, it was ſuſpected, that the production of earth was entirely owing to the abraſion of the glaſs veſſels in which the diſtillation was carried on. Accordingly, Lavoiſier repeated the experiment with this view, and by weighing the veſſel before and after the proceſs, he found a loſs of weight fully equal to that of the earth produced; and this explanation is now generally acquieſced in, and has long put an end to the controverſy. Water had hardly been reeſtabliſhed on the liſt of elementary ſubſtances, before the important queſtion of its decompoſition, according to the opinion of modern chemiſtry, began to be agitated. It would be foreign from our preſent purpoſe to give any hiſtory of this intereſting queſtion, and the gradual advances which this opinion has made to an almoſt univerſal eſtabliſhment among chemiſts of every country. Water is, according to this opinion, a compouud fluid, made up of two ſubſtances, neither of which can be exhibited ſeparately, except in the gaſeous form; and when aeriform, they are known, the one as hydrogen gas, or inflammable air; the other as oxygen gas, or vital air. Theſe gaſes, in the proportion of about three of hydrogen to eleven of oxygen, when united chemically, and reduced from the form of an air to that of a liquid, conſtitute the fluid, water.

It is to be obſerved, however, that this circumſtance of the compoſition of water, has very little concern with the chemical knowledge of mineral waters. None of the methods of examining theſe waters appear in any notable degree to re-

duce ſimple water to its original elements, but only to ſeparate from it the foreign contents of every deſcription, to which it combines while flowing under the ſurface of the earth; no proceſs of obtaining the adventitious gaſes of natural waters ſeem to decompoſe any part of this fluid, but, in all chemical enquiries connected with the analyſis of mineral ſprings, the aqueous principle may be generally conſidered as acting merely as water, at leaſt in the preſent ſtate of our chemical knowledge. The principal facts, to the explanation of which the decompoſition of water has materially aſſiſted, are various circumſtances in the ſolution and oxydation of metallic bodies; ſeveral of the moſt important changes that take place in the vegetable kingdom, ſuch as that of their giving out oxygen gas in ſunſhine; the formation of oils, reſins, and other inflammable bodies during their growth; the converſion of ſugar into ardent ſpirit during fermentation; and the ultimate analyſis by the proceſs of ſpontaneous putrefaction. It ſtill remains for chemiſtry to determine whether the decompoſition of water performs any material part in the changes that are going on in the living animal. It is certainly by no means an improbable conjecture, ſince the materials of animal bodies are ſuch as are peculiarly liable to change, and eſpecially as the proceſs of animal putrefaction is ſuppoſed to be principally brought about by the decompoſition of water aſſiſted by a moderate temperature, and therefore the ſame materials under the ſame circumſtances of heat, may poſſibly undergo ſomewhat of a ſimilar decompoſition even during animal life. As this ſubject, however, is entirely confined to the regions of conjecture, and not connected with our preſent enquiries, we ſhall take no further notice of the ultimate decompoſition of water.

Of all the claſſes of natural bodies there are none, into which water enters ſo largely as a conſtituent part, as thoſe of the vegetable and animal kingdoms. Theſe are peculiarly diſtinguiſhed, in a chemical view, from the mineral kingdom, by poſſeſſing a ſtructure remarkably liable to decompoſition, and in which the quieſcent affinities are never ſo adjuſted, that the conſtituent parts of their bodies can, for a moment during life, remain at reſt without forming new compounds. Moſt minerals will continue for ages unaltered, when protected from external chemical agents; but an animal or vegetable is at no two periods preciſely the ſame. This reſtleſſneſs of compoſition is owing to two circumſtances; the one, that of poſſeſſing materials highly liable to change; the other, the perpetual internal motion and reaction of parts produced by their peculiar organization. This organization, which is more or leſs complex in different parts and various claſſes, conſiſts in all of a ſyſtem of cylindrical veſſels generally ramifying into minute branches and of a fluid which is conſtantly circulating within theſe veſſels. Then, as all the ſolids are formed by decompoſition from the circulating fluids, and, when rendered unfit for performing their functions, or noxious to the body, are removed by means of the fluids, it is neceſſary that the latter ſhould be capable of holding in ſolution, or at leaſt ſuſpending, all the materials of which the ſolids are compoſed. This, therefore, leads to one important property in water, that of being the baſis of all the fluids that are perpetually circulating through every tube of every organized and living animal or vegetable.

It would be a moſt valuable diſcovery if we were able to aſcertain the preciſe degree of ſolubility of the various materials of the circulating fluid in the water which holds them ſuſpended, and the extent to which ſimple chemical affinities would act independently of the circumſtance of life, which appears to produce regular and important changes in a manner, and according to laws, to the explanation of which natural philoſophy is inadequate. Something, however, of the chemical conſtitution of the fluids of the animal body we are already acquainted with, and theſe facts illuſtrate the high importance of the aqueous fluid, and the large ſhare which it ſupplies of all the circulating juices. Thus we know, that the blood is a very compound liquid, conſiſting of animal gluten or the coagulum; of red globules, the nature of which we are but little acquainted with; of animal albumen, which is ſeparable from the ſerum by heat; of animal gelly, which is eaſy of ſolution; of a number of ſalts of the muriatic and phoſphoric kinds; but laſtly and chiefly, of a very large quantity of water, which enables the other contents to aſſume the fluid ſtate, and to circulate freely through very minute canals. This quantity varies at different times, but, on an average, is eſtimated by Haller at nearly three fourths, or as 90 to 128, or ſometimes 103 to 128. Not only the quantity of the reſpective contents varies, but probably the ſtate of the ingredients and the circumſtances of ſolution. So it is found that the proportion of coagulum is greater in the robuſt high-fed perſons, than in the weakly and ill-fed, and greater in general in the warm than in the cold blooded animals. The proportional quantity of ſalts has not been ſo well aſcertained, attention having been rather paid to their ſenſible or ſuppoſed qualities, ſuch as thoſe of acrimony, alcaleſcency, and the like.

The circumſtances of ſolution deſerve ſome notice in a chemical point of view. Of the contents of the blood, ſome, ſuch as gelly and ſaline matter, are eaſily ſoluble in water; others, ſuch as albumen and gluten, probably with much more difficulty; and the latter is rather ſuſpended than truly diſſolved, as it coagulates when at reſt even in the body, as Mr. Hewſon has obſerved, and without diminution of temperature or expoſure to air. This property the ſame ingenious phyſiologiſt found to be retarded by the violent action of circulation, and thus ſatisfactorily explained the buffy coat on inflamed blood which had been erroneouſly imputed to inſpiſſation from a loſs of the watery parts.

Water is that part of the blood which appears to be the leaſt animalized whilſt performing the round of circulation, the loſs of which ſeems to be the eaſier to bear, and to admit of the readieſt ſupply; but, as there is an ample proviſion in the excretions for carrying off whatever portion of this fluid is ſuperfluous, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe that there is little danger, in health at leaſt, of an exceſs in this moſt innocent of all the ingeſta.

The two moſt abundant excretions are the perſpiration and urine, and in theſe the aqueous ingredient predominates ſtill more than in the circulating maſs. Inſenſible perſpiration is little elſe than pure water, with a very minute quantity of ſalt, and ſtill leſs of animal matter, ſo little indeed, as only to be detected by the ſmell. The liquor that moiſtens the cavities of the body is nearly of the ſame nature. The animal matter appears to increaſe when the

perſpiration becomes violent and ſenſible, and the odour proportionally ſtronger, and often of a very peculiar kind. The obvious uſes of this copious excretion ſeem to be, not only to remove a ſuperabundance of water from the ſyſtem, but eſpecially, by carrying it off in a gaſeous form, to conſtitute the great cooling proceſs, and thus keep in proper check the production of heat by the lungs. In the copious excretion of urine, the proportion of water, though leſs than in the former caſe, is ſtill very great. It is calculated by Haller at about $\frac{15}{20}$ to $\frac{48}{50}$, and it appears to have regular variations according to the previous diet, the time which this ſecretion requires in forming, and the frequency of diſcharging. Our chemical knowledge of the other ingredients is ſtill very imperfect, but they ſeem to be more various and peculiar than thoſe of any other natural ſecretion. No other, likewiſe, ſhews ſuch a total diſeaſed change in chemical compoſition, as that which occurs during ſuccharine diabetes.

On the whole, it is probable that the purely chemical properties, which water exerciſes when forming a conſtituent part of the animal fluids, may depend on the proportion it bears to the other ingredients, or the degree of temperature, and force of action to which the whole has been expoſed, which will increaſe or diminiſh the true ſolvent power of this liquid, and poſſibly too on the order in which the other contents have been preſented to it. This laſt circumſtance has been but little attended to by phyſiologiſts, and yet, as we muſt ſuppoſe that the laws of chemical affinity are not entirely ſuperſeded by the living powers, it is certainly probable that the order of ſolution of the different contents of the common animal fluid may, in ſome degree, affect the reſpective proportion of the ſubſtances diſſolved.

It is not only in the animal, and ſtill more in the vegetable fluids, that water appears the moſt abundant ingredient, but even the ſolids of both theſe natural productions are found, when diſorganized, to have been compoſed moſt largely of aqueous fluid, but altered in its texture and deprived of its property of fluidity by the union of a very ſmall portion of other matter, aſſiſted by the gradual proceſs of growth and evolution from an organized body. The experiments of Van Helmont, Tillet, and others, have abundantly proved, that by far the greater part of the nutrition of vegetables is the water which they abſorb from the earth through the pores of their roots, and that, by ſubmitting them to diſtillation, they are again reſolvable, for the moſt part, in water. Some plants contain much more of this fluid than others; the aquatic more than thoſe that grow on a dry ſoil, and in general all young plants more than thoſe that are advanced in growth. The ſolid wood of trees is indeed compoſed of a conſiderable quantity of carbonaceous, earthy, and ſaline matter, and this is increaſing with age; but even the drieſt and moſt compact wood, ſuch as the heart of oak, when converted into charcoal, loſes during the proceſs full three fourths of its weight, which is almoſt entirely pure water. The willow and other aquatic trees, though their wood exhibits a pretty firm texture, contain only about a fourteenth part of their weight of ſolid matter, all the reſt being reſolvable into water. Graſs loſes, in drying into hay, about two thirds of its weight; and even the drieſt hay, if ſubmitted to diſtillation, yields two thirds of its weight of pure water. As the animal ſolids are all formed out of vegetable mat-

ter directly or indirectly, we might conclude *a priori* that the aqueous fluid, the principal component part of vegetables, would alſo enter largely into the compoſition of animal ſubſtance, and this is found to be the caſe by actual experiment.

It appears to be a diſtinguiſhing mark of organic matter, that in it a vaſt proportion of mere water is capable of being ſo intimately united with other ſubſtances as to loſe that fluidity which, in its uncombined ſtate, it aſſumes at a temperature above the freezing point, and of giving that peculiar elaſticity, flexibility, and cohefion, which are ſo neceſſary to a body that is to poſſeſs the powers of locomotion, or at leaſt to be furniſhed with a ſyſtem of veſſels in which a conſtant re-action of parts and perpetual internal movements are going on, without deſtroying that juxtapoſition which is neceſſary to an organic ſtructure. A mineral, a ſimple ſaline body, or, in ſhort, any ſubſtance that is not an immediate conſtituent part of an animal or vegetable, is ſcarcely ever ſuſceptible of any intermediate ſtate between the ſolid and the fluid texture produced by an union with any proportion of liquid menſtruum; a chryſtal of Glauber's ſalt, for inſtance, though it contains half its weight of water, is neither flexible nor elaſtic; and if heated, it paſſes immediately into the ſtate of ſolution, owing to the increaſed ſolvent power of its water of chryſtallization; but the glutinous part of wheat flour, though dry and pulverulent, no ſooner comes into contact with water, than it abſorbs a part, becomes thereby highly ductile and tenacious, and even refuſes to unite with an additional quantity of the ſame fluid, except by the aſſiſtance of a degree of heat, which entirely alters its original properties. If, therefore, we conſider water, either as the principal ſolvent for all the alimentary matter which the animal body perpetually receives from without, or as the baſis of all the ſecretions and excretions that perform particular functions, or as a large conſtituent part of the ſolids of every denomination; if we ſurvey its agency as diffuſed through every tube of the complicated ſyſtem of an organized body, or condenſed into firm or flexible fibres, we ſhall have no heſitation in allowing it a high place among thoſe important, but ſimple materials, out of which is formed the curious and intereſting ſtructure of every animated being.

There is a great variety of waters employed in the preparation of food, in manufactures, and domeſtic purpoſes, where the object is to uſe a ſimple pure water; and all the foreign matter which the liquid may contain, is conſidered as detrimental, or, at beſt, uſeleſs. Some notice of theſe is requiſite on account of the abundant daily uſe which we make of them; and the various ſubſtances which they contain ſhould be noticed, as they here conſtitute mere impurities, ſome of which are innocent, others prejudicial; ſome may be got rid of by ſimple methods, others can only be removed by chemical proceſſes which can ſeldom be adopted for common uſe. As the ſtandard of perfectly pure water, we muſt have recourſe to that which is artificially purified by diſtillation; for every natural water contains ſome foreign ingredients; and the excellence of theſe waters is directly in proportion as it approaches in properties to that which is diſtilled.

1. *Diſtilled water.* This is the lighteſt of all others, containing neither ſolid nor gaſeous ſubſtances in ſolution, is perfectly void of taſte and ſmell, colourleſs and beautifully tranſparent, has a ſoft feel, and wets the fingers more readily than any

other. It mixes uniformly with ſoap into a ſmooth opaline mixture, but may be added to a ſolution of ſoap in ſpirit of wine without injuring its tranſparency. The clearneſs of diſtilled water is not impaired by the moſt delicate chemical re-agents, ſuch as lime water, a ſolution of barytes in any acid, nitrated ſilver, or acid of ſugar. When evaporated in a ſilver veſſel it leaves no reſiduum; if preſerved from acceſs of foreign matter floating in the air, it may be kept for ages unaltered in veſſels upon which it has no action, as it does not poſſeſs within itſelf the power of decompoſition. As it freezes exactly at 32° of Fahrenheit and boils at 212° under the atmoſpherical preſſure of 29,8° inches, theſe points are made uſe of as the ſtandard ones for their mometrical diviſion; and its ſpecific weight being always the ſame under light preſſure and temperature, it is employed for the comparative ſtandard of ſpecific gravity.

Pure diſtilled water can only be procured from water which contains no volatile matters that will riſe in diſtillation, and continue ſtill in union with the vapour when condenſed. Many ſubſtances are volatile during diſtillation, but moſt of the gaſes, ſuch as common air, carbonic acid, and the like, are incapable of uniting with water at a high temperature: other bodies, however, ſuch as vegetable eſſential oil, and in general, much of that which gives the peculiar odour to vegetable and animal matter, will remain in water after diſtillation. So the ſteam of many animal and vegetable decoctions has a certain flavour which diſtinguiſhes it from pure water; and the aqueous exhalation from living bodies, which is a kind of diſtillation, has a ſimilar impregnation.

To obtain diſtilled water perfectly pure, much ſtreſs was laid by former chemiſts on repeating the proceſs a great number of times; but it was found by Lavoiſier, that rain water once diſtilled, rejecting the firſt and laſt products, was as pure a water as could be procured by any ſubſequent diſtillations.

Diſtilled water appears to poſſeſs a higher power than any other as a ſolvent of all animal and vegetable matter, and theſe it holds in ſolution as little as poſſible altered from the ſtate in which they exiſted in the body that yielded them. Hence the great practical utility of that kind of chemical analyſis which preſents the proximate conſtituent parts of theſe bodies, and which is effected particularly by the aſſiſtance of pure water. On the other hand, a ſaline, earthy, or otherwiſe impure water, will alter the texture of ſome of the parts, impair their ſolubility, produce material changes on the colouring matter, and become a leſs accurate analyſer on account of the admixture of foreign contents.

Diſtilled water is ſeldom employed to any extent in the preparation of food, or in manufactures, on account of the trouble of procuring it in large quantities; but for preparing a great number of medicines, and in almoſt every one of the nicer chemical proceſſes that are carried on in the liquid way, this water is an eſſential requiſite. The only caſes in which it has been uſed largely as an article of drink, have been in thoſe important trials made of the practicability of procuring it by condenſing the ſteam of ſea water by means of a ſimple apparatus adapted to a ſhip's boiler; and theſe have fully ſhewn the eaſe with which a large quantity of freſh water of the pureſt kind, may be had at ſea, at a moderate expence; whereby one of the moſt diſtreſſing of all wants may be relieved. There are one or two circumſtances which ſeem to ſhew

that water, when not already loaded with foreign matter, may become as ſolvent for concretions in urinary paſſages. At leaſt, we know that very material advantage has been derived in theſe caſes from very pure natural ſprings, and hence a courſe of diſtilled water has been recommended as a fair ſubject of experiment.

2. *Rain Water*, is the next in purity to diſtilled water, is that which has undergone a natural diſtillation from the earth, and is condenſed in the form of rain. This is a water ſo nearly approaching to abſolute purity as probably to be equal to diſtilled water for every purpoſe except in the nicer chemical experiments. The foreign contents of rain water appear to vary according to the ſtate of the air through which it falls. The heterogeneous atmoſphere of a ſmoaky town will give ſome impregnation to rain as it paſſes through, and this, though it may not be at once perceptible on chemical examination, will yet render it liable to ſpontaneous change; and hence, rain water, if long kept, eſpecially in hot climates, acquires a ſtrong ſmell, becomes full of animalcula, and in ſome degree putrid. According to Margraaff, the conſtant foreign contents of rain water appear to be ſome traces of the muriatic and nitric acids; but as this water is always very ſoft, it is admirably adapted for diſſolving ſoap, or for the ſolution of alimentary or colouring matter, and it is accordingly uſed largely for theſe purpoſes. The ſpecific gravity of rain water is ſo nearly the ſame as that of diſtilled water, that it requires the moſt delicate inſtruments to aſcertain the difference. Rain, that falls in towns, acquires a ſmall quantity of ſulphat of lime and calcareous matter from the mortar and plaiſter of the houſes.

3. *Ice* and *Snow Water*. This equals rain water in purity, and, when freſh melted contains no air, which is expelled during freezing. In cold climates and in high latitudes, thawed ſnow forms the conſtant drink of the inhabitants during winter; and the vaſt maſſes of ice which float on the polar ſeas afford an abundant ſupply to the mariner. It is well known, that in a weak brine, expoſed to a moderate freezing cold, it is only the watery part that congeals, leaving the unfrozen liquor proportionably ſtronger of the ſalt. The ſame happens with a dilute ſolution of vegetable acids, with fermented liquors, and the like; and advantage is taken of this property to reduce the ſaline part to a more concentrated form. Snow water has long lain under the imputation of occaſioning thoſe ſtrumous ſwellings in the neck which deform the inhabitants of many of the Alpine vallies; but this opinion is not ſupported by any well authenticated indiſputable facts, and is rendered ſtill more improbable, if not entirely overturned, by the frequency of the diſeaſe in Sumatra, where ice and ſnow are never ſeen, and its being quite unknown in Chili and in Thibet, though the rivers of theſe countries are chiefly ſupplied by the melting of the ſnow, with which the mountains are covered.

4. *Spring Water*. Under this comprehenſive claſs are included all waters that ſpring from ſome depth beneath the ſoil, and are uſed at the fountain head, or at leaſt before they have run any conſiderable diſtance expoſed to the air. It is obvious that ſpring water will be as various in its contents as the ſubſtances that compoſe the ſoil through which it flows. When the ingredients are not ſuch as to give any peculiar medical or ſenſible properties, and the water is uſed for common purpoſes, it is diſ-

tinguiſhed as a hard or ſoft ſpring, ſweet or brackiſh, clear or turbid, and the like. Ordinary ſprings inſenſibly paſs into mineral ſprings, as their foreign contents become more notable and uncommon; though ſometimes waters have acquired great medical reputation for mere purity.

By far the greater number of ſprings are cold; but as they take their origin at ſome depth from the ſurface and below the influence of the external atmoſphere, their temperature is, in general, pretty uniform during every viciſſitude of ſeaſon, and always ſeveral degrees higher than the freezing point. Others, again, ariſe conſtantly hot, or with a temperature always exceeding the ſummer heat; and the warmth poſſeſſed by the water is entirely independent of that of the atmoſphere, and varies little winter or ſummer.

One of the principal inconveniencies in almoſt every ſpring water, is its hardneſs, owing to the preſence of earthy ſalts, which, in by far the greater number of caſes, are only the inſipid ſubſtances, chalk and ſelenite, which do not impair the taſte of the water; whilſt the air which it contains, and its grateful coolneſs, render it a moſt agreeable, and generally a perfectly innocent, drink; though ſometimes, in weak ſtomachs, it is apt to occaſion an uneaſy ſenſe of weight in that organ followed by a degree of dyſpepſia. The quantity of earthy ſalts varies conſiderably; but, in general, it appears that the proportion of five grains of theſe in the pint will conſtitute a hard water, unfit for waſhing with ſoap, and for many other purpoſes of houſehold uſe or manufactures. The water of deep wells is always, *ceteris paribus*, much harder than that of ſprings which overflow their channel; for much agitation and expoſure to air produce a gradual depoſition of the calcareous earth; and hence ſpring water often incruſts to a conſiderable thickneſs the inſide of any kind of tube through which it flows, as it ariſes from the earth. The ſpecific gravity of theſe waters is alſo, in general, greater than that of any other kind of water, that of the ſea excepted. Springs that overflow their channel, and form to themſelves a limited bed, paſs inſenſibly into the ſtate of ſtream, or river water, and become thereby altered in ſome of their chemical properties.

5. *River Water.* This is in general much ſofter and more free from earthy ſalts than the laſt, but contains leſs air of any kind; for, by the agitation of a long current, and in moſt caſes a great encreaſe of temperature, it loſes common air and carbonic acids, and with this laſt, much of the lime which it held in ſolution. The ſpecific gravity thereby becomes leſs, the taſte not ſo harſh, but leſs freſh and agreeable, and out of a hard ſpring is often made a ſtream of ſufficient purity for moſt of the purpoſes where a ſoft water is required. Some ſtreams, however, that ariſe from a clean ſiliceous rock, and flow in a ſandy or ſtony bed, are from the outſet remarkably pure. Such are the mountain lakes and rivulets in the rocky diſtricts of Wales, the ſource of the beautiful waters of the Dee, and numberleſs other rivers that flow through the hollow of every valley. Switzerland has long been celebrated for the purity and excellence of its waters, which pour in copious ſtreams from the mountains; and give riſe to ſome of the fineſt rivers in Europe. An excellent obſerver and naturaliſt, the illuſtrious Haller, thus ſpeaks of the Swiſs waters, "vulgaribus aquis Helvetia ſuper omnes fere Europæ regiones excellit. Nuſquam liquidas illæ

aquas & cryſtalli ſimillimas ſe mihi obtuliſſe memini poſtquam ex Helvetia exceſſi. Ex ſcopulis enim noſtræ per puros ſilices percolatæ nulla terra vitiantur." Some of them never freeze in the ſevereſt winter, the cauſe of which is probably, as Haller conjectures, that they ſpring at once out of a ſubterraneous reſervoir ſo deep as to be out of the reach of froſt, and during their ſhort courſe when expoſed to day they have not time to be cooled down from 53°, their original temperature, to below the freezing point.

Some river waters, however, that do not take their riſe from a rocky ſoil, and are indeed at firſt conſiderably charged with foreign matter, during a long courſe, even over a rich cultivated plain, become remarkably pure as to ſaline contents, but often fouled with mud, and vegetable or animal exuviæ, which are rather ſuſpended than held in true ſolution. Such is that of the Thames, which, taken up at London at low water, is a very ſoft and good water, and, after reſt and filtration, it holds but a very ſmall portion of any thing that could prove noxious or impede any manufacture. It is alſo excellently fitted for ſea ſtore; but it here undergoes a remarkable ſpontaneous change. No water carried to ſea becomes putrid ſooner than that of the Thames. When a caſk is opened after being kept a month or two, a quantity of inflammable air eſcapes, and the water is ſo black and offenſive as ſcarcely to be borne. Upon racking it off, however, into large earthern veſſels (oil jars are commonly uſed for the purpoſe), and expoſing it to the air, it gradually depoſits a quantity of black ſlimy mud, becomes clear as chryſtal, and remarkably ſweet and palatable. The Seine has as high a reputation in France, and appears from accurate experiments to be a river of great purity. It might be expected that a river which has paſſed by a large town, and received all its impurities, and been uſed by numerous dyers, tanners, hatters, and the like, that croud to its banks for the convenience of plenty of water, ſhould thereby acquire ſuch a foulneſs as to be very perceptible to chemical examination for a conſiderable diſtance below the town; but it appears from the moſt accurate examination that where the ſtream is at all conſiderable, theſe kinds of impurity have but little influence in permanently altering the quality of the water, eſpecially as they are for the moſt part only ſuſpended and not truly diſſolved; and, therefore, mere reſt, and eſpecially filtration, will reſtore the water to its original purity. Probably, therefore, the moſt accurate chemiſt would find it difficult to diſtinguiſh water taken up at London, from that procured at Hampton Court, after each has been purified by ſimple filtration.

6. *Stagnated Waters.* The waters that preſent the greateſt impurities to the ſenſes, are thoſe of ſtagnant pools and low marſhy countries. They are filled with the remains of animal and vegetable matter undergoing decompoſition, and, during that proceſs, becoming in part ſoluble in water, thereby affording a rich nutriment to the ſucceſſion of living plants and inſects which is ſupplying the place of thoſe that periſh. From the want of ſufficient agitation in theſe waters, vegetation goes on undiſturbed, and the ſurface becomes covered with converva and other aquatic plants; and as theſe ſtanding waters are in general ſhallow, they receive the full influence of the ſun, which further promotes all the changes that are going on within them. The taſte is generally vapid, and deſtitute of that freſhneſs and agreeable coolneſs

which diſtinguiſh ſpring water. However, it ſhould be remarked, that ſtagnant waters are generally ſoft, and many of the impurities are only ſuſpended, and therefore ſeparable by filtration; and perhaps the unpalatableneſs of this drink has cauſed it to be in worſe credit than it deſerves, on the ſource of ſalubrity. The decidedly noxious effects produced by the air of marſhes and ſtagnant pools, have been often ſuppoſed to extend to the internal uſe of theſe waters; and often, eſpecially in hot climates, a reſidence near theſe places has been as much condemned on one account as on the other, and, in like manner, an improvement in health has been as much attributed to a change of water as of air.

WATER-BRASH. See *Pyroſis*.

WATER-CRESS. See *Naſturtium aquaticum*.

WATER-DOCK. See *Hydrolapathum*.

WATER-FLAG, YELLOW. See *Iris paluſtris*.

WATER-GERMANDER. See *Scordium*.

WATER-HEMP. See *Eupatorium*.

WATER LILLY, WHITE. See *Nymphæa alba*.

WATER LILLY, YELLOW. See *Nymphæa lutea*.

WATER PARSNIP. See *Sium*.

WATER ZIZANIA. A reed like plant, *zizania aquatica* of Linnæus, which grows in the ſwampy parts of Jamaica and Virginia. The Indians are exceedingly fond of its grain, and account it more delicious than rice.

WATERS MINERAL. See *Minera waters*.

WAX. See *Cera*.

WHEAT. The ſeeds of the *Triticum hybernum*, and *æſtivum* of Linnæus, are ſo termed. It is to theſe plants therefore we are indebted for our bread, and the various kinds of paſtry. Wheat is firſt ground between mill ſtones, and then ſifted to obtain its farina or flour. The flour of wheat may be ſeparated into its three conſtituent parts, in the following manner. The flour is to be kneaded into a paſte with water in an earthen veſſel, and the water continue pouring upon it from a cock which, as it falls upon the paſte, takes up from it a very fine white powder, by means of which it acquires the colour and conſiſtency of milk. This proceſs is to be continued till the water run off clear, when the flour will be ſeparated into three diſtinct parts. 1. A grey elaſtic matter that ſticks to the hand, and on account of its properties has gained the name of the glutinous, or aegeto-animal part. 2. A white powder which falls to the botom of the water, and is the *fæculum* or ſtarch. 3. A matter which remains diſſolved in the water, and ſeems to be a ſort of mucilaginous extract.

Flour from whatever ſpecies of corn obtained, is likewiſe diſpoſed to vinous fermentation, on account of its ſaccharine contents, the aptitude for fermentation of theſe mealy ſeeds increaſes if they be firſt converted into malt; inaſmuch as by this proceſs, the gluten which forms the germ is ſeparated, and the ſtarchy part appears to be converted into ſaccharine matter. The making of malt, for which purpoſe barley and wheat are generally choſen is as follows: The grains are put in the malting tub, and immerſed in cold water, in a temperate and warm ſeaſon, changing this fluid ſeveral times, eſpecially in hot weather, and they are thus kept ſoaking till they be ſufficiently ſoft to the touch. Upon this they are piled up in heaps on a roomy, clean, airy floor, where, by the heat ſpontaneouſly taking place,

the vegetation begins and the grains germinate. To cauſe the germination to go on uniformly, the heaps are frequently turned. In this ſtate the vegetation is ſuffered to continue till the germs have about $\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{4}{4}$ of the length of the corn. It is carried too far when the leafy germs have begun to ſprout.

For this reaſon limits are ſet to the germination by drying the malt, which is effected by transferring it to the kiln, or by ſpreading it about in ſpacious airy lofts. Dried in the laſt way it is called air dryed malt, in the firſt kiln malt. In drying this latter care muſt be taken that it does not receive a burnt ſmell, or be in part converted into coal.

From this malt, beer is made by extraction with water and fermentation.

With this view a quantity of malt freed from its germs, and ſufficient for one intended brewing, is coarſely bruiſed by grinding, and in the maſh tub firſt well mixed with ſome cold, then ſcalded with hot water drawn upon it from the boiler. It is afterwards ſtrongly and uniformly ſtirred. When the whole maſs has ſtood quietly for a certain time, the extract, (maſh), or ſweet wort, is brought into the boiler, and the malt remaining in the tub is once more extracted by infuſion with hot water.

This ſecond extract treated in like manner, is added to the firſt, and both are boiled together.

This clear decoction is now drawn off, and called boiled wort. To make the beer more fit for digeſtion, and at the ſame time to deprive it of its too great and unpleaſant ſweetneſs, the wort is mixed with a decoction of hops, or elſe theſe are boiled with it. After which it ought to be quickly cooled, to prevent its tranſition into acetous fermentation, which would enſue, if it were kept too long in a high temperature.

On this account the wort is tranſferred into the cooler, where it is expoſed with a large ſurface to cold air, and from this to the fermenting tub, that by addition of a ſufficient portion of reſcent yeaſt it may begin to ferment. When this fermentation has proceeded to a due degree, and the yeaſt ceaſes to riſe, the beer is conveyed into caſks (caſked), placed in cool cellars, where it finiſhes its fermentation, and where it is well kept and preſerved, under the name of barrelled beer, with the precaution of filling up occaſionally the vacancy cauſed in the veſſels by evaporation; or the beer is bottled before it has done fermenting, and the bottles are ſtopped a little before the fermentation is completely over. By ſo doing the bottled beer is rendered ſparkling. In this ſtate it frequently burſts the bottles, by the diſengagement of the carbonic acid gas which it contains, and it ſtrongly froths, like Champaign, when brought into contact of air on being poured into another veſſel.

Beer well prepared ſhould be limpid and clear, poſſeſs a due quantity of ſpirit, and excite no diſagreeable ſweet taſte, and contain no diſengaged acid. By theſe properties it is a ſpecies of vinous beverage, and is diſtinguiſhed from wine, in the ſtrict ſenſe, and other liquors of that kind, by the much greater quantity of mucilaginous matter which it has received by extraction from the malted grains, but which alſo makes it more nouriſhing. Brown beer derives its colour from malt ſtrongly roaſted in the kiln, and its bitteriſh taſte from the hops. Pale beer is brewed from malt dried in the air, or but ſlightly roaſted, with but little or no hops at all.

WHEAT, BUCK. See *Buck wheat*.

WHEAT, EASTERN BUCK. See *Buck wheat eaſtern.*

WHEAT, INDIAN. See *Zea mays.*

WHEAT, TURKEY. The turkey wheat is a native of America, where it is much cultivated, as it is alſo in ſome parts of Europe, eſpecially in Italy and Germany. There are many varieties, which differ in the colour of the grain, and are frequently raiſed in our gardens by way of curioſity, whereby the plant is well known. It is the chief bread corn in ſome of the ſouthern parts of America, but ſince the introduction of rice into Carolina, it is but little uſed in the northern colonies. It makes a main part too of the food of the poor people in Italy and Germany. This is the ſort of wheat mentioned in the book of Ruth, where it is ſaid that Boaz treated Ruth with parched ears of corn dipped in vinegar. This method of eating the roaſted ears of Turkey wheat is ſtill practiſed in the Eaſt; they gather in the ears when about half ripe, and having ſcorched them to their minds, eat them with as much ſatisfaction as we do the beſt flour bread.

In ſeveral parts of South America, they parch the ripe corn, never making it into bread but grinding it between two ſtones, mix it with water in a calabaſh, and ſo eat it. The Indians make a ſort of drink from this grain, which they call bici. This liquor is very windy and intoxicating, and has nearly the taſte of ſour ſmall beer: but they do not uſe it in common, being too lazy to make it often, and therefore it is chiefly kept for the celebration of feaſts and weddings, at which times, they moſtly get intolerably drunk with it. The manner of making this precious beverage, is to ſteep a parcel of corn in a veſſel of water, till it grows ſour, then the old women, being provided with calabaſhes for the purpoſe, chew ſome grains of the corn in their mouths, and ſpitting it into the calabaſhes empty them ſpittle and all into the ſour liquor, having previouſly drawn off the latter into another veſſel.

The chewed grain ſoon raiſes a fermentation, and when this ceaſes, the liquor is let off from the dregs, and ſet by till wanted. In ſome of the iſlands in the South Sea, where each individual is his own lawgiver, it is no uncommon thing for a near relation to excuſe a murderer, for a good drunken bout of ciri.

WHITES. The vulgar name for a *fluor albus*. This diſeaſe is marked by the diſcharge of a thin white or yellow matter from the uterus and vagina, attended likewiſe with ſome degree of fœtor, ſmarting in making water, pains in the back and loins, anorexia and atrophy. In ſome caſes, the diſcharge is of ſo acrid a nature, as to produce effects on thoſe who are connected with the woman, ſomewhat ſimilar to venereal matter, giving riſe to excoriations about the glans, penis, and preputium, and occaſioning a weeping from the urethra.

To diſtinguiſh leucorrhæa from gonorrhæa, it will be very neceſſary to attend to the ſymptoms. In the latter; the running is conſtant, but in a ſmall quanity; there is much ardor urine, itching of the pudenda ſwelling of the labia, increaſed inclination to venery, and very frequently an enlargement of the gland in the groin; whereas in the former the diſcharge is irregular, come away often in large lumps, and in conſiderable quantities, and is neither preceded by, nor accompanied with any inſtammatory affection of the pudenda.

Immoderate coition, injury done to the parts by difficult and tedious labours, frequent miſcarriages, in-

moderate flowings of the menſes, profuſe evacuations, poor diet, an abuſe of tea and other cauſes giving riſe to general debility, or to a laxity of the parts more immediately concerned, are thoſe which uſually produce the whites, vulgarly ſo called, from the diſcharge being commonly of that colour.

Fluor albus, in ſome caſes, indicates that there is a diſpoſition to diſeaſe in the uterus, or parts connected with it, eſpecially where the quantity of the diſcharge is very copious, and its quality highly acrimonious. By ſome the diſeaſe has been conſidered as never ariſing from debility of the ſyſtem, but as being always a primary affection of the uterus. Delicate women with lax fibres, who remove from a cold climate to a warm one are, however, very apt to be attacked with it, without the parts having previouſly ſuſtained any kind of injury.

The diſeaſe ſhews itſelf by an irregular diſcharge from the uterus and vagina, of a fluid, which in different women varies much in colour, being either of a white, green, yellow, or brown hue. In the beginning it is however, moſt uſually white and pellucid, and in the progreſs of the complaint acquires the various diſcolourations, and different degrees of acrimony, from whence proceeds a ſlight degree of ſmarting in making water. Beſides the diſcharge, the patient is frequently afflicted with ſevere and conſtant pains in the back and loins, loſs of ſtrength, failure of appetite, dejection of ſpirits, paleneſs of the countenance, chillineſs, and languor. Where the diſeaſe has been of long continuance, and very ſevere, a ſlow fever, attended with difficult reſpiration, palpitations, faintings, and anarſarcous ſwellings of the lower extremities, often enſues.

A perfect removal of the diſorder will at all times be a difficult matter to procure; but it will be much more ſo in caſes of long ſtanding, and where the diſcharge is accompanied with a high degree of acrimony. In theſe caſes, many diſorders, ſuch as prolapſus uteri, ulcerations of the organ, atrophy and dropſy, are apt to take place, which in the end prove fatal.

Where the diſeaſe terminates in death, the internal ſurface of the uterus appears, on diſſection, to be pale, flabby, and relaxed; and where organic affections have ariſen, much the ſame appearances are to be met with as have been noticed under the head of menorrhagia. See *Leucorhæa.*

WHITE SWELLING. See *Arthropuoſis* and *Hydarthrus.*

WHORTLEBERRY BEARS. See *Uva urſi.*

WHORTLEBERRY, RED. See *Vitis idæa.*

WIDOW-WAIL. See *Mezereum.*

WILD CARROT. See *Daucus ſylveſtris.*

WILD CUCUMBER. See *Cucumis agreſtis.*

WILD NAVEW. See *Napus.*

WILLOW, CRAK. See *Salix.*

WILLOW, SWEET. See *Myrtus brabantica.*

WILLOW, WHITE. See *Salix.*

WILLOW-HERB. See *Lyſimacha purpurea.*

WILLOW-HERB, ROSEBAY. See *Roſebay willow herb.*

WILLOW LEAVED OAK. See *Quercus phellos.*

WINE, (*Vinum*, *i*, n.). The fermented juice of the ripe fruit of the *Vitis vinifera* of Linnæus. *Vitis foliis lobatis ſinuatis nudis.* Claſs *Pentandria.* Order *Monogynia.* The wines principally uſed in medicine are, the *vinum album hiſpanicum*, or mountain wine, *vinum canarium*, canary or ſack wine, the *vinum rhenanum*, or rheniſh wine, and the *vinum rubrum*, or port wine. On a chemi-

eal inveſtigation all wines conſiſt chiefly of water, alkohol, a peculiar acid, the carbonic acid, tartar, and an adſtringent gummi-reſinous matter in which the colour of the red wine reſides, and which is expreſſed from the huſks of the grape. They differ from each other in the proportion of theſe ingredients, and particularly in that of alkohol, which they contain. The qualities of wines depend not only upon the difference of the grapes, as containing more or leſs of ſaccharine juice and the acid matter which accompanies it, but alſo upon circumſtances attending the proceſs of fermentation. New wines are liable to a ſtrong degree of aceſcency when taken into the ſtomach, and thereby occaſion much flatulency and eructations of acid matter; heartburn and violent pains in the ſtomach from ſpaſms are alſo often produced; and the acid matter, by paſſing into the inteſtines and mixing with the bile, is apt to occaſion colics or excite diarrhœas. Sweet wines are likewiſe more diſpoſed to become aceſcent in the ſtomach than others: but as the quanity of alkohol which they contain is more conſiderable than appears ſenſibly to the taſte, their aceſcency is thereby in a great meaſure counteracted. Red port and moſt of the red wines have an adſtringent quality, by which they ſtrengthen the ſtomach, and prove uſeful in reſtraining immoderate evacuations; on the contrary, thoſe which are of an acid nature, as rheniſh, paſs freely by the kidneys, and gently looſen the belly. But this, and perhaps all the thin or weak wines, though of an agreeable flavour, yet as containing little alkohol, are readily diſpoſed to become acid in the ſtomach, and thereby to aggravate all arthritic and calculous complaints, as well as to produce the effects of new wine. The general effects of wine are, to ſtimulate the ſtomach, exhilerate the ſpirits, warm the habit, quicken the circulation promote perſpiration, and, in large quantities, to prove intoxicating, and powerfully ſedative. In many diſorders wine is univerſally admitted to be of important ſervice, and eſpecially in fevers of the typhus kind, or of a putrid tendency; in which it is found to raiſe the pulſe, ſupport the ſtrength, promote a diaphoreſis, and to reſiſt putrefaction; and in many caſes it proves of more immediate advantage than the Peruvian bark. Delirium, which is the conſequence of exceſſive irritability, and a defective ſtate of nervous energy, is often entirely removed by the free uſe of wine. It is alſo a well-founded obſervation, that thoſe who indulge in the uſe of wine are leſs ſubject to fevers of the malignant and intermittent kind. In the putrid ſore throat, in the ſmall-pox when attended with great debility and ſymptoms of putridity, in gangrenes, and in the plague, wine is to be conſidered as a principal remedy; and in almoſt all caſes of languor, and of great proſtration of ſtrength, wine is experienced to be a more grateful and efficacious cordial than can be furniſhed from the whole claſs of aromatics.

Method of diſcovering whether wine has been adulterated with any metals prejudicial to the health.

The property which liver of ſulphur, the *alkali ſulphuratum*, and hepatic air, or ſulphurated hydrogen, poſſeſs of precipitating lead in a black form, has been long ago made public; and this property has been employed to determine the quality of wines by means of the liquor probatorius Wirtembergenſis, or Wirtemberg proving liquor. But in trying wines ſuppoſed to have been adulterated, this proof does more harm than ſervice, becauſe it precipitates iron of the ſame colour as the pernicious lead. Many wine-

merchants of the greateſt reſpectability rendered by theſe means ſuſpected, have been ruined. There was wanting then a re-agent, which should diſcover in wine thoſe metals only which are prejudicial to the health of man.

The following liquor which precipitates lead and copper in a black form, and arſenic of an orange colour, &c. but does not precipitate iron. The laſt, which is not noxious, and rather ſalutary to the conſtitution, frequently gets into wines by accident.

Method of preparing the proving liquor.

Mix equal parts of oyſter ſhells and crude ſulphur in a fine powder, and put the mixture into a crucible; heat it in a wind furnace, and increaſe the fire ſuddenly, ſo as to bring the crucible to a white heat, for the ſpace of fifteen minutes; pulverize the maſs, when it is cold, and preſerve it in a bottle cloſely ſtopped. To prepare the liquor, put 120 grains of this powder and 120 grains of cream of tartar (acidulous tartrite of potaſh) into a ſtrong bottle, fill the bottle with common water, which boil for an hour, and then let it cool; cloſe the bottle immediately and ſhake it for ſome time; after it has remained at reſt to ſettle, decant the pure liquor, and pour it into ſmall phials, capable of holding about an ounce each, firſt putting into each of them 20 drops of muriatic acid. They muſt be ſtopped very cloſely with a piece of wax, in which there is a ſmall mixture of turpentine. One part of this liquor mixed with three parts of ſuſpected wine, will diſcover by a very ſenſible black precipitate the leaſt traces of lead, copper, &c. but will produce no effect upon iron if it contains any of that metal. When the precipitate has fallen down, it may ſtill be diſcovered whether the wine contains iron, by ſaturating the decanted liquor with a little ſalt of tartar (tartareous acidulum of potaſh), by which the liquor will immediately become black. Pure wines remain clear and bright after this liquor has been added to them.

WINTER BARK. See *Winteranus cortex.*

WINTER CHERRY. See *Alkekengi.*

WINTERA AROMATICA. The ſyſtematic name of the winter bark tree. See *Winteranus cortex.*

WINTERANUS CORTEX, *Winteranus cortex mugellanicus.* The bark of the *Wintera aromatica pedunculis aggragatis terminalibus, piſtillis quatuor*; it is very much allied in its properties to the *canella alba.* See *Canella alba.*

WINTERANUS SPURIUS. See *Canella alba.*

WISPERING. A lowneſs of ſpeech cauſed by uttering the words ſo feebly as not to produce any vibration of the larynx.

WOLFS BANE. See *Aconitum.*

WOLFS BANE, BLUE. See *Aconitum.*

WOMB. See *Uterus.*

WOMB, INFLAMMATION OF. See *Hyſteritis.*

WOOD LOUSE. See *Millepedes.*

WOOD SORREL. See *Lujula.*

WOODY NIGHTSHADE. See *Dulcamara.*

WORM BARK. See *Geoffræa.*

WORMGRASS, PERENNIAL. See *Spigelia.*

WORM GUINEA. *Dracunculus.* A ſingular worm which inſinuates itſelf under the ſkin, and creeps along the cellular membrane. It is peculiar to Africa and warm climates.

WORM RING. A ſpecies of herpes. See *Herpes.*

WORM SEED. See *Santonicum.*

WORMWOOD. See *Abſinthium vulgare.*

WORMWOOD MOUNTAIN. The

Artemiſia glacialis of Linnæus, which is common about the Alps, and ſimilar in its virtues to the common wormwood.

WORMWOOD, ROMAN. See *Abſinthium vulgare.*

WORMWOOD, SEA. See *Abſinthium maritimum.*

WORMWOOD, TARTAREUM. See *Santonicum.*

WORMS. *Vermes.* There are ſeveral kinds of animals which infeſt the human body. Their uſual diviſion is into thoſe which inhabit only the inteſtinal canal, as the aſcarides, &c.; and thoſe which are found in other parts, as hydatids, &c. Such is the nature and office of the human ſtomach and inteſtines, that inſects and worms or their ovula, may not unfrequently be conveyed into that canal with thoſe things, that are continually taken as food, but ſuch inſects or worms do not live long and ſeldom, if ever, generate in a ſituation ſo wide from their natural one. Beſides theſe there are worms, that are never found in any other ſituation than the human ſtomach or inteſtines, and which there generate and produce their ſpecies. Thus it appears that the human ſtomach and inteſtines are the ſeat for animalculæ, which are tranſlated from their natural ſituation, and alſo for worms proper to them, which live in no other ſituation.

Firſt Claſs.—This contains thoſe which are generated and nouriſhed in the human inteſtinal canal, and which there propagate their ſpecies.

Second Claſs, comprehends thoſe inſects or worms that accidentally enter the human primæ viæ ab extra, and which never propagate their ſpecies in that canal, but are ſoon eliminated from the body; ſuch are ſeveral ſpecies of *Scarabæi*, the *Lumbricus teretiſris*, the *Faſciola*, the *Gordius inteſtinalis*, and others. The ſecond claſs belongs to the province of natural hiſtory. The conſideration of the firſt claſs to the phyſician which, from the variety it affords, may be divived into different orders, genera, and ſpecies.

Order I. Round worms.

Genus I. Inteſtinal aſcarides.

Character. Body round, head obtuſe, and furniſhed with three veſicles.

Species I. *Aſcaris lumbricoides.* The long round worm or lumbricoid aſcaris.

Character. When full grown a foot in length. Mouth triangular.

II. *Aſcaris vermicularis.* The thread or maw worm.

Character. When full grown, half an inch in length, tail terminates in a fine point.

Genus II. Inteſtinal trichurides.

Character. Body round, tail three times the length of the body, head without veſicles.

Species. Trichuris vulgaris. The trichuris or long thread worm.

Character. The head furniſhed with a proboſcis,

Order II. The flat worms.

Genus I. Inteſtinal tape worm.

Character. Body flat and jointed.

Species I. *Tænia oſculis marginalibus.* The long tape worm.

Character. The oſcula are ſituated upon the margin of the joints.

II. *Tænia oſculis ſuperficialibus.* The broad tape worm.

Character. The oſcula are placed upon the flattened ſurface.

Theſe worms were all known to the ancients, the trichuris only excepted, and are mentioned in the works of Hippocrates, Galen, Celſus, Paulus Ægineta, and Pliny.

WORT. An infuſion of malt. This has been found extremely uſeful in the cure of the ſcurvy.

Dr. Macbride, in his very ingenious experimental eſſays, having laid down as a principle, "that the cure of the ſcurvy depends on the

fermentative quality in the remedies made use of," was led to enquire after a substance, capable of being preserved during a long sea voyage, and yet containing materials by which a fermentation might occasionally be excited in the bowels. Such an one appeared to him to be found in malt, which is well known to be the grain of barley, brought suddenly to a germinating state by heat and moisture, and then dried, whereby its saccharine principle is developed, and rendered easy of extraction by watery liquors. The sweet infusion of this he proposed to give as a dietetic article to scorbutic persons, expecting that it would ferment in their bowels, and give out its fixed air, by the antiseptic powers of which the strong tendency to putrefaction in this disease might be corrected.

It was some time before a fair trial of this proposed remedy could be obtained; and different reports were made concerning it. By some cases, however, published in a postscript of the second edition of the Doctor's work in 1767, it appears that scorbutic complaints of the most dangerous kind have actually been cured at sea by the use of wort. It general effects were to keep the patients open, and to prove highly nutritious and strengthening. It sometimes purged too much, but this effect was easily obviated by the tinctura thebaica. Other unquestionable cases of its success in this disease are to be seen in the London Medical Essays and Inquiries.

The use of wort has hence been adopted in other cases where a strong putrid disposition in the fluids appeared to prevail, as in cancerous and phagadenic ulcers; and instances are published in the fourth volume of the work above mentioned of its remarkable good effects in these cases.

As the efficacy of the malt infusion depends upon its producing changes in the whole mass of fluids, it is obvious that it must betaken in large quantities for a considerable length of time, and rather as an article of diet than medicine. From one to four pints daily have generally been directed. The proportion recommended in preparing it, is one measure of ground malt to three equal measures of boiling water. The mixture must be well stirred, and left to stand, covered, three or four hours. It should be made fresh every day.

WOUNDWORT. See *Panax*.

X.

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XANTHIUM, (*Xanthium, i*, n.). The lesser burdock. This herb, *Xanthium strumarium* of Linnæus, was once esteemed in the cure of scrophula but like most other remedies against this disease proves ineffectual. The seeds are administered internally in some countries against erysipelas.

XANTHIUM STRUMARIUM. The systematic name of the lesser burdock See *Xanthium*.

XERASIA, (*Xerasia, æ*, f. from ξηρος, dry). An excessive tenuity of the hairs similar to down.

XIPHOID, (*Xiphoides*, from ξιφος, a sword, and ειδος, likeness). A term given by anatomists to parts which had some resemblance to an ancient sword, as the xiphoid cartilage.

XIPHOID CARTILAGE. See *Cartilago ensiformis*.

XY

XYLOALOES. See *Lignum aloes*

XYLOBALSAMUM, See *Balsamum gileadensis*.

Y.

YA

YAMS. An eſculent root obtained principally from three ſpecies of *Dioſcorea*, the *alata*, *bulbifera*, and *ſativa*. They grow ſpontaneouſly in both Indies, and their roots are promiſcuouſly eaten as the potatoe is with us. There is great variety in the colour, ſize, and ſhape of yams; ſome are generally blue or brown, round or oblong, and weigh from one pound to two. They are eſteemed when dreſſed as being nutritious and eaſy of digeſtion, and are preferred to wheaten bread. Their taſte is ſomewhat like the potatoe, but more luſcious. The negroes, whoſe common food is yams, boil and maſh them. They are alſo ground into flour, and made into bread and puddings.

YO

When they are to be kept for ſome time, they are expoſed upon the ground to the ſun as we do onions, and when ſufficiently withered they are put into dry ſand in caſks, and placed in a dry garret, where they remain often for many ſeaſons without loſing any of their primitive goodneſs.

YARROW, COMMOM. See *Millefolium*.

YAWS. The African name for raſpberry. See *Frambœſia*.

YELLOW FEVER. See *Febris continua*.

YELLOW SAUNDERS. See *Santalum album*.

YORKSHIRE SANICLE. See *Pinguicula*.

Z.

ZE

ZARZA. An ancient and provincial name of the ſarſaparilla.

ZEA MAYS. The ſyſtematic name of the Indian wheat plant, a native of America, and cultivated in Italy and ſeveral parts of Europe, for its grain, which is ground for the ſame purpoſes as our wheat, to which it is very little inferior.

ZEDOĀRĬA, (*Zedoaria*, *æ*, f. *vox ſinenſis*). Zedoary. The roots of this plant, *Kæmpferia rotunda* of Linnæus, *foliis lanceolatis petiolatis*. Claſs *Monandria*. Order *Monogynia*, are brought to us in long pieces about the thickneſs of the little finger, two or three inches in length, bent, rough, and angular, or in roundiſh pieces about an inch in diameter, of an aſh

ZI

colour on the outſide and white within. They have an agreeable camphoraceous ſmell, and a bitteriſh aromatic taſte. Though formerly much eſteemed againſt rheumatic affections, they are at preſent thought to poſſeſs very little medicinal powers, although they have a place in the confectio aromatica of the London pharmacopœia.

ZEDOARIA LONGA. The long roots of the *Zedoaria rotunda* of Linnæus.

ZEDOARIA ROTUNDA. The ſyſtematic name of the zedoary plant. See *Zedoaria*.

ZEDOARY. See *Zedoaria*.

ZIBETHUM, (*Zibethum*, *i*, n. ζιβεθον, from *Zobeth*. Arab). *Civetta*, *Civet*.

A ſoft unctuous odoriferous ſubſtance bout the conſiſtence of honey or utter, of a whiteiſh, yellowiſh, or rowniſh colour, and ſometimes lackiſh, contained in ſome excretory ollicles near the anus of the *Viverra ibetha* of Linnæus. It has a grateul ſmell when diluted, and an uncuous ſubacrid taſte, and poſſeſſes timulating, nervine, and antiſpaſnodic virtues.

Zinc, (*Zincum, i*, n. *Zinc* Germ.). A brilliant, blueiſh, white ſemimetal ubſtance, cryſtallized in narrow lates, without taſte or ſmell. It is rittle, yet yields with a degree of laſticity under the hammer, is very uſible, and of all metals the moſt inammable; when red hot, it burns with a beautiful yellowiſh white lame; it decompoſes water with great nergy. Zinc is ſaid to be next to on, the moſt common of all metals. t is found ſome times in a ſtate of ure native zinc in its perfect metalic form, ſometimes and moſt frequently in a ſtate of oxyd, when it is alled lapis calaminaris; ſee *Calamine tone*; and ſometimes mineralized y ſulphur forming what is called ulphur, of zinc or blend. Great uantities are found in Germany, rance, Britain, Norway, and Italy. Zinc expoſed to heat in veſſels melts nd volatilizes without being decomoſed. Cold ſulphuric acid diluted ith water, poſſeſſes the power of iſſolving zinc. The ſulphate of inc which is the product of this ompoſition is cryſtalliſable in tetraædral priſms terminating in priſms hat have alſo four ſides. See *Zincum vitriolatum*. Cold nitric acid diuted with water combines with zinc ith great rapidity, and affords nitrate f zinc. The muriatic acid acts on his metal with as much energy as he nitric, and the ſolution affords by iſtillation muriate of zinc. The carbonic acid diluted in water, alſo diſſolves zinc, and the ſolution being expoſed to the air affords carbonate of zinc. All the ſolutions of this metal in acids, are precipitated by lime-water, magneſia, fixed alkali, and ammoniac.

If melted zinc be expoſed to intenſe heat, it becomes oxydated, and the oxyd is volatilized by the current of the flame, aſcends, and is afterwards condenſed into little white flakes called *flores zinci*, or flowers of zinc, which are exhibited internally as a powerful antiſpaſmodic. The uſe of zinc in the arts is very conſiderable. In medicine the ſulphate of zinc, or white vitriol, as it is called, is given internally in the doſe of from ℈j to ʒſs, as a vomit. In ſmall doſes it cures dropſies, intermittent head-achs, and ſome nervous diſeaſes, and is a powerful antiſpaſmodic and tonic. A ſolution of white vitriol is alſo uſed to remove gleets, gonorrhœas, and for cleaning foul ulcers.

Zinc, vitriolated. See *Zincum vitriolatum*.

Zincum. See *Zinc*.

Zincum calcinātum. *Flores zinci. Nihilum album.* Flowers of zinc. This preparation of zinc is called in the new chemical nomenclature, *oxydum zinci ſublimatum*. It poſſeſſes ſtyptic qualities, and is adminiſtered as an antiſpaſmodic in ſpaſmodic aſthma againſt aſcarides, epilepſy, hyſterical ſpaſms, and hooping cough.

Zincum vitriolatum. Impure white vitriol.

Zincum vitriolatum purificātum. *Oxydum zinci vitriolatum. Vitriolum album. Vitriolum zinci. Sulphas zinci.* White vitriol. This preparation of zinc is given internally as a ſtyptic, emetic, adſtringent, and tonic, in caſes of hæmorrhage, intermittents, and diarrhœas; and is employed externally in the

form of lotion, bath, or ointment in the cure of gleet, opthhalmia, hæmorrhoids, prolapſus, diſeaſes of the ſkin, and aphthæ.

ZINGI. An antient name of the ſtellated anniſeed. See *Aniſum ſtellatum.*

ZINGIBER, (*Zingiber, is*, n. ζιγγίβερις, Indian). *Zingiber album. Zingiber nigrum. Zingiber commune.* Ginger. *Amomum zingiber* of Linnæus. The white and black ginger are both the produce of the ſame plant, the difference depending upon the mode of preparing them. Ginger is generally conſidered as an aromatic, and leſs pungent and heating to the ſyſtem than might be expected from its effects upon the organ of taſte. It is uſed as an antiſpaſmodic and carminative. The caſes in which it is more immediately ſerviceable are flatulent colics, debility, and laxity of the ſtomach and inteſtines; and in torpid and phlegmatic conſtitutions to excite briſker vaſcular action. It is ſeldom given but in combination with other medicines. In the pharmacopœias it is directed in the form of a ſyrup and condiment; and in many compoſitions ordered as a ſubſidiary ingredient.

ZINGIBER ALBUM. The root of the *amomum zingiber* of Linnæus is ſo termed when deprived of its radicles and ſordes.

ZINGIBER COMMUNE. Common ginger. See *Zingiber.*

ZINGIBER NIGRUM. The roo of the *Amomum zingiber* of Linnæ is ſo called when ſuffered to dry wi its radicles and the ſordes whic uſually hang to it.

ZIZANIA AQUATICA. The ſy tematic name of a reed whoſe grai is much eſteemed. See *Water z zania.*

ZIZYPHUS. The jujubes wer ſo formerly called. See *Jujubæ.*

ZŌNA, (*Zona, æ*, f. from ζωνυ, t ſurround). *Zoſter.* The ſhingles.

ZOOLOGY, (*Zoologĭa, æ*, f. fro ζωον, an animal, and λογος, a diſcourſe That part of natural hiſtory whic treats on animals.

ZOONŌMĬA, (*Zoonomia, æ*, f. fro ζωον, an animal, and νομος, a law The laws of organic life.

ZOOTOMY, (*Zootomĭa, æ*, f. fro ζωον, an animal, and τεμνω, to cut The diſſection of animals.

ZYGŌMA, (*Zygoma, æ*, f. from ζυ a yoke; becauſe it tranſmits the te don of the temporal muſcle like yoke). The cavity under the z gomatic proceſs of the tempor bone and os malæ.

ZYGOMATIC PROCESS. An ap phyſis of the os jugale and anoth of the temporal bone are ſo called.

ZYGOMATIC SUTURE. *Sutu zygomatica.* The union of the z gomatic proceſs of the temporal bor to the cheek bone.

A

GLOSSARY

OF

OBSOLETE TERMS.

ABAM. Lead.

ABACTUS. *Abactus venter.* A miſcarriage procured by art.

ABACUS MAJOR. A trough uſed in the mines wherein the ore is waſhed.

ABAISIR. See *Spodium.*

ABALIENATUS. Corrupted. A part ſo deſtroyed as to require immediate extirpation; alſo, the fault or total deſtruction of the ſenſes, whether external or internal, by diſeaſe.

ABARTAMEN. Lead.

ABAS. The epilepſy.

ABDUCTIO. A ſpecies of fracture, when a bone is divided tranſverſely near a joint, ſo that each part recedes from the other. In Cœlius Aurelianus it ſignifies a ſtrain; and is mentioned as one of the cauſes of iſchiadic and pſoadic pains. Morb. Chron. lib. v. cap. i.

ABEBÆOS, ἀβέβαιος. Infirm, weak, inconſtant.

ABESSI. The alvine excrements.

ABEVACUATIO. A partial or incomplete evacuation of the peccant humours, either naturally or by art.

ABLATIO, the taking away from the body whatever is uſeleſs or hurtful; it comprehends all kinds of evacuations. Sometimes it ſignifies the ſubſtraction of a part of the diet, with a medical view; and ſometimes it expreſſes the interval betwixt two fits of a fever, or the time of remiſſion. Chemical *ablation* is the removal of any thing that is either finiſhed or elſe no longer neceſſary in a proceſs.

ABRASA. Ulcers attended with abraſion of part of the ſubſtance.

ABROTONITES. A wine mentioned by Dioſcorides, impregnated with *Abrotanum* or ſouthernwood, in the proportion of about one hundred ounces of the dried leaves, to about ſeven gallons of muſt.

ABSCEDENTIA. Decayed parts of the body, which in a morbid ſtate are ſeparated from the ſound.

ABSTENTIO. Cœlius Aurelianus uſes this word to expreſs a ſuppreſſion or retention. Thus, *abſtentio ſtercorum*, a retention of the excrements, which he mentions as a ſymptom very frequent in a ſatyriaſis. In a ſenſe ſomewhat different, he uſes the word *abſtenta*, applying it to the pleura, where he ſeems to mean, that the humour of the inflamed pleura is prevented, by the adjacent bones, from extending itſelf.

ABSTINENCE. It is either ge-

neral, from all ſorts of aliment, or particular, from ſome kinds of food only. Eraſiſtratus made a ſtrict *abſtinence* ſupply the place of bleeding, in inflammations and fevers.

Beſides the uſual ſenſes of *abſtinence*, Cœlius Aurelianus uſes it to ſignify a ſuppreſſion. Thus, Chron. lib. ii. cap. 9. *Abſtinentia hæmorrhoidarum veterum*, ſignifies a ſuppreſſion of habitual hæmorrhoids. Sometimes in this author, it ſignifies a compreſſion: thus, Acut. lib. iii. cap. 17. *Spiritus ob abſtinentiam clauſus*, means the wind ſhut up in the inteſtines by compreſſure, thereby cauſing the iliac paſſion. The verb *abſtinere* alſo, in the above mentioned author, frequently ſignifies to *reſtrain*, or *ſuppreſs*.

ABSTRACTITIOUS, (from *abſtraho* or *aſtrahо*, to draw from), is uſed by Ludovicus, and ſome other writers in pharmacy, to diſtinguiſh the natural ſpirit of aromatic vegetables, from that artificial one which is procured from them by fermentation.

ACACALIS. Goræus ſays it is ſuppoſed to take its name from the nymph *Acacalis*, who was raviſhed by Apollo. Dioſcorides ſays it is the fruit of an Egyptian ſhrub like a tamariſk, the infuſion of which is mixed with collyria, to ſharpen the ſight. Dioſcorides, lib. i. cap. 118. Dale relates that the pods are in uſe, and are aſtringent. Heſychius explains ακακαλις, the flower of the narciſſus.

ACAIROS, (from α priv. and καιρος, time). Unſeaſonable. It is applied to any thing that is unſeaſonable.

ACAMATOS, (ακαματος, from α priv. and καμνω, to labour). By this Galen ſeems to ſignify, that poſition of a limb, which is equally diſtant from flexion and extenſion, which ſituation the part can longeſt bear without wearineſs. Thus when we ſleep, the knees are bent, that neither the flexors nor extenſors of the legs may be upon the ſtretch. In like manner the arm is generally laid ſpontaneouſly in the moſt eaſy poſition, or ſuch a one as can be longeſt ſupported without fatigue.

ACANTABOLUS, from ακανθα, *ſpina*, a thorn, and βαλλω, *jacio*, to throw away. A ſurgeon's inſtrument, called alſo *Volſella*, like a pair of pincers, uſed to take out any prickly ſubſtance that ſhall chance to ſtick to the œſophagus, or gullet; as alſo the fragments of corrupted bones, hair, or any thing that by chance remains in a wound. It is alſo uſed for that inſtrument wherewith people pull out the hairs of their eye-brows.

ACARDIOS, ακαρδιος. Fearful, depreſſed, faint-hearted.

ACARI. A ſmall creature bred in wax, ſaid by Ariſtotle to be the leaſt object of the human ſight. It alſo ſignifies a particular kind of lice that lodge in the cuticle and cutis.

ACATALEPSIA, ακαταληψια. Incomprehenſibility, or uncertainty in ſcience; the contrary of which is *catalepſis*, certain knowlege. This word is taken notice of by Caſtellus, and it occurs in Galen.

ACATASTATOS, (ακατασταστος, from α priv. and ιστημι, which amongſt other ſignifications, implies to fix, eſtabliſh, or render certain). Inconſtant. This word is applied to regular fevers, where the periods of exacerbation are uncertain, and the appearances in the urine are perpetually changing. It is alſo applied to ſhivering fits in fevers, which return at irregular periods; ſometimes every day, ſometimes every other day, or every third day. Or it is applied to urines which are turbid, but do not depoſit any regular ſediment.

ACATHARSIA, (from α priv. and καθαιρω, to purge). It ſignifies an impurity of the humours. It is alſo

applied to the ſordes or impurities of wounds.

ACEDIA, (ακηδια, from α priv. and κηδος, care). Careleſſneſs, neglect. Hippocrates ſometimes uſes this word, in his Treatiſe on the Glands, to ſignify fatigue or trouble.

ACERATOS, (from α priv. and κερασω, or κεραννυμι, to mix). Unmixed, uncorrupted. It is applied ſometimes to the humours of the body by Hippocrates. Paulus Ægineta mentions a plaſter of this name, but probably means *Aceron*. See *Acerides*.

ACERIDES, (from α priv. and κηρος, wax. Plaſters made without wax are thus called.

ACESIS, ακεσις. A remedy or cure.

ACESTA. Diſtempers which are curable.

ACESTORIS, (ακεστορις, from ακος, a cure). It ſignifies ſtrictly a female phyſician, and is uſed for a midwife.

ACESTRIDES, (ακεστριδες, from ακεομαι, to cure). Midwives were ſo called amongſt the Greeks. Hippocrates uſes the word in this ſenſe, at the latter end of his treatiſe De Carnibus.

ACHEIR, (from α priv. and χειρ, a hand). Without hands.

ACHICOLUM. By this word Cœlius Aurelianus, Acut. lib. iii. cap. 17. expreſſes the fornix, tholus, or ſudatorium of the ancient baths, which was a hot room where they uſed to ſweat.

ACHLYS, ἀχλυς. Darkneſs, cloudineſs, and is generally applied to a cloſe, foggy air, or a miſt. Hippocrates in his De Morb. Mulier. lib. ii. ſignifies by this word condenſed air in the womb. Galen interprets it of thoſe, who, during ſickneſs, loſe that uſual luſtre and lovelineſs obſerved about the pupil of the eye, during health. Others expreſs it by an ulcer on the pupil of the eye, or the ſcar left there by an ulcer. It means alſo an opacity of the cornea; the ſame as the caligo cornea of Dr. Cullen.

ACHNE, ἀχνη, chaff; the froth of the ſea; or water in general: or any thing that is light and ſoft. It alſo ſometimes ſignifies lint.

ACHORISTOS, (ἀχωρίστος, from α priv. and χωριζω, ſeparate). Inſeparable It is nnderſtood of accidents, ſymptoms, or ſigns, which are inſeparable from particular things. Thus, a pungent pain in the ſide is an inſeparable ſymptom of a pleuriſy.

ACHREION, (from α priv. and χρεια, uſefulneſs). Uſeleſs. It is applied by Hippocrates to the limbs, which, through weakneſs, are become uſeleſs.

ACHROI, (ἄχροοι, from α priv. and χροα, colour). Pale.

ACHYRON, ἄχυρον. This properly ſignifies bran or chaff, or ſtraw. Hippocrates, De morbis mulierum, moſt probaby means by this word, bran. Achyron alſo ſignifies a ſtraw, hair, or any thing that ſticks upon a wall.

ACICYS, (ἄκικυς, from α priv. and κικυς, ſtrength, vigour). It ſignifies weak, infirm, or faint, and in this ſenſe it is uſed by Hippocrates. De morb. lib. iv.

ACMASTICOS, ἀκμαστικὸς, the ſame as homotonos, is a ſpecies of a ſynochus, wherein the febrile heat continues of the ſame tenor to the end.

ACMELLA. A ſpecies of verbeſina.

ACNE, ἀκνη. A ſmall pimple, or hard tubercle on the face. Fœſius ſays, that it is a ſmall puſtule or pimple, which ariſes uſually about the time that the body is in full vigour.

ACNESTIS, (from α priv. and κναιειν to ſcratch). That part of the ſpine of the back, which reaches from the metaphrenon, which is the part betwixt the ſhoulder blades, to the loins. This part ſeems to have been originally called ſo in quadru-

peds only, becauſe they cannot reach it to ſcratch.

ACOE, ακοη. The ſenſe of hearing.

ACOELIOS, (ακοιλι, from α priv. and κοιλος, the belly). Without belly. It is applied to thoſe who are ſo waſted, as to appear as if they had no belly. Caſtellus from Galen.

ACOITUS, ακοιτος. An epithet for honey, mentioned by Pliny, becauſe it has no ſediment, which is called κοιτη.

ACONION, ακονιον. A particular form of medicine among the ancient phyſicians, made of powders levigated, and probably like *collyria* for the diſorders of the eyes.

ACOPON, (ακοπον, from α priv. and κοπος, wearineſs). It ſignifies originally whatever is a remedy againſt wearineſs, and is uſed in this ſenſe by Hippocrates, Aph viii. lib. ii. But in time, the word was applied to certain ointments.

ACOPA. According to Galen and Paulus, the *Acopa Pharmaca* are remedies for indiſpoſitions of body which are cauſed by long or vehement motion. So are medicines againſt laſſitudes.

ACOR. It is ſometimes uſed to expreſs that ſourneſs in the ſtomach contracted by indigeſtion, and from whence flatulencies and acid belching ariſe.

ACORDINA. Indian tutty.

ACORIA, (ακοριη, from α priv. and κορεω, to ſatiate). Inſatiability. In Hippocrates it means a good appetite and digeſtion.

ACORITES VINUM. A wine mentioned by Dioſcorides made with acorns, liquorice, &c. infuſed with wine.

ACORTINUS. A lupin.

ACOSMIA, (ακοσμια, from α priv. and κοσμος, order.) Irregularity, principally in fevers, with reſpect to the criſis and critical days. Caſtellus from Pollux ſays, they who were bald uſed to be called *Acoſmoi*, becauſe they had loſt their great ornament their hair; for κοσμος ſignifies ornament as well as order.

ACRACY, ακρασια. Debility or impotency, from relaxation, or a loſt tone of the parts.

ACRAI. An Arabic word which ſeems to mean the ſame as *ſatyriaſis* in men, and *furor uterinus* in women.

ACRÆPALOS, (ακρα παλος, from α priv. and κραιπαλη). *Crapula*, a ſurfeit of drunkenneſs. Medicines are thus named which either prevent or cure ſurfeits or drunkenneſs.

ACRASIA, (ακρασια, from α priv. and κερανυμι to mix). Intemperance. But this word is often uſed by Hippocrates to ſignify weakneſs or inability for motion.

ACRATIA, (from α priv. and κρατος, ſtrength.) Inability for motion.

ACRATISMA. A breakfaſt among the old Greeks, conſiſting of a morſel of bread, ſoaked in pure unmixed wine. The derivation of this word is the ſame as *Acraſia*, becauſe the wine uſed on this occaſion was not mixed with water.

ACRATOMELI, the ſame as *Mulſum*, i. e. wine mixed with honey.

ACRE, (ακρος, extreme). It ſignifies the end or extremity of the noſe.

ACREA, ακρος. The extremities, among which are reckoned the arms, legs, noſe, and ears.

ACRISIA, (from α priv. and κρινω, to judge or ſeparate). A turbulent ſtate of a diſeaſe, which will ſcarce ſuffer any judgment to be formed thereof.

ACROBYSTIA. The extremity of the prepuce; from ακρος, extreme, and βυω, to cover.

ACROCHEIRIA, (from ακρος, extreme, and χειρ, a hand). An ex-

ercise among the ancients. Probably a species of wrestling, where they only held by the hands.

Acrocheiris, (from ακρος, extreme, and χειρ, a hand). Gorræus says, it signifies the arm from the elbow to the ends of the fingers; χειρ signifying the arm, from the scapula to the fingers ends.

Acrochordon, (ακροχορδων, from ακρος, extreme, and χορδη, a string). Galen describes it as a round excrescence on the skin, with a slender base; and that it hath its name because of its situation on the surface of the skin. The Greeks call that excrescence an *acrochordon*, where something hard concretes under the skin, which is rather rough, of the same colour as the skin, slender at the base, and broader above. Their size rarely exceeds that of a bean.

Acrocolia, (from ακρος, extreme, and καλον, a limb). These are the extremities of animals, which are used in food, as the feet of calves, swine, sheep, oxen, or lambs, and of the broths of which, jellies are frequently made. Castellus from Budæus adds, that the internal parts of animals are also called by this name; in English *giblets*.

Acrolenion. Castellus says it is the same as *Olicranon*.

Acropathos, (from ακρος, extreme, and παθος, a disease). It signifies literally a disease at the top or superior part. Hippocrates in his treatise De Superfætatione applies it to the internal orifice of the uterus; and in Prædict. lib. ii. to cancers, which appear on the surface of the body.

Acroposthia, (from ακρος, extreme, and ποσθη, the prepuce). The extremity of the prepuce: that part which is cut off in circumcision.

Acrospelos. A Greek name of the *Bromus Dioscoridis*, or wild oat-grass.

Acroteria. The extreme parts, as hands, feet, ears, nose, &c.

Acroteriasmus. The amputation of an extremity, from ακρωτηρια, extremities, and this from ακρος, *summus*.

Acrothymion, (from ακρος, extreme, and θυμος, thyme). A sort of wart, described by Celsus, as hard, rough, with a narrow basis, and broad tops; the top is of the colour of thyme; it easily splits and bleeds. This tumor is also called *Thymus*.

Acmo. Red coral.

Acte. The elder tree.

Actine. The herb *Bunias* or *Napus*.

Actinobolismus. Irradiation. It is applied to the spirits, conveying the inclinations of the mind to the body: it is also called *Diradiatio*.

Actuation. That change wrought on a medicine, or any thing taken into the body, by the vital heat, which is necessary, in order to make it act and have its effect, is called its actuation.

Acuitas. Acrimony.

Acuitio. To acuate, from *acuo*, to sharpen, the sharpening an acid medicine by an addition of something more acid; or, in general, the increasing the force of any medicine, by an addition of something that hath the same sort of operation in a greater degree.

Aculon, or *Aculos*. The fruit or acorn of the ilex, or scarlet oak.

Acupunctura. Acupuncture, bleeding performed by making many small punctures.

Acurer. Lead.

Acuron. A name of the *Alisma*.

Acus pastoris. A name of the *Scandix*, the shepherd's needle, or Venus's comb.

ACUS MOSCHATA. The *Geranium Moſchatum*.

ACUSTO. Nitre.

ACYISIS. In Vogel's Noſology it is a defect of conception, or barrenneſs in women.

ACYRUS. German leopard's bane.

ADAMITA. So Paracelſus calls the ſtone in the bladder.

ADAMITUM. A name for the hardeſt white ſtones, which Paracelſus ſays are a ſpecies of *Tartar*.

ADARCES. A ſaltiſh concretion found about the reeds and graſs in marſhy grounds in Galatia. It is lax and porous like baſtard ſponge. It is uſed to clear the ſkin with in leproſies, tetters, &c. Dr. Plot gives an account of this production in his *Natural Hiſtory of Oxfordſhire*.

ADAIGES. Sal ammoniac.

ADARNECH. Orpiment.

ADARTICULATIO. Arthrodia.

ADDEPHAGIA, (ἀδδηφαγία, from ἀδην, abundantly, and φαγειν, to eat). Inſatiability, a voracious appetite. The ſame as *Bulimia*.

ADEC. Sour milk, or buttermilk.

ADECTOS, (from α priv. and δακνω, to bite). An epithet of thoſe medicines which relieve from pain, by removing the uneaſy ſituation cauſed by the ſtimulus of acrimonious medicines, &c.

ADELPHIA, ἀδελφια, a relation; ſo Hippocrates calls diſtempers that reſemble each other.

ADEMONIA, (of α priv. and δαιμων, a genus or divinity or fortune). Hippocrates uſes this word for uneaſineſs, reſtleſſneſs, or anxiety felt in acute diſeaſes, and ſome hyſteric fits.

ADENES CANADENSES. Potatoes.

ADEPTA MEDICINA. So Paracelſus calls that which treats of the diſeaſes that are contracted by celeſtial operations, or communicated from heaven.

ADEPTA PHILOSOPHIA. Adept philoſophy. It is that philoſophy, whoſe end is the tranſmutation of minerals, and an univerſal remedy.

ADEPTS. Such are called ſo as pretend to ſome extraordinary ſkill in chemiſtry, from *adipiſcor*, to obtain; but theſe have too often proved either enthuſiaſts or impoſtors: and ſuch Paracelſus, Helmont, and their followers have been thought. The profeſſors of the *Adepta Philoſophia* are alſo called adepts.

ADHATODA. So Tournefort called the *Juſticia*; it is the Malabar nut tree, which is a ſpecies of *Juſticia*.

ADIACHYTOS, (from α neg. and διαχυω, to diffuſe, ſcatter, or be profuſe). Decent in point of dreſs. Hippocrates thinks the dreſs of a fop derogatory from the phyſician; though thereby he hides his ignorance, and obtains the good opinion of his patients.

ADIAPHOROUS. A term which implies the ſame with neutral; and is particularly uſed of ſome ſpirits and ſalts, which are neither of an acid nor alkaline nature.

ADIAPNEUSTIA, (from the privative particle α and διαπνεω, *perſpiro*). A diminution or obſtruction of natural perſpiration, and that in which the ancients chiefly placed the cauſe of fevers.

ADIARRHŒA, (from α priv. and διαῤῥεω, to flow out or through). A total ſuppreſſion of all the neceſſary evacuations.

ADIBAT. Mercury.

ADICE. A nettle.

ADIPSAN. So the Greeks called medicines, &c. which abate thirſt. Hippocrates applied this word to oxymel.

ADIPSOS. So the Greeks called the Egyptian palm-tree, whoſe fruit,

before it is ripe, is ſaid to be the *Myrobalans*. The tree is called *adipſos* becauſe its fruit quencheth thirſt. Theophraſtus calls this tree *Balanos*. *Adipſos* is alſo a name for liquorice.

ADJUTORIUM, (from *ad* and *juvo*, to help). A name of the *humerus*, from its uſefulneſs in lifting up the fore-arm.

ADOC. Milk.

ADOR. A ſort of corn called alſo *Spelta*.

ADOS. Water in which red-hot iron is extinguiſhed.

ADRA RHIZA. Blancard ſays the root of the *Ariſtolochia* is thus named.

ADRACHNE, *Arbutus Andrachne*. The ſtrawberry-tree.

ADRAM. *Sal Gem*.

ADRARAGI. Garden ſaffron.

ADROBOLON, (from ἀδρὸς, large, and βῶλος, a globe, bole, or maſs). Indian bdellium, which is coarſer than the Arabian.

ADUSTION. Alſo called *Syriaſis*; an inflammation about the brain, and its membranes, with an hollowneſs of the eyes, a pale colour, and a dry body.

ÆDOIA, (from αἰδὼς, modeſty). The ſame as *Pudenda*, by which is meant the parts ſubſervient to generation in both ſexes.

ÆDOPSOPHIA, (from αἰδοῖα, *pudenda*, and ψοφέω, *peditum edo*). Sauvage and Sagar uſe this term to ſignify a flatus from the bladder, or from the womb, making its eſcape through the urethra or the vagina.

ÆGAGROPILUS, (from αἰγαγρὸς, *rupicapra*, a wild goat, and πῖλος, *globulus*, a ball). Hieronymus Velſchius wrote a treatiſe on the virtues of this. It is a ball found in the ſtomach of deer, goats, hogs, horned cattle, as cows, &c. It conſiſts of hairs which they have ſwallowed from licking themſelves. They are of different degrees of hardneſs, but have no medicinal virtues. Some rank theſe balls among the *Bezoars*. A ſpecies of conferva found in Wallenſenmoor, from its reſembling theſe concretions, is alſo ſo named.

ÆGEDES. A diſorder of the eyes mentioned by Hippocrates. Fœſius thinks the diſeaſe conſiſts of ſmall cicatrices in the eye, cauſed by an afflux of corroſive humours upon the part. But in one paſſage of Hippocrates, Foeſius ſays it ſignifies ſmall white concretions of humours which ſtick upon the pupil, and obſcure the ſight.

ÆGILOPS. Wild feſcue graſs. It is called *ægilops* from its ſuppoſed virtue in curing the diſorder ſo named. See Dioſcorides, lib. iv. cap. 139. It is a ſpecies of *Bromus* in the Linnæan ſyſtem.

ÆGINETIA. Malabarian broom-rape. A ſpecies of *Orobanche*.

ÆGIS. A film on the eye.

ÆGOCERAS, (from αἰξ, a goat, and κέρας, a horn). Fœnugreek, ſo called, becauſe the pods were ſuppoſed to reſemble the horns of a goat. Alſo a name of *Bouceras*.

ÆGOLETHRON, (from αἰξ, a goat, and ὀλεθρος, deſtruction). Tournefort ſays it is the *Chamærododendron*.

ÆGONYCHON. Gromwell, from αἰξ, a goat, and ὀνυξ, a hoof, becauſe of the hardneſs of the ſeed.

ÆGOPROSOPON, the name for a collyrium for the eyes when inflamed.

ÆON. The ſpinal marrow.

ÆONION. The *Sedum Majus*, or common houſe-leek.

ÆORA, (from αἴωρεω, to lift up, to ſuſpend on high). Geſtation. A ſpecies of exerciſe uſed by the ancients, and of which Aëtius gives the following account. Geſtation, while it exerciſes the body, the body ſeems to be at reſt. Of the motion there are ſeveral kinds. Firſt, ſwing-

ing in a hammock, which at the decline of a fever is beneficial. Secondly, being carried in a litter, in which the patient either ſits or lies along. It is uſeful when the gout, ſtone, or ſuch other diſorder, attends, as does not admit of violent motions. Thirdly, riding in a chariot, which is of ſervice in moſt chronical diſorders; eſpecially before the more violent exerciſes can be admitted. Fourthly, ſailing in a ſhip or boat. This produces various effects, according to the different agitation of the waters, and in many tedious chronical diſorders is efficacious beyond what is obſerved from the moſt ſkilful adminiſtration of drugs. Theſe are inſtances of a paſſive exerciſe.

ÆRA. Darnel.

ÆRITIS. The *Anagallis*.

AEROMELI. Honey; alſo a name for manna, from αηρ, air, and μελι, honey.

AEROPHOBI, (from αηρ, air, and φοβος, fear. According to Cœlius Aurelianus, ſome phrenetic patients are afraid of a lucid, and others of an obſcure air: and theſe he calls *aerophobi*.

AEROPHOBIA. A ſymptom of the phrenitis; alſo a name of the *Hydrophobia*.

ÆROSUS LAPIS. So Pliny calls the *Lapis Calaminaris*, upon the ſuppoſition that it was a copper ore.

ÆSTATES. Freckles in the face.

ÆSTPHARA. Incineration, or burning of the fleſh, or any other part of the body.

ÆSTUARIUM. Æſtuary, or ſtoves for conveying heats to all parts of the body at once; a kind of vapour-bath. Amb. Parey calls an inſtrument thus, which he deſcribes for conveying heat to any particular part; and Palmarius De Morb. Contag. gives a contrivance under this name for ſweating the whole body. Stoves, for preſerving tender exotic plants from inclement ſeaſons, are alſo ſo named.

ÆSTUATIO. The boiling up or rather the fermenting of liquors when mixed.

ÆSTUS VOLATICUS. Sudden heat, which ſoon goes off, but which for a time reddens the face. Vogel and Cullen place this word as ſynonimous with *Phlogoſis*, or external inflammation. Sauvage ranks it as a variety of the erythrematous inflammation.

ÆTHALES, (from αει, always, and θαλλω, to be green). Houſe leek.

ÆTHERIA HERBA. *Eryngo*.

ÆTHNA. Subterraneous, inviſible, ſulphureous fire, which calcines rocks in the earth. The igneous meteors about burning mountains are called *Ethnici*.

ÆTHOLICES, (from αιθω, to inflame, or burn). Superficial puſtules in the ſkin, raiſed by heat, as boils, fiery puſtules.

ÆTOI PHLEBES. Eagle veins. According to Ruphus Epheſius, the veins that paſs through the temples to the head, were thus called.

ÆTOLION. The *Granum cnidium*.

ÆTONYCHIUM, (from αετος, an eagle, and ονυξ, a claw, or nail). *Lithoſpermum*.

AFFION. An Arabic name for opium.

AFFRODINA. Venus.

AFFUSIO, pouring a liquor upon ſomething; but ſometimes it means the ſame as *ſuffuſio*, a cataract.

AFIUN. Opium.

AGA CRETENSIUM. The ſmall Spaniſh milk-thiſtle.

AGALUGI. A name of the *Agallochum*.

AGEN. Perſian lilac.

AGER. The common earth or ſoil.

AGER NATURÆ. The womb.

AGERATUS LAPIS. A ſtone uſed

by coblers to poliſh women's ſhoes. It is gently aſtringent.

AGES. The palm or hollow of the hand.

AGIS. The thigh.

AGITATORII. Convulſive diſeaſes, or thoſe called clonic.

AGLACTATIO. Defect of milk.

AGLAXIS. Defect of milk.

AGLIA. The ſame as *Ægides*.

AGLITHES. The diviſion or ſegments of a head of garlick, which we call cloves.

AGNINA MEMBRANA, *vel Pellicula*. Aetius calls one of the membranes which involve the fœtus by this name, which he derives from its tenderneſs.

AGNOIA, (from α priv. and γιγνωσκω, to know). It is when a patient in a fever forgets his acquaintance.

AGONE. Henbane.

AGONIA, (from α priv. and γονος, an offſpring). Sterility.

AGONOS, (from α priv. and γονος, an offſpring, or γονη, barren). Hippocrates calls thoſe women ſo who have not children, though they might have if the impediment were removed.

AGOSTOS, (from αγω, to bring, or lead). That part of the arm from the elbow to the fingers; alſo the palm or hollow of the hand.

AGRESTA. Verjuice.

AGRIA. Holly. Alſo a malignant puſtule, of which there are two ſorts; one is ſmall, and caſts a roughneſs or redneſs over the ſkin, ſlightly corroding it, ſmooth about its centre, ſpreads ſlowly, and is of a round figure; this ſort is cured by rubbing it with the faſting ſpittle. The ſecond ulcerates, with a violent redneſs and corroſion, ſo as to make the hair fall off; it is of an unequal form, and turns leprous; its cure is the application of pellitory of the wall in the manner of a poultice.

AGRIAMPELOS, (from αγριος, wild, and αμπελος, a vine). The wild vine. Gerard ſays it is the black briony.

AGRIELÆA, (from αγριος, wild, and ελαια, an olive). The wild olive.

AGRIOCARDAMUM. Sciatica creſſes.

AGRIOCASTANUM. Earth-nut, or pignut.

AGRIOCOCCIMELA, (from αγριος, wild, κοκκος, a berry, and μηλεα, an apple-tree). The prunus ſylveſtris.

AGRIOMELA. The crab-apple.

AGRIORIGANUM. Wild origanum, or wild marjoram.

ACRIOSTARI. A ſort of wheat, called Triticum creticum.

AGRIPALMA. Mother-wort.

AGRIPALMA GALLIS. Mother-wort.

AGRUMINA. Onion. Leeks.

AGRYPNOCOMA. A ſpecies of coma.

AGYRTÆ, (from αγυρις, a croud of people, or a mob; or from αγειρω, to gather together). It formerly expreſſed certain ſtrollers who pretended to ſtrange things from ſupernatural aſſiſtances; but of late it is applied to all quack and illiterate dabblers in medicine.

AHAMELLA. The ſame as *Zemella*.

AHIUS. Salt-ſtone.

AHMELLA. The ſame as *Azmella*.

AHUSAL. The ſulphur of arſenic.

ALIES. Potatoes.

AILMAD. An Arabian name for antimony.

AIPI. Caſſada.

AIPIMA COXERA. Caſſada.

AIPIPOCA. Caſſada.

AISTHETERIUM, (from αισθανομαι, to perceive). The common ſenſory. Carteſius and others ſay, it is the pineal gland; Willis ſays it is where the nerves of the external

ſenſes are terminated, which is about the beginning of the medulla oblongata, (or top of the ſpinal marrow), in the corpus ſtriatum.

AIZOON. A ſpecies of ſedum.

AKON. A whetſtone.

AL. The Arabian article which ſignifies *the*; it is applied to a word by way of eminence, as the Greek ὁ is. The Eaſterns expreſs the ſuperlative by adding *God* thereto, as *the mountain of God*, for the higheſt mountains; and it is probable that *Al* relates to the word *Alla*, God, ſo *alchemy*, may be *the chemiſtry of God*, or the moſt exalted perfection of chemical ſcience.

ALABARI. Lead.

ALACAB. Sal ammoniac.

ALASI, ALAFOR, ALAFORT. Alkaline ſalt.

ALAIA PHTHISIS, (from ἀλαιος, blind). A waſhing from a flux of humours from the head.

ALAMED. Antimony.

ALANDAHAL. An Arabian name for bitter apples.

ALANFUTA. A vein betwixt the chin and upper lip.

ALARIS VENA. The inner of the three veins in the bend of the arm.

ALARTAR. Burnt braſs.

ALASALET. *Sal ammoniacum.*

ALATON. Litharge of gold.

ALATERNUS. A ſpecies of *Rhamnus.*

ALATI. Thoſe who have prominent ſcapulæ are ſo called.

ALAURAT. Nitre.

ALBA TERRA. The matter of the philoſopher's ſtone is ſo called.

ALBADARA. An Arabic name of the ſeſamoid bone of the firſt joint of the great-toe. See *Seſamoides.*

ALBAGIAZI. An Arabic name of the os ſacrum.

ALBAMENTUM. The white of an egg.

ALBANUM. Salt of urine.

ALBARA. A ſpecies of white leproſy.

ALBAGRAS NIGRA. So Avicenna names the *Lepra Ichthyoſis.* Others name the *Lepra Græcorum* thus.

ALBATIO. A chemical term which ſignifies whitening, called blanching of metal.

ALBERAS. An Arabic name for the *Staphis agria.*

ALBESTON. Quick-lime.

ALBETAD. Galbanum.

ALBIMEC. Orpiment.

ALBINUM. Gnaphalium.

ALBIR. Pitch got from the bark of yew-trees.

ALBOR. Urine.

ALBORA. A ſort of itch; or rather of leproſy. Paracelſus ſays, it is a complication of the morphew, ſerpigo, and leproſy. When cicatrices appear in the face like the ſerpigo, and then turn to ſmall bliſters of the nature of the morphew, it is the albora. It terminates without ulceration, but by fetid evacuations in the mouth and noſtrils; it is alſo ſeated in the root of the tongue.

ALBORCA. Mercury.

ALBOT. A crucible.

ALBOTAT. Ceruſs.

ALBOTIM. Turpentine.

ALBUGINOUS HUMOUR. So the aqueous humour of the eye hath been called.

ALBUGO OCULORUM. The white ſpeck on the eyes. The Greeks named it *Leucoma;* the Latins, *Albugo*, *Nebula*, and *Nubecula*; ſome ancient writers have called it *Pterygium Pannus Oculi*, *Onyx*, *Unguis*, and *Ægides*. It is a variety of Cullen's *Caligo Corneæ*. With us it hath various appellations, as a cicatrice, film, haw, a dragon, pearl, &c. Some diſtinguiſh this diſorder by nubecula when it is ſuperficial; and albugo when it is deep. Others make the following diſtinctions, viz.

when the ſpeck is of a ſhining white, and without pain, it is called a cicatrice; when of an opake whiteneſs, an albugo; ſeated ſuperficially it hath been called a ſpeck; and more deeply a dragon; if an abſceſs was the cauſe, its contents hardening between the laminæ of the cornea, cauſes it to project a little, and then it is called a pearl.

ALBUM BALSAMUM. The balſam of Capivi.

ALBUM CANIS. *Album græcum.*

ALBUM GRÆCUM. The white dung of dogs. It was formerly applied as a diſcutient, to the inſide of the throat, in quinſies, being firſt mixed with honey.

ALBUM HISPANIÆ. *Album hiſpanicum.*

ALBUM HISPANICUM. It is made from tin, in the ſame manner as Ceruſe is made from lead.

ALBUM OLUS. Lamb's lettuce, or corn-ſallad.

ALBUM NIGRUM. Mouſe dung.

ALBUM JUS. White broth. Boil whiting, haddock, cod, or any ſuch white-grained fiſh, in water, with a little oil; alſo a ſmall quantity of aniſe and leeks. When this is parboiled, add a little ſalt.

ALCA. The bird called Auk, or Razor-bill.

ALCAHEST. An Arabic word to expreſs an univerſal diſſolvent, which was pretended to by Paracelſus and Helmont. Some ſay that Paracelſus firſt uſed this word, and that it is derived from the German words *al* and *geeſt*, i. e. *all ſpirit*. Van Helmont borrowed the word, and applied it to his invention which he called the univerſal diſſolvent. If Helmont had an univerſal diſſolvent, what held it?

ALCAHEST. A name of the liquor of flints.

ALCAHEST GLAUBERI. Fixed vegetable alkaline ſalt.

ALCAOL. The *lac aceto ſum, ſive mercurius, vel philoſophorum*; ſo the ſolvent for the preparation of the philoſopher's ſtone is called.

ALCARA. A cucurbit.

ALCEBRIS VIVUM. *Sulphur vivum.*

ALCHABRIC. *Sulphur vivum.*

ALCHACHIL. Roſemary.

ALCHARITH. Quickſilver.

ALCHERON LAPIS. The ſtone in the gall-bladder of a bull, cow, or ox, called *Bezoar bovinus.*

ALCHIEN. This word occurs in the Theatrum Chymicum, vol. v. and ſeems to ſignify that power in nature by which all corruption and generation are effected.

ALCHIMELECH. The Egyptian melilot.

ALCHITRAN. Oil of juniper. Alſo the name of a dentifrice of Meſue's.

ALCHYMY. A compoſition of copper with a ſmall quantity of arſenic, which mixture reſembles ſilver.

ALCHYS. A ſpeck on the pupil of the eye, ſomewhat obſcuring viſion.

ALCIMAD. Antimony.

ALCOB. Sal ammoniac, alſo burnt braſs.

ALCOCALUM. Artichoke.

ALCOFOL. Antimony.

ALCOHOL MARTIS. The filings of iron ruſted by adding wine to them. When the whole is ruſted, pure water is added to it, until all that is vinous is waſhed away, and the remaining powder is the alcohol.

ALCOHOL. Vinegar.

ALCOLA. *Aphthæ.* Paracelſus ſays it is the tartar or excrement of urine, whether it appears as ſand, mucilage, or otherwiſe.

ALCOLITA. Urine.

ALCOLISMUS. Reducing any thing to powder by corroſion.

ALCONE. Braſs.

ALCOOL. Alcohol.

ALCOR. Burnt copper.

ALCORE. A ſort of ſtone with ſpots reſembling ſilver.

ALCTE. Hippocrates mentions a plant by this name, and Foëſius thinks it is the elder.

ALCUBRITH. Sulphur.

ALCYONIUM. Baſtard ſponge, a ſpongy plant-like ſubſtance, which is met with on the ſea-ſhore: it is of different ſhapes and colours. It is difficult to ſay what the Greeks called by this name. Dioſcorides ſpeaks of five ſorts of it.

ALBADARA. An Arabic name of the ſeſamoid bone of the great-toe.

ALEC, ALECH. Vitriol.

ALECHARITH. Quickſilver.

ALECTOROLOPHUS. Yellow-rattle.

ALEION, ἀλεῖον, copious. Hippocrates uſes this word as an epithet for water.

ALEIPHA, ἄλειφα. Any medicated oil.

ALELAION. It is oil beat up with ſalt, to apply to tumors. Galen frequently uſed it.

ALEMA, ἄλημα. Meal.

ALEMBIC. Quickſilver.

ALEMBROTH. A Chaldee word importing the key of art. Some explained it by *ſal mercurii*, or *ſal philoſophorum & artis*; others ſay it is named *alembrot* and *ſal fuſionis*, or *ſal fixiones*. *Alembroth deſiccatum* is ſaid to be the *ſal tartari*; hence this word ſeems to ſignify alkaline ſalt, which opens the bodies of metals by deſtroying their ſulphurs, and promoting their ſeparation from the ores.

ALEMZADAR. *Sal Ammon. Crud.*

ALEMZADAT. *Sal Ammon. Crud.*

ALEPENSIS. A ſpecies of aſh-tree which produces manna.

ALES. The name of a compound ſalt. When this word is uſed as an adjective, it ſignifies heaped, or crouded, or condenſed. Sometimes it ſignifies contracted, as *the uterus being contracted.*

ALES CRUDUM. Crude ales, thoſe drops which often fall in the night in June.

ALESCH. The *Alumen Plumoſum.*

ALETON, ἄλητον. Meal, (from ἀλεύω, to grind).

ALEURON, ἄλευρον. Meal. (from ἀλεύω, to grind). Strictly, it is the meal of wheat, though commonly applied to other ſorts.

ALEXICACA. An antidote.

ALEXICACON, (from ἀλέξω, to repel, and κακον, an evil). An amulet againſt poiſon.

ALEXIPYRETICUM, ἀλεξιπυρετος, *Alexipyretos*, or *Alexipyretum*, (from ἀλέξω, to drive away, and πυρετος, fever). A remedy for a fever.

ALEXIR. An elixir.

ALEXITERIA, ἀλεξιτηρια. Alexiterials, (from ἄγεξω, and τηρεω, preſervative from contagion). Hippocrates uſed the word to expreſs help, or remedies; but latter writers uſe it to expreſs remedies againſt the poiſonous bites of animals. By Caſtellus this word is conſidered as ſynonymous with Alexipharmaca.

ALFACTA. Diſtillation.

ALFADIDOM. The ſcoria of gold, iron, or copper. Alſo burnt copper.

ALFATIDE. Sal ammoniac.

ALFIDES. Ceruſe.

ALFOL. Sal ammoniac.

ALFUSA. Tutty.

ALGALI. Nitre.

ALGALI. A catheter.

ALGARAH. *Anchilops.*

ALGEROT. See *Algerothi Pulvis.*

ALGEROTHI PULVIS. Algeroth's powder, ſo called from Victorius Algeroth, a phyſician of Verona, and its inventor. It is the ſame as the *Mercurius Vitæ*. It is only the

antimonial part of the butter of antimony, ſeparated from ſome of its acid by waſhing it in water. It is taſteleſs, but violently emetic: or, as Mr. Beaumé obſerves, it is the reguline part of the antimony deprived of all acid and almoſt of all its phlogiſton. The ſmall portion of phlogiſton which it ſtill contains is the cauſe of its emetic quality.

ALGATA. Civet.

ALGEMA, αλγημα, or *Algematodes*. Uneaſineſs, pain. Hippocrates often uſed the word αλγημα to ſignify the diſeaſe whence the pain proceeds.

ALGERIÆ, *Algerie*. Lime.

ALGE'ROTH. See *Algerothi Pulvis*.

ALGIBIC. *Sulphur vivum*.

ALGIDA. Algid, numb, chill, withered.

ALHAGI. A ſpecies of *Hedyſarum*.

ALHANDALA. An Arabian name for colocynth.

ALHASEF. A ſort of puſtule, called alſo *Hydroa*.

ALICA, χονδρος. In general ſignification, a grain, a ſort of food admired by the ancients; it is not certain whether it is a grain or a preparation of ſome kind thereof.

ALICES. Little red ſpots in the ſkin, which precede the eruption of puſtules in the ſmall-pox.

ALINDESIS, αλινδησις. A bodily exerciſe, which ſeems to be rolling on the ground, or rather in the duſt, after being anointed with oil. Hippocrates ſays it hath nearly the ſame effect as wreſtling.

ALKALIA. A veſſel.

ALKARA, *Alcara*. A cucurbit.

ALKASA. A crucible.

ALKERMES. A confect made of the juice of *Kermes* berries, &c. whoſe firſt preſcribed it.

ALKERVA. An Arabian name for the *Palma Chriſti*, and alſo for the *Ol. Ricini*.

ALKES. Burnt braſs.

ALKETRAN. An Arabian name for the oil of *Cedar*.

ALKIN. Pot-aſh.

ALKITRAM. Tar.

ALCOL. *Alcohol*.

ALKOSOR. Camphor.

ALKI PLUMBI. It ſeems to be the *Sacch. Saturn*.

ALLIAR ÆRIS. Philoſophical copper. It is a term uſed in preparing the philoſopher's ſtone.

ALLOITICUM, αλλοιωτικα, (from αλλοιοω, to alter, or vary; an alterative medicine.

ALLOCHOOS, αλλοχοος. One who talks deliriouſly.

ALLOGNOON, (from αλλο-, another, and γνοω, to know). To be delirious.

ALMA. Water; and the firſt motion of a fœtus to free itſelf from its confinement.

ALMABRI. A ſtone-like amber.

ALMAGRA. Red earth. Rulandus ſays it is the ſame as *Lotio*. In the Theatr. Chym. it is a name for the white ſulphur of the alchemiſts.

ALMAKANDA. Litharge.

ALMARCARIDA. Litharge of ſilver.

ALMARGEN, ALMARAGO. Coral.

ALMARKASITA. Mercury.

ALMARTAK. Powder of litharge.

AMATATICA. Copper.

ALMECASITE, ALMECHASITE. Copper.

ALMELILETU. A word uſed by Avicenna, to expreſs a preternatural heat leſs than that of a fever, and which may continue after a fever.

ALMENE. Sal lucidum, or ſal gem.

ALMISA. Muſk.

ALMISADIR. Prepared ſal ammon. Alſo verdigris.

ALNEC. Tin.

ALNERIC. *Sulphur vivum*.

ALOEDARIA, ἀλοηδάρια. Compound purging medicines, ſo called from having aloes as one ingredient.

ALOGOTROPHIA, (from ἀλογος, diſproportionate, and τρεφω, to nouriſh). Unequal nouriſhment, as in the rickets.

ALOHAR. Quickſilver.

ALOHOC. Quickſilver.

ALOMBA. Lead.

ALOOC. Lead.

ALOPECES. The muſcles called *Pſoæ*.

ALOPECIA. Baldneſs, or the falling off of the hair, from ἀλώπηξ, a fox, becauſe the fox is ſubject to a diſtemper that reſembles it: or, as ſome ſay, becauſe the fox's urine will occaſion baldneſs.

ALOSAT. Quickſilver.

ALOSOHOC. Quickſilver.

ALOSANTHI. Flower of ſalt.

ALPHABETICUM CHYMICUM. Raymond Lully hath given the world this alphabet, but to what end is difficult to ſay.

A *ſignificat Deum.*
B —— *Mercurium.*
C —— *Salis Petram.*
D —— *Vitriolum.*
E —— *Menſtruale.*
F —— *Lunam claram.*
G —— *Mercurium Noſtrum.*
H —— *Salem purum.*
I —— *Compoſitum Lunæ.*
K —— *Compoſitum Solis.*
L —— *Terram compoſiti Lunæ.*
M —— *Aquam compoſiti Lunæ.*
N —— *Æram compoſiti Lunæ.*
O —— *Terram compoſiti Solis.*
P —— *Aquam compoſiti Solis.*
Q —— *Ærem compoſiti Solis.*
R —— *Ignem compoſiti Solis.*
S —— *Lapidem Album.*
T —— *Medicinam corporis rubei.*
V —— *Calorem fumi ſecreti.*
—— *Ignem ſiccum cineris.*
—— *Calorem balnei.*
Z —— *Separationem Liquorum.*
Z —— *Alembicum cum cucurbita.*

ALPHENIC. An Arabian word for barley-ſugar, or ſugar-candy.

ALPHITA. Pl. of ἀλφιτον, the meal of barley in general. By Hippocrates this term is applied to barley-meal either toaſted or fryed. Galen ſays that χριμνα is coarſe meal, ἄλευρον is fine meal, and ἀλφιτα is a middling ſort.

ALPHITEDON. It is when a bone is broken into ſmall fragments like *Alphita*, i. e. bran.

ALPINI BALSAMUM. Balm of Gilead.

ALQUIFOU. A ſort of lead ore which, when broken, looks like antimony. It is uſed by potters to glaze their coarſer earthen wares, and is called from thence, potter's ore. The potters mix a ſmall portion of manganeſe with it, and thus give a blackiſh hue to the glazing.

ALRACHAS. Lead.

ALRATICA. A word uſed by Albucaſis, to ſignify a partial or total imperforation of the vagina. It is an Arabic word.

ALSAMACH. An Arabic name for the great hole in the os petroſum.

ALSURENGIAM. An Arabic name for Hermodactyls.

ALTAFOR. Camphor.

ALTHANACA. *Althanacha.* Ointment.

ALTHEBEGIUM. An Arabic name for a ſort of ſwelling, ſuch as is obſerved in cachectic and leucophlegmatic habits, and ſuch as are ſeen under the eye-lids of thoſe who ſleep too much.

ALTHEXIS, (from ἀλθειν, to cure or heal). Hippocrates often uſes this word to ſignify the cure of a diſtemper.

ALTIHIT. So Avicenna calls the *Laſerpitium* of the ancients.

ALTIMER. Burnt copper.

ALTIMIO. The ſcoria of lead.

ALTINCAR. A ſort of factitious ſalt uſed in the ſeparation of metals.

ALTINGAT. Ruſt of copper, or flowers of copper.

ALTINURAUM. Vitriol.

ALYTH. Aſafœtida.

ALTUS. When this word is joined to *ſopor*, it means ſound ſleep, as in a lethargy.

ALNACH. Pure tin.

AL-UD. An Arabic name of *Agallochum*.

ALUDIT. Mercury.

ALUMHAIR. Butter.

ALUMBOTI. Calcined lead.

ALUMEN CATENUM. *Alumen Catinum*. Potaſh.

ALUMEN GLACIALE. So alum that appears like ice was called by the ancients.

ALUTA ÆGYPTIA. Leather ſo prepared as to be fit to ſpread plaſters on.

ALYCE, αλυκη. Anxiety. That anxiety which is attendant on fevers.

ALYPIA, *Alypias*. The *Alyſſum*.

ALYPUM, (from α priv. and λυπη, pain). The herb terrible, a ſpecies of *Globularia*.

ALYSMOS, (from αλυσμος, uneaſineſs, or anxiety). Hippocrates uſes it to expreſs that uneaſineſs that is attendant on acute diſeaſes, which makes patients toſs about, and prevents their reſting long in the ſame poſture. Duretus diſtinguiſhes between the αλυσμος ανειμετος, and the αλυσμος ναυτιδης. The firſt is cauſed by an oppreſſion of the vital powers, the latter by ſickneſs in the ſtomach; but of this alyſmos (i. e. anxiety) there are reckoned four ſorts; two with, and two without fever. 1. Without fever, from ſomething uneaſy in the ſtomach. Uneaſineſs of the ſtomach by ſympathy, as from a ſtone in the kidneys, &c. produce this diſorder. 2. Without fever, from vapours or ſpaſm in the ſtomach, or other viſcera in the belly. 3. With fever, from a difficulty of the blood paſſing through the lungs. 4. With fever, from a ſtricture of the vena portarum.

ALYSSOIDES, from its reſemblance to *Alyſſum*.

ALYSSON. A name of ſome ſpecies of *Veronica*.

ALYSSON. Madwort, a ſpecies of *Marrubium*.

ALYSSUM. Madwort, a genus in Linnæus's botany. He enumerates ſeventeen ſpecies. The alyſſum of Galen is thought to be a ſpecies of *Marrubium*. The *alyſſum* of Pliny is ſuppoſed to be the *Mollugo*.

AMALAGO. Jamaica long-pepper tree, a ſpecies of *Piper*.

AMANITA. The fungous productions called muſhrooms, truffles, &c.

AMARACUS. *Majorana*.

AMARANTOIDES. A ſpecies of *Axyris*.

AMARANTHOIDES, (from αμαραντος, *amaranthus*, and ειδος, *forma*). Globe-amaranth, or everlaſting flower.

AMARELLA. A ſpecies of *Gentiana*.

AMARELLA. So Geſner names the *Polygala*.

AMATORIA. *Febris Amatoria* The fever of lovers: alſo the *Chloroſis*. Vogel defines it to be a fever of a few hours continuance, beginning with a great degree of coldneſs, and ariſing from eager expectation.

AMBA. A name of the mango-tree.

AMBARUM. Ambergris.

AMBARVALIS, (from the Latin word *ambire*). A name of the *Polygala*, or milk-wort.

AMBE, (αμβη, a lip, edge, or border). An inſtrument uſed in dilacations of the humerus. Gal

plains the word *ambe*, by οφρυωδης επιτασσις, an eminence like a border, and says that the whole machine takes that name, because its extremity runs out with an edge like the lip or brim of a pot, towards the interior cavity, which, as well as the edge or border of any thing on the top or extremity, are signified by the word *ambe*.

AMBE. A name of the tree called *Manga*.

AMBELA. A Turkish, Arabian, and Persian name for a tree called *Charamais*; in English the purging cornered hasel-nut.

AMBERBOI, serrated-leaved, fistulous-flowered, sweet sultan, a species of *Centaurea*.

AMBIA MONARD, a yellow liquid bitumen, smelling *Tacamahacca*. It flows from a fountain near the Indian sea; its medicinal properties are the same as those of tacamahacca, or of coranna.

AMBLYOGMOS, from αμβλυς, dull, dullness of sight. Hippocrates uses this word, and *Amblyosmos*, to express the same thing.

AMBON, αμβων the edge of the sockets in which the heads of the large bones are lodged.

AMBOINENSIS, a species of *Rumphia*.

AMBROSIA. A sounding title given to medicines which were pretended of uncommon efficacy for supporting the principles of life, and procuring a kind of immortality.

AMBULO. The name of a disease, called also *flatulentus*, and *furiosus*, and *flatus furiosus*. It is a distention or inflation attended with pain, and variously periodical.

AMBUTUA. *Pareira Brava*.

AMADANUS. The common *Alnus*.

AMELANCHIER. A sort of bilsy; the *Vitis Idæa tertia Clusii* of Johnson.

AMELANCHIER. A species of *Mespilus*. Also a variety of *Cydonia*.

AMENENOS, (from α priv. and μενος, strength, weak, feeble). In this sense Hippocrates often uses this word.

AMENTUM. *Sciffile alum*.

AMERI. A name for indigo.

AMERICANUM TUBEROSUM. The potatoe.

AMETHYSTA PHARMACA, (from α priv. and μεθυ, wine). Medicines which either prevent, or take away the inebriating effects of wine.

AMICULUM. A covering for the pubes, when the boys exercised in the Gymnasium. It is also used in the same sense as the word *Amnios*.

AMIDUM. *Amylum*.

AMINÆ GUM. *Gum Anime*.

AMINIA. The name of a sort of cotton-tree.

AMISADU. Prepared sal ammoniac.

AMMA. The name of a girdle or truss, used in ruptures to hinder the intestines from bearing down too much.

AMMOIDES. A species of *Seseli*.

AMMION. Cinnabar.

AMMITOS. *Ammonites*, (from αμμος, sand, a sandy stone). Some are small as poppy-seed: others large as a hazle nut. When as large as a pea they are called *Mineral bezoar*. They are found near Berne in Switzerland.

AMMOCHOSIA. A remedy for drying the body by covering it with hot sand or salt. It is of the same efficacy as insolation. Salt is better than sand.

AMMONITRUM, (from αμμος, sand and νιτρον, nitre). In our glass-house this is called *frit*.

AMMA ALCALIZATA. Paracelsus says it is water which runs through lime-stones, and so is impregnated with lime. Rulandus calls it *Anni Alcalizatus*.

AMOGABRIEL. Cinnabar.

AMOMIS. A fruit reſembling *Amomum*; it is alſo called *Pſeudamomum*.

AMOMUM PLINII. The *Pſeudo Capſicum*.

AMOR INSANUS. The ſame as *Erotomania*.

AMORGE. The fæces of oil.

AMOSTEUS. Oſteocolla.

AMOTES. Potatoes.

AMPAR. Amber.

AMPELION. Vine-leaves, or the tendrils of vines. Hippocrates recommends them for making into peſſaries, to promote the menſes with.

AMPELITES. Canal-coal. It is more bitumous than that in common uſe with us.

AMPELOPRASUM. Great round-headed garlic, a ſpecies of allium.

AMPELOS. Briony.

AMPHIBRANCHIA, (from αμφι, about, and βραγχια, the gills of a fiſh). The fauces, or parts about the tonſils.

AMPHICAUSTIS. A ſort of wild barley. Some, but not medical writers, uſe this word to expreſs the *pudenda muliebria*.

AMPHIDEON OR AMPHIDEUM, αμφιδεον. The *Os tincæ*, or mouth of the womb.

AMPHIMETRION, (from αμφι, about, and μητρα, the womb). The parts about the womb.

AMPHIPLEX. According to Rufus Epheſius, it is the part ſituated betwixt the *Scrotum*, *Anus*, and internal part of the thighs.

AMPHIPNEUMA, (from αμφι, about, and πνευμα, the breath). A difficulty of breathing.

AMPHISMILA. An anatomical knife, that is edged on both ſides, (from αμφι, *utrinque*, on both ſides, and σμιλη, *cultellus*, a knife).

AMPHODONTA, (from αμφ., on both ſides, and οδους, a tooth) By this word Hippocrates expreſſeth animals that have teeth in both jaws.

AMPHORA, αμφορευς. A meaſure mentioned by ancient phyſical writers, containing eight gallons; of oil 72 pounds; of wine 80 pounds; and of honey 180 pounds, as Caſtellus informs us.

AMPOTIS, αμποτις. The receſs or ebb of the tide. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs the receſs of the humours from the circumference to the center of the body.

AMUCTICA, (from αμυσσω, to vellicate). Remedies that by vellicating, and ſtimulating the bronchia raiſe a cough, and ſo contribute to the diſcharge of what is in the lungs.

AMULETUM. An Amulet. *Amulets* and charms are ſo nearly allied, that they may be conſidered as being the ſame. They are formed of any materials that fancy ſuggeſts. They ſeem to have been artfully introduced, to impoſe a belief in thoſe not in the ſecret, that thoſe who were exerciſing them were in particular favour with ſome ſuperior being. This gave the people a venerable idea of the practitioner, and ſo the vulgar were more eaſily prevailed on to ſubmit implicitly to them; and as the mind affects the body, ſo in ſome caſes the perſuaſion of the patient might contribute to a cure.

AMURCA, αμοργη. The ſediment from olive oil, after being new preſſed from the fruit.

AMYCHE, αμυχη. A ſuperficial exulceration, laceration, or ſcarification of the ſkin; (from αμυσσω, to ſcratch).

AMYCTICA. Stimulating, vellicating.

AMYGDALIA. So Hippocrates calls the tonſils.

AMYGDALUS ÆTHIOPICA. A ſpecies of *Brabejum*.

AMYLEON. Starch.

AMYLION. Starch.

AMYON, (from α priv. and μυς, a muſcle). A limb ſo emaciated that the muſcles ſcarce appear.

ANABASIS, (αναβασις, from αναβαινω, to aſcend). It is ſometimes uſed for the height of a continued fever *Febris anabaptica* is the ſame as *Epaſmaſtica*.

ANABEXIS, αναβηξις. A word uſed by Galen for a ptyaliſm.

ANABOLE, (αναβολη, from αναβαλλω, to caſt up). The diſcharging any thing as by vomit.

ANABROCHISMOS, or ANABROCHISMUS, (αναβροχισμος, from ανα, ſurſum, and βροχος, a nooſe). An operation which was uſed to be performed on the hair of the eye-lids when they are offenſive to the eye.

ANABROSIS, (αναβρωσις, from αναβρωσκω, to devour). A corroſion of the ſolid parts by ſharp humours. The ſame as *Diabroſis*. It occaſions a diſcharge of blood, and often happens in the lungs.

ANACATHARTICA. Anacathartic, is what works upwards, (from ανα, *ſupra*, upwards, and καθαιρω, *purgo*, to purge); and by Hippocrates and Galen was ſtrictly confined to ſpitting, with whom Blaſius pretty much agrees in reſtraining it to expectoration only; though Blanchard uſes it for all things which work by the glands of the head, as well as to vomits and ſternutatories.

ANACPREPSIS, (αναχρεμψις, from ανα for ανω, upwards, and χρεμπτομαι, to hawk). The hawking up any thing from the lungs.

ANACLISIS, (ανακλισις, from ανακλινω, to recline). Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs the decubiture of the ſick.

ANACOELIASMUS. A remedy uſed by Diocles, which ſeems to have been gentle purges, with a view to relieve the lungs.

ANACOLLEMA, (ανακολλημα, from ανακολλαω, to agglutinate). It is the ſame as frontale, only that it is always made of glutinants.

ANACOMIDE, ανακομιδη, from ανακομιζω, to repair, or recover a perſon after ſickneſs.

ANACTORION. A name of the corn flag.

ANACTORIUM. Mugwort.

ANACYCLEON, (ανακυκλεων, from κυκλοω, to wander about). It anſwers to the word *Circulator*, a mountebank.

ANADIPLOSIS, αναδιπλωσις. A frequent reduplication of fevers.

ANADOSIS, (αναδοσις, from αναδιδωμι, to diſtribute). The diſtribution of the aliment over all the body.

ANADROME, (αναδρομη, from δρεμω, to run). Hippocrates uſes this word to ſignify pains from the lower to the upper parts of the body.

ANAGARGALICTA, αναγαργαλικτα. Gargariſms.

ANAGARGARISTON, αναγαργαριστον. A gargariſm for the throat.

ANAGLYPHE, (from αναγλυφω, to engrave). Herophilus calls a part of the fourth ventricle of the brain thus. Anatomiſts now call it *Calamus ſcriptorius*, from its reſemblance to a pen.

ANALENTIA. A ſpecies of epilepſy mentioned by Paracelſus.

ANALEPSIA. Johannes Anglicus calls that ſpecies of epilepſy thus, which proceeds from the ſtomach being diſordered.

ANALGESIA, (from α priv. and αλγος, pain or grief). Indolence or abſence of pain and grief. A ſtate of eaſe.

ANALTHES, (αναλθες, from α priv. and αλθεω, to cure). Incurable.

ANAMNESTICA, αναμνηστικα. Medicines which reſtore the memory.

ANAMNESTICA SIGNA, (from ανα, and μιμνομαι, to remember). Commemorative ſigns, i. e. ſigns which diſcover the preceding ſtate of the body, as demonſtrative ſigns ſhew the preſent, and prognoſtics ſhew the future ſtate. Blanchard explains this word as expreſſing remedies which reſtore the memory.

ANAPHALANTIASIS, αναφαλαντιασις. A thinneſs of the hair upon the eye-brows.

ANAPHORA, (αναφορα, from αναφερω, to bring up, or upwards). In a medical ſenſe it imports ſpitting of blood if joined with αιματος.

ANAPHORICOI, αναφορικοι. Thoſe who ſpit blood; or according to Actuarius, thoſe who ſpit difficultly.

ANAPHRA, (αναφρα, from α priv. and αφρος, froth). Hippocrates uſes it as an epithet for ſtools, to expreſs that they are not frothy.

ANAPHROMELI, (from α priv. and αφρος, froth, and μελι, honey). It is honey ſo deſpumated that it will not froth.

ANAPLASIS, (αναπλασις, from αναπλασσω, to reſtore to the original form). Hippocrates uſes this word for the replacing a fractured bone, and for a reſtoration of fleſh.

ANAPLEROSIS, (αναπληρωσις, from αναπληροω, to fill up). The reſtitution of any waſted part. Incarnatives are called *Anapleurotica*. Barbet frequently mentions this term.

ANAPLEUSIS, (αναπλευσις, from αναπλεω, to fluctuate, or float upon, or to waſh out). Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs when faulty humours rot the bone, ſo that it falls out of its joint, as happens to the jaw ſometimes. Vogel expreſſes by this word, the ſcaling or ſeparation of the carious parts of a bone.

ANAPNEUSIS, (αναπνευσις, from αναπνεω, to reſpire, reſpiration, tranſpiration). Aretæus uſes it to expreſs a truce from pain.

ANAPODOPHYLLON. Ducks-foot, or May apple. The Americans call it black-ſnake root.

ANAPSYXIS, αναψυξις. Refrigeration.

ANARRHINUM, αναῤῥινον. Returning by the noſtrils.

ANARRHŒA, (from ανα, upwards, and ρεω, to flow). A flux of humours from below upwards. A ſpecies of fluxion oppoſite to a catarrh, when humours regurgitate upwards, uſed by Schneider de Catarrho, lib. i. cap. 3. Hippocrates expreſſes the ſame by *Anarrhopia*, αναῤῥοπια, and Linden uſes it for an inverſion of the inteſtines, and a regurgitation of the fæces.

ANARRHOPIA, (αναῤῥοπια, from ανα, upwards, and ρεπω, to verge). A tendency of humours to verge or incline upwards, or towards the ſuperior parts.

ANARTHROI, (αναρθροι, from α priv. and αρθρον, a joint). Fat, even to be bloated, ſo that the joints are obliterated.

ANASPASIS, (ανασπασις, from ανα, and σπαω, to draw). Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs a contraction in the ſtomach.

ANASSUTOS, (ανασσυτος, from ανω, upwards, and συτομαι, to ſhake). Hippocrates uſes this word as an epithet to air, when ſpeaking of the ſuffocation obſerved in hyſteric fits, and the air ruſhing out with violence upwards.

ANASTALTICA, (αναστολτικα, from αναστελλω, to contract). Styptic or reſtringent medicine.

ANASTOMOTICA. Medicines are thus called that open the mouths of the veſſels.

ANATES. A diſeaſe of the anus.

ANATHRON. A ſalt found on rocks in the form of white ſtoney moſs.

ANATHYMIASIS, (from θυμιαω, to fumigate). It ſignifies evaporation.

ANATRESIS, (from ανα, and τρεω, to perforate). Galen uſes this word to expreſs trepanning.

ANATRIS. Mercury.

ANATRON. The natron of the Egyptians. It is the mineral alkaline ſalt.

ANATROPE, (ανατροπη, from ανατρεπω, to ſubvert). A ſubverſion or relaxation of the ſtomach, with loſs

of appetite and nauſea. It is a ſpecies of indigeſtion. Vogel ſays it is a want of appetite with nauſea.

ANATUM. Egg-ſhells.

ANAUDIA. A name of the *Catalepſis*.

ANAUDOS, (ανανδος, from α priv. and ανδη, ſpeech). Galen ſays it means one who hath loſt the uſe of ſpeech, but retains his voice; whereas *aphonia* ſignifies the loſs of the voice.

ANAXIRIS. A name of the *Lapathum agreſte*.

ANBLATUM. A ſpecies of *Lathræa*.

ANCHA. The *Coxa*.

ANCHÆLOS. The thigh-bone.

ANCHYLOMERISMA. In Sagar's Noſology it ſignifies a concretion, or growing together of the ſoft parts.

ANCHYNOPES. A name of ray-graſs.

ANCI. Weaſel-elbowed, (from γαλη, a weaſel, and αγκων, an elbow). As when of the head of the humerus or ſhoulder bone is in the arm-pit. Theſe patients are alſo called *Muſtelanea*.

ANCINAR. Borax.

ANCORA. Lime.

ANCOSA. Lacca.

ANCTER, αγκτηρ. The Greek term for the fibula, or button, by which the lips of wounds are held together, which operation Galen calls *Anctheriaſmus*, αγκτηριασμος.

ANCUBITUS. That affection of the eyes in which they ſeem to contain ſand. It is alſo called *Petrification*.

ANCUS. A name for ſuch as have an arm bent, ſo that they cannot extend it; from ωγκων, an elbow.

ANCYLE, αγκυλη. Strictly ſignifies a conſtriction upon the joints, which renders their motion difficult: in which ſenſe Galen uſes it. Celſus expreſſes by it, that hindrance to motion which proceeds from a freſh cicatrix upon the part; and Hippocrates applies it to indurated joints from any cauſe.

ANCYLOGLOSSUM, (αγκυλοβλεφαρον, from αγκυλος, crooked, and γλωσσα, the tongue). A contraction of the ligaments of the tongue (called its frœnum); tongue-tied.

ANCYLOTOMUS, (from αγκυλος, crooked, and τεμνω, to cut). Any crooked knife uſed in ſurgery.

ANCYROIDES, αγκυροειδης. A proceſs of the ſcapula, ſo called from αγκυρα, anchor, ρυγχος, a beak, or fluke, and ειδος, form. See *Coracoid Proceſs*.

ANDRACHNE. Eaſtern ſtrawberry-tree; a ſpecies of *Arbutus*.

ANDRANATOME, (from ανηρ, a man, and τεμνω, to cut). The diſſection of a human body, eſpecially a male.

ANDRIA, (from ανηρ, a man.) An hermaphrodite.

ANDROGYNI, (ανδρογυνοι, from ανηρ, a man, and γυν, a woman). Effeminate men, and hermaphrodites.

ANDROSACEUS. A ſpecies of *Agaricus*.

ANDROSAMOIDES. A ſpecies of *Myrtus*.

ANDSJUDAEN. So Avicenna calls the *Aſſafœtida*.

ANEBION. Alkanet root.

ANECPYETUS, (ανεκπυετος, from α priv. and εκπυεω, ſuppurated). That which will not ſuppurate.

ANEILEMA, (ανειλημα, or *Aneieſis*, ανειλησις, from ανειλεω, to roll up, or involve). An involution, ſuch as is cauſed by flatulence and gripes.

ANEMIA. Thus Hippocrates names a diſeaſe; but it is not known what.

ANENCEPHALOS, (ανεγκεφαλος, from α priv. and εγκεφαλος, the brain). Brainleſs, or thoſe who are born without brains. Alſo thoſe who are fooliſh or mad.

ANEPITHYMIÆ. Error of ap-

petite by deficiency, as in inſtances of *Anorexia*.

ANERIC, ANERIT. *Sulphur vivum*.

ANEROTOMY, (from ανηρ, a man, and τεμνω, to cut). It is ſtrictly the diſſection of human bodies.

ANET. *Anethum*.

ANETHOXYLA. The woody root of dill.

ANFAKA. A coagulum.

ANFIAN. An Arabian word for *Opium*.

AN-FIR-FILIUS. Mercury.

ANGI. So Fallopius, in his De Morbo Gallico, calls the venereal buboes in the groin.

ANGIGLOSSI. Stammerers.

ANGIOPTERIS. A name of the *Onoclea*.

ANGONE. In Vogel's genera of diſeaſes, it is an acute choaking or ſuffocation, without inflammation. According to ſome, it is a nervous quinſy.

ANGOR, αγωνια. Is defined a ſhrinking inwards in the native heat of the body, or its retiring to the centre, upon which follows a pain and palpitation of the heart, attended with ſadneſs. It is eſteemed a very bad ſymptom when it happens in the beginning of acute fevers.

ANGOS, αγγος. A veſſel, a receptacle of humours.

ANGUILLARE. A ſpecies of *Pimpinella*.

ANGUSTIA. Anxiety, reſtleſſneſs in diſtempers; alſo a narrowneſs in the veſſels.

ANHUIBA. Saſſafras.

ANIADA. The aſtral and celeſtial powers which promote in us long life.

ANIADON, *Aniadum*, *Aniadus*. Words uſed by Paracelſus; and mean the ſame with *Aniada*.

ANICETUM. Inſuperable; a name of the *Aniſe*.

ANIDROS, (from α priv, and ιδρω, to ſweat). Sweatleſs.

ANIDROSIS, ανιδρωσις. A privation of ſweat.

ANIMA HEPATIS. Salt of ſteel; eſteemed as the ſoul of the liver, which this name imports, for its prevalency againſt its diſtempers.

ANIMA MUNDI. The ſoul of the world, an ubiquitarian principle, ſuppoſed by Plato to do the ſame feats as Des Cartes's æther, pervading and influencing all parts and all places.

ANIMA PULMONUM. A name given to ſaffron, on account of its uſe in aſthmas.

ANIMELLÆ. The glandules underneath the ears, and all along under the lower jaw, have been thus named.

ANNETESTES. So Paracelſus calls the Galeniſts, by way of deriſion, becauſe he thought them ignorant of the cauſes and principles of things.

ANNORA. Calcined egg-ſhells or quick-lime.

ANNOTATIO. The very beginning of a febrile paroxyſm, called alſo the attack of the paroxyſm. There is another *annotatio* or *epiſemaſia*, which is proper to hectic fevers happening an hour or two after eating: in this there is no ſhivering with cold, as in the other ſort.

ANNUENS MUSCULUS. The *Rectus Capitis Internus Minor*.

ANNULUS, This is variouſly applied by phyſical writers: Quercetan in his Med. Hermet. deſcribes ſome *Annuli purgatorii*; Libavius treats of *Annuli* as charms againſt colics and epilepſies: Scultetus gives this appellation to inſtruments contrived to hold open the eye or like parts in ſome operations; and Zecchius De Morbo Gallico directs an *annulus aureus* to be held in the mouth to draw away the quickſilver that has been uſed in venereal cures. The *Cricoides* is alſo by ſome called *Annuliformis Cartilago*.

ANO, ανω, is uſed for upwards, in

oppoſition to κατω, downwards, and is often joined by Hippocrates to κοιλια, *venter*, to ſignify the mouth of the ſtomach, or *oeſophagus*. It is alſo applied to things which work upwards, as vomits.

ANOCATHARTICA. Medicines which purge upwards, as emetics.

ANOCHEILON, (from ανω, and χειλος, a lip). The upper-lip.

ANODMON, (ανοδμος, from α neg. and οδμη, a ſmell). Without ſmell. It ſtands oppoſed to *fetid*.

ANODUS. A word uſed by the chemiſts for what is ſeparated from the nouriſhment by the kidneys. The Greek word ανοδης, from α priv. and οδους, a tooth, ſignifies toothleſs.

ANODYNIA, ανωδυνια, A loſs of feeling, ſynonimous with *Anæſtheſia*.

ANODYNUM MINERALE, i. e. *Sal Prunellæ*, alſo *Nitrum Stibiatum*.

ANOEA, (ανοια, from α priv. and νους, the mind). Madneſs.

ANOMŒOS, ανομοιος. Diſſimilar or heterogene. Hippocrates uſes this word for viſcous or unnatural humours.

ANOMPHALOS, (from α priv. and ομφαλος, a navel). Without a navel; and is applicable only to our firſt parents, as they were created without want of nouriſhment that way; for which reaſon, as Paulus Ammianus ſays, they are ſo diſtinguiſhed in paintings and drawings.

ANORECTI, ανορεκτοι. Thoſe who have no appetite.

ANOSIA, (ανοσια, from α priv. and νοσος, a diſeaſe). The abſence of diſeaſe.

ANOTASIER. Sal ammoniac.

ANOTHEN, ανωθεν, the ſame as *Ano*.

ANPATER. Sulphur.

ANTACHATES. A bituminous ſtone, which in burning ſmells like myrrh.

ANTATROPHON, (from αντι againſt, and ατροφια, a conſumption). Medicines againſt conſumptions.

ANTALABIA. The extremities of the lips.

ANTENDEIXIS, (αντενδειξις, from αντι, againſt, and ενδεικνυμι, to indicate). A contra-indication. As when one ſymptom requires a remedy which another ſymptom forbids the uſe of.

ANTANEASMUS, *Anteneaſinum*. A particular kind of madneſs; in it the patient is furiouſly irritated, and endeavours to lay violent hands upon himſelf.

ANTHEREON, ανθερεων. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs the chin, and all that part of the face where the beard grows.

ANTHRACOSIS OCULI, ανθρακωσις, A ſcaly corroſive ulcer of the eye, attended with a defluxion.

ANTHROPE, (from ανθρωπος, a man). Thus Herodotus calls the human ſkin.

ANTIADES, (αντιαδες, the tonſils). It ſometimes ſignifies the tonſils when inflamed.

ANTIAGRI, (from αντιαδες, the tonſils, and αγρα, a prey). Tumors of the tonſils.

ANTIAS. The tonſils.

ANTICADMIA. A ſpecies of *Cadmia*, alſo called *Pſeudocadmia*.

ANTICAR. Borax.

ANTICARDIUM, (from αντι, againſt, and καρδια, the heart). It is that part commonly called the *ſcrobiculus cordis*, or pit of the ſtomach.

ANTICHEIR, (from αντι, againſt, and χειρ, the hand). The thumb of a perſon's hand.

ANTICNEMION, (from αντι, over againſt, and κνημη, the calf of the leg). Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs that part of the tibia which is bare of fleſh.

ANTIDINICA, (from αντι, againſt, and δινος, circumgyration). Medicines againſt a vertigo.

ANTIFIDES. The calx of metals.

ANTIHECTICUM. The name of a medicine invented by Poterus, called alſo *Antimonium diaphoreticum joviale.*

ANTILOMICA, (from αντι, againſt, and λοιμος, the plague). Remedies againſt the plague.

ANTIPERISTASIS, (αντιπεριστασις, from αντι, againſt, and περιστημι, to ſtand about). An oppoſition from all around. The philoſophers who firſt coined this term, expreſſed by it a certain invigoration of internal warmth by the repulſion of external cold, which they called alſo concentration of the internal heat, from driving it to the centre. Or, it is a compreſſing on all ſides, as the air preſſes.

ANTIPHATE. Black coral.

ANTIPTHORA, (from αντι, againſt, and φθορα, corruption). A ſpecies of wolf's-bane, which reſiſts corruption.

ANTIPHYSICA, (αντιφυσικα, from αντι, againſt, and φυσιοω, to inflate). Remedies againſt wind, alſo called carminatives.

ANTIPHYSON. Load-ſtone.

ANTIPRAXIA, (from αντι, againſt, and πρασσω. to work). A contrariety of functions and temperaments in different parts: and was uſed by the ancients to expreſs the variety of concurring, and often contrary, ſymptoms.

ANTISCOLICA, (from αντι, againſt, and σκωληξ, a worm, the ſame as *Anthelmintica.*

ANTISCORODON, (from αντι, againſt, and σκορδον, garlick). A large ſpecies of garlick called *Allium Ulpicum.*

ANTISPASIS, (αντισπασις, from αντι, againſt, and σπαω, to draw). A revulſion; the turning of the courſe of the humours, whilſt they are actually in motion. The doctrine of revulſion is the invention of Hippocrates.

ANTISPASMOIDES, from αντι, againſt, and σπασμος, a convulſion). A remedy againſt convulſions.

ANTISPASTICON, αντισπαστικον. A general epithet for any medicine that works by way of revulſion.

ANTISTERNON, (αντιστερνον, from αιτι, againſt or oppoſite to, and στερνον, the breaſt). The back is ſo called, becauſe it is oppoſite to the breaſt-bone.

ANTITASIS, (αντιτασις, from αντι, againſt, and τεινω, to extend). A contra-extenſion.

ANTIZEUMICS. Preventers of fermentation in general.

ANTIZYMICS. Antiputreſcents.

ANTOPHYLLON, *Antophyllus.* The male *Caryophyllus.*

ANTRUM BUCCINOSUM. So Bartholine calls the cochlea of the ear.

ANUCAR. Borax.

ANYDRION. A ſpecies of *Solanum;*

APAGMA, απαγμα. The thruſting of a bone or other part out of its place.

APARTHROSIS, (απαρθρωσις, from απο, *ab,* and αρθρον, a joint). A diſlocation.

APECHEMA, απηχημα, from απω, and ηχος, a ſound). Properly a reſounding, or the repercuſſion of ſound, i. e. an echo; but in a medical ſenſe it ſignifies a contra fiſſure.

APELLA. It is when the glans penis lies bare, either by means of a diſtemperature, when it is called a paraphymoſis; or by circumſion; for which laſt reaſon, any circumciſed perſon is thus named.

APEPSIA, (απεψια, from α priv. and πεπτω, to digeſt). Indigeſtion.

APEPTON, απεπτον. Crude or undigeſted.

APEUTHYSMENOS, (απευθυσμενος, from ευθυς, ſtraight). A name of the inteſtinum rectum.

APHÆRESIS, (from αφαιρεω, to

take away). In ſurgery it ſignifies the amputation of whole members, or parts become diſeaſed.

APHILANTHROPIA, (from α neg. and φιλανθρωπια, the love of mankind). So Wedelius calls the firſt approaches of melancholy, when perſons begin to diſlike company and converſation.

APHONI. So Hippocrates calls thoſe who labour under a caros.

APHRAINON, (from α priv. and φρονεω, to be wiſe). One who hath loſt the uſe of his reaſon.

APHROGALA, (αφρογαλα, from αφρος, froth, and γαλα, milk). No writer hath deſcribed this; but what the Romans uſed under this name ſeems to be ſomething like what we call ſyllabub.

APHRONITRUM, (αφρονιτρον, from αφρος, ſpume, and νιτρον, nitre). Spume of nitre. Salts formed of the vitriolic acid, and a terrene or gypſeo-calcareous element, are thus called. It is a name alſo of the *Natron*.

APHROSCORODON, (from αφρος, ſpume, or froth). It is a name of the *Allium Ulpicum*.

APHROSELENOS, (αφροσελινος, from σελινη, the moon). A kind of ſelenite; ſo called from its repreſenting the moon as it were in a glaſs.

APHROSYNE, (from αφρων, ſilly). Folly or dotage.

APNŒA, απνοια. A defect of reſpiration; ſuch as happens in a cold, an apoplexy.

APOBAMMA, αποβαμμα. Water in which hot iron has been quenched.

APOCAPNISMUS, (αποκαπνισμος, from καπνος, ſmoak). A fumigation.

APOCATHARSIS, αποκαθαρσις, is uſed for purging upwards and downwards, either with or without the help of medicines.

APOCAREMMA, αποχεμμα. The matter of ſpit hawked up.

APOCHREMPSIS, αποχρεμψις. A hawking up of ſpit.

APOCHYLISMA. The ſame as the rob of any fruit.

APOCHYMA, αποχυμα. The pitch which is ſcraped from ſhips, formerly eſteemed in medicine.

APOCLASMA. αποκλασμα. The ſame as *Abductio*, or rather *Apagma*.

APOCLEISIS, αποκλεισις. An excluſion: but Hippocrates uſes the word, from whence it is derived, to expreſs a loathing of food.

APOCRUSTICON, (αποκρυστικον, from αποκρυω, to repel). An epithet for a remedy of a repelling and aſtringent quality.

APOCYESIS. A birth, or bringing forth of a child.

APOCYNON. A little bone in the left ſide of a frog, formerly held in great eſteem.

APODACRYTICA, αποδακρυτικα. Medicines which firſt excite, and then evacuate, the ſuperfluous moiſture of the eyes, and thus preventing preternatural moiſture there. Such are onions, hellebore, &c.

APŒUM, αποιον. Inſipid, or void of all ſenſible qualities, as water is. Galen thinks that inſipid aliments are more nouriſhing than the acrimonious and bitter are.

APOGALACTISMUS, απογαλακτισμος, i. e. *Ablactatio*.

APOGEUSIA. Depraved taſte.

APOGEUSIS. Loſs of taſte.

APOLEPSIS, απολημψις. An interception, ſuppreſſion, or retention, which may be of urine or any other natural evacuation.

APOLEXIS, απολημξις. A decaying time of age, and oppoſed to the flower of age.

APOLINOSIS, (απολινωσις, from λινον, flax). So P. Æmineta calls the method of curing a fiſtula by raw flax.

APOLYSIS, απολυσις. A ſolution or releaſe; ſuch as the excluſion of

a child, the ſolution of a diſeaſe, or untying of a bandage.

APOMATHEMA, (απομαθημα, from απο, priv. and μανθανω, to learn). Hippocrates expreſſes by it, a forgetfulneſs of all that hath been learnt.

APOMELI, απομελι. It is ſimple oxymel.

APONENŒMENOS, απονενοημενως. An adverb importing an utter averſion to any thing.

APOPALLESIS, or *Apopalſis*, (αποπαλλησις, αποπαλσις, from αποπαλλω, to throw off in a haſty manner). An expulſion of the fœtus, as in abortion.

APOPHLEGMATISMUS, (αποφλεγματισμος, of απο, from, and φλεγμα, phlegm). A medicine which, by holding it in the mouth, promotes a diſcharge of phlegm, ſuch as pellitory root, horſe radiſh, &c. When ſolid, it is called *Maſticatorium*.

APOPHRADES, (αποφραδες, from the ſingular αποφρας, unfortunate). Thoſe days in which an acute diſtemper comes to a fatal criſis, or no criſis at all.

APOPTHARMA, αποφθαρμα. A medicine to procure abortion.

APOPHYAS, (αποφυας, of απο, from, and φυω, to grow). An appendix. Any thing that grows to or proceeds from another.

APOPLECTA. A name for the internal jugular vein which aſcends by the ſide of the *Aſpera arteria*.

APOPLECTICA. Medicines againſt the apoplexy. Vogel ſays it is a continued fever coming on upon an apoplexy.

APOPLECTICÆ. Thus Bartholine calls the internal jugular veins, from an opinion of their being particularly concerned in the diſeaſe called *Apoplexy*.

APOPSYCHIA, αποψυχια. The greateſt degree of fainting.

APOREXIS. A play with balls, in the gymnaſtic exerciſes.

APORHŒA, αποῤῥοια. Contagion, efflurium.

APORRHOES, (from απορρεω, *defluo*, to flow from). It ſignifies ſulphureous vapours and exhalations from the earth, and ſubterraneous bodies, as alſo any kind of infectious ſteams.

APOSCEPARNISMUS, (αποσκεπαρνισμος, from απο, from, and σκεπαρνιζω, to ſtrike with a hatchet). A ſpecies of fracture; and is when part of a bone is chipped off.

APOSCHASIS, αποσχασις. A ſcarification; a ſlight ſuperficial inciſion of the ſkin.

APOSCHASMUS, αποσχασμος, i. e. *Apoſchaſis*.

APOSITIA, αποσιτια. A loathing of food.

APOSITOI, αποσιτοι. Thoſe who are averſe to food.

APOSPHACELISIS, (αποσφακελισις, from απο, from, and σφακελος, a *ſphacelus*). A mortification of the fleſh in wounds or fractures, cauſed by too tight bandage.

APOSTAGMA, αποσταγμα. The ſweet liquor that diſtils from grapes before they are preſſed.

APOSTALAGMA, αποσταλαγμα, i. e. *Apoſtagma*.

APOSTASIS, (αποστασις, from αφιστημι, to abſcede). It is when a fragment of bone comes away by a fracture. Hippocrates uſes the word alſo, firſt, when a diſtemper paſſes off by ſome outlet, and this is an *apoſtaſis* by exertion: ſecondly, when the morbific matter, by its own weight, falls and ſettles on every part, this is an *apoſtaſis* by ſettlement: thirdly, when one diſeaſe turns to another this is an *apoſtaſis metaſtaſis*. So Pliny calls the *Apoſtema*.

APOSTAXIS, αποσταξις. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs a diſtillation of blood from the noſe. It means any diſtillation or defluxion of humours.

APOSTEMATIAI. So Aretæus

calls those who, from an inward abscess, void pus downwards.

Apostrophe, (αποστροφη, from αποστρεφω, to turn away). Thus P. Ægineta expresses an aversion to food.

Aposyrma, αποσυρμα. Abrasion and laceration of the cutis.

Apotheca, (αποθηκη, from αποτιθημι, to lay aside, or reposit). It formerly signified a wine-cellar, but now a shop where medicines ar sold

Apotherapia, αποθεραπεια. A perfect cure; also a particular sort of exercise used for health.

Apothurapeutica. That part of medicine which teaches concerning the *Apotherapia*.

Apothesis, (αποθεσις, from απο, and τιθημι, to place). The reduction of a dislocated bone.

Apothlimma, αποθλιμμα. The dregs of the expressed juice of a plant.

Apotropœa, *Apotropaia*. A kind of *Amulets*.

Apozymos, (αποζυμος, from ζυμη, a ferment). Fermented.

Appensio. The suspension of a broken arm in a scarf.

Apprehensio. A name of the *Catalepsy*.

Aproˆnia. Black briony.

Apsychia, αψυχια. *Lipothymia*.

Aptystos, (απτυστος, from α priv. and πτυω, to spit). An epithet for disorders in which spitting, though an unusual symptom, is yet wanting, as in what is called a dry asthma, a dry pleurisy, &c.

Apuloticus. The same as *Epulotic*.

Apyetos, (from α priv. and πυον, pus). An epithet for a tumor, that will not suppurate.

Apyromele, απυρομηλη. A probe without a button.

Apyron, (απυρον, from α priv. and πυρ, fire). A name of *Sulphur vivum*; also of the *Æthiops mineralis*, when prepared without fire.

Apyrothium. A name of *Sulphur vivum*.

Apyroti. A name of the stone called a carbuncle, from its being without heat, although it appears very fiery.

Aqueola. So Sennertus calls that species of stye on the eye-lid, which Sauvage terms *Hordeolum hydatidosum*.

Aquila alba. A name for the *Mercurius dulcis*; for *Sal ammoniac*, &c.

Aquila celestis. It is the panacea, or cure for all diseases. It is prepared of mercury essentificated.

Aquila nigra. It is the spirit of cobalt.

Aquilă veneris. A preparation made with verdigris and sublimed sal ammoniac.

Aquilæ, The veins were so called which pass through the temples into the head.

Aquilena. Lark-spur.

Aquula. A disorder of the eye-lid is thus named by P. Ægineta. He says it is a pinguious substance under the skin of the eye-lid. To cure it, an incision is to be made through the skin, and the cyst is to be dissected out.

Aracos. Brass.

Aracus. The wild vetch.

Aracus aromaticus. The *Vanilla*.

Arados, αραδος. Hippocrates means by it, the perturbation excited in the stomach by digesting the aliment there. It also signifies any perturbation in the body.

Araeon. Thin, rare, slow. It is applied to breathing, as when we say, the breathing is not frequent, nor thick.

Areotica, αραιοτικα. Things or medicines which rarefy or attenuate.

Aralda. A name of the herb called *Fox-glove*.

Aralia humilis. *Genseng*.

ARANEOSA URINA. Urine in which is ſomething like ſpider-webs, with a fatneſs at the top. It indicates a colliquation.

ARATICU APE. The cuſtard-apple.

ARBOR TRISTIS. Sorrowful tree, a ſpecies of *Nyctanthes*.

ARCANNE. Red chalk or ruddle.

ARCHÆUS, (from αρχαιος, ſignifying ancient). As applied in medicine, denotes the ancient practice concerning which in his time Hippocrates wrote a whole treatiſe. And ſometimes it is uſed in that natural ſtate which preceded any diſeaſe. This by ſome likewiſe is uſed for

ARCHEUS. A Term much uſed by Helmont to expreſs an internal efficient cauſe of all things; which ſeems no other than the *Anima Mundi* of his predeceſſors; and as he applies it to particular animated beings, it differs not from the δυναμις, or *Vis plaſtica* of the old philoſophers.

ARCHE, αρχη. The firſt attack of a diſeaſe, its firſt ſtage; that time of the diſorder in which the patient firſt takes to his bed, or in which help might be effectual.

ARCHEOSTIS. White-briony.

ARCHIDOXIS. Is a title given to a book of chemiſtry, wrote by Paracelſus, and which Libavius in *Exam. Phil. Novæ*, ſays, looks more like magic than knowledge: but thoſe who underſtand it, tell us it contains ſome very remarkable ſecrets; and is highly prized by the adepts.

ARCHIGENI MORBI. Acute diſeaſes; ſo called from αρχη, the chief, and γινομαι, to be, becauſe they hold the chief rank amongſt diſeaſes.

ARCHIMAGIA. A name for chemiſtry, becauſe by it gold is attempted to be made.

ARCHIMA. The art of changing imperfect into perfect metals.

ARCHOPTOMA. Bearing down of the *Rectum*.

ARCHOS. The *Anus*, alſo the *Inteſtinum Rectum*.

ARCOS. Burnt copper.

ARCTATIO. It is when the inteſtines are conſtipated, from an inflammation. Alſo a preternatural ſtraightneſs of the *Pudendum Muliebre*.

ARCTOSCORDON. Bear garlic.

ARCTOSTAPHYLUS. A ſpecies of *Vaccinium*.

ARCTURUS. Cretan vervain, a ſpecies of *Verbaſcum*.

ARCUALIA OSSA. The ſinciput. Some ſay, the temple bones.

ARCUALIS SUTURA. *Sutura Coronalis*.

ARCUATIO. A gibboſity of the fore parts, with a curvation of the bone of the *Sternum*.

ARCUATUS MORBUS. The jaundice.

ARCULÆ. The caverns in which the eyes are lodged.

ARDABAR. A ſpecies of arum.

ARDUINI. A ſpecies of *Teucrium*.

ARE-ALU. A ſpecies of fig-tree.

AREMAROS. Cinnabar.

ARENAMEN. Bole armeniac.

ARENARMEI. *Arenamen*. Bole armeniac.

ARENATIO. It is the caſting of hot ſand on the bodies of patients.

ARENTES. A ſort of cupping glaſſes uſed by the ancients.

ARES. A word of Paracelſus's, by which he would expreſs that power of nature in the whole material world, by which ſpecies are diſtributed into individuals.

ARSAR. Arſenic.

ARGAL. Tartar.

ARGEMA, or *Argemon*, (αργεμα, from αργος, white). A diſorder of the eye, called *Albugo*. Vogel defines it, an ulceration of the *cornea*.

ARGURIA. A ſpecies of *Meſſerſchmidia*.

ARGYRITIS. Litharge.

ARGYRITIS TERRA. A ſort of earth taken out of ſilver mines, beſpangled with many particles of ſilver.

ARGYRODAMAS. A kind of talc, of the colour of ſilver, that will not yield to the force of fire.

ARGYROLITHOS. A ſort of talc, ſo called from its ſilver colour.

ARHEUMATISTOS. An epithet given to the external parts, particularly the joints, while free from gouty rheums.

ARIDURA. Waſting or leanneſs, ſuch as appears in hectic or in conſumptive habits: or, according to ſome, the withering of a limb, or of any particular part.

ARIMASPES. A name of the ancient people of Scythia, who are fabulouſly ſaid to have had but one eye. In the Scythian language, *Ari* ſignifies alone, and *Maſpe*, the eye. This word is alſo ſynonymous with *Monopia*.

ARISTIONIS MACHINAMENTUM. A machine for reſtoring luxations, invented by Ariſton.

ARMALGAL. Coral.

ARME, αρμη. A coalition of wounds, alſo the joining of the futures of the head.

ARNABO. Zedoary.

ARÆIRA. A ſpecies of lentiſk.

AROHOT. Mercury.

AROMA, αρωμα. It ſeems to be compounded of αρ and αρι, an intenſive particle, and οζω, to ſmell any thing fragrant or odorous: ſometimes it is taken for myrrh.

AROMA PHILOSOPHORUM. Saffron; alſo the ſaffron coloured flowers raiſed from *Lapis hæmatitis*.

ARONIA. The Neapolitan medlar.

AROAH. A contraction of *Aroma Philoſophorum*, a name given to ſaffron. Alſo a name which Paracelſus gave to the flowers raiſed by ſublimation from *Lap. Hæmatitis*.

ARQUATUS MORBUS. The jaundice.

ARRAPHON. Without future. The word is applied to the *Cranium*, when naturally without futures.

ARRHÆA, αρροια. The ſtoppage of a flux: and by Hippocrates appropriated to the ſuppreſſion of the menſes.

ARRHOSTIA, αρρωστια. Infirmity, ill-health.

ARSAG. Arſenic.

ARSALTOS. *Aſphaltos*.

ARSANECK. Arſenic ſublimed.

ARTERIACA, αρτηριακα. Medicines againſt diſorders of the voice.

ARTETISCUS, One who ſuffers the loſs of a limb, or who hath a very defective one.

ARTHOICUM, (from αρτος, bread). An oil formerly made by digeſting ſeveral roots with bread.

ARTHREMBOLUS, (from αρθρον, a joint, and εμβαλλω, to impel). An inſtrument for reducing luxated bones.

ARTHROCACE. An ulcer in the cavity of a bone, with caries. Dr. Cullen makes it a ſynonym with *Spina ventoſa*.

ARTIA. According to ſome it is the ſame as *Arteria*; others ſay it is only the *Aſperia Arteria*.

ARTISCUS, (from αρτος, bread). Troches are thus called becauſe formed like a loaf.

ARTIPOCHROS COLOR. A paliſh yellow colour which attends a diſorder of the ſpleen.

ARYTMUS, (αρυθμος, from α priv. and ρυθμος, a modulation or modification of time and ſound in muſic). Galen applies it to the pulſe not modulating according to nature. It is oppoſed to *Eurythmus*. The pulſe *Arythmus* is, 1. If it tranſgreſſes into a modulation proper to the next age, it is *pulſus pararythmus*. 2. If it changes to a pulſe proper for any other age it is called *pulſus hetero-*

rythmus. 3. If it passes into a modulation proper to no age, it is then a *pulsus ecrythmus*.

Asa. Healer.

Asa dulcis. The sweat healer; the gum Benjamin, and its tree.

Asa odorata. Gum Benjamin, and its tree.

Asaba hermes, hermodactyls, or the flowers of the *Surengiam*.

Asabon. Soap.

Asagar. Verdigris.

Asagen. Dragon's blood.

Asagi. Vitriol or calcined vitriol.

Asamar. Verdigris.

Asamaz. Vitriol.

Asanon. Prepared sal ammoniac.

Asapheis, (ασαφεις, from α priv. and σαφης, clear). Such patients as do not utter their words distinctly are thus named.

Asaphia, ασαφεια. It is the *Paraphonia Palatina* of Cullen. It is an indistinct utterance, as if the tongue was muffled; a confusedness of voice. This word sometimes expresses a dubious kind of delirium, or a state which is difficult to call delirious, and yet not clearly free from delirium.

Asarcon. Void of flesh.

Ascardamyctes, ασκαρδαμυκτης. One who keeps his eyes long fixed and immoveable without twinkling.

Ascia. The simple bandage is so called when the rounds ascend or descend upon each other in the form of a screw: the French call it *doloires*.

Ascoma, (from ασκος, a bottle). The eminence of the pubes at the years of maturity.

Ascyron. Canadian spreading hatsan, a species of *Hypericum*.

Asdenigi. The blood stone.

Ase, αση. Hippocrates means by his word, a loathing of food from a influx of humours in the stomach.

Asef. Alum.

Asedenigi. The blood stone.

Asef. *Hydroa*.

Asegen. Dragon's blood.

Asemos, (ασημος, from α priv. and σημειον, a sign). An epithet applied to events that fall out contrary to all appearance, without any manifest cause: a crisis happening beyond hope.

Aseph. Plumous alum.

Asepta, (ασηπτα, from α priv. and σηπω, to putrefy). Unputrefied; but Hippocrates used this word to signify unconcocted or undigested.

Asigi, *Asingar*. Verdigris.

Asiti, or *Asitia*, ασιτια. Those who take no food for want of appetite.

Asoper. Soot.

Aspadialis. A suppression of the urine from the urethra being imperforated.

Aspasia. A medicine formerly used to constringe the vagina; it consisted of wool moistened with an infusion of galls.

Asperatum specillum. The rasp-like probe; the same as *Blepharoxystum*.

Aspermatismus. *Dyspermatismus*.

Aspersio. A sprinkling. Medicines administered this way, were called by the Greeks *Sympasmata*, and by the Latins *Aspergines*.

Aspidion, a diminutive of ασπις, a buckler. A name of the *Alysson* of Dioscorides, because it hath small round pods resembling a buckler.

Aspidiscos, (from ασπις, a buckler). By metaphor it was applied to the sphincter muscle of the anus, as we are informed by Cœlius Aurelianus.

Assac. *Gum Ammoniacum*.

Assada. A nutmeg.

Asservatio. In pharmacy it is the same as *Conversatio*, or the repositing things ready for use.

Assidentia signa. Are such

ſymptoms, according to Galen, as are ſometimes preſent to a diſeaſe, but not always ſo, which latter are called *Pathognomonic*.

ASSIDUUS. Some uſe this word inſtead of *continuus*, to ſay *aſſidua febris*, inſtead of *continua febris*.

ASSODES. An ardent kind of tertian fever, attended with great inquietudes, nauſeas, vomitings, thirſt, and raving: the outward parts are moderately warm, but inwardly there is great heat.

ASSOS. Alum.

ATACHILOS. So Paracelſus names a malignant gangrenous ulcer, which ſpreads from the feet upwards. Some call it *Araneus*.

ASTER PERUANUS. Potatoes.

ASTERICOIDES. A ſpecies of *Oſmites*.

ASTEROCEPHALUS. *Scabioſa*.

ASTRAPE, αστραπη. Lightning. Galen reckons it among the procatarctic cauſes of an epilepſy; and it is doubtleſs a cauſe of diſeaſe in leſſer degrees of its influence, as well as of death in its greater.

ASTRICTA. When applied to the belly, it ſignifies coſtiveneſs.

ASTRICTORIA. Aſtringents.

ASTROBLES, (αστροβλης, from αστρον, a ſtar, and βαλλω, to ſtrike). Blaſted or planet ſtruck. When applied to human bodies, it ſignifies apoplectic, or ſphacelated.

ASTROCYNOLOGIA, (from αστρον, a ſtar, κυων, a dog, and λογος, a diſſertation). The name of a treatiſe on the dog-days.

ASUGAR. Verdigris.

ASULCI. The *Lapis Lazuli*.

ASUOLI. Soot.

ATAC. Talc or nitre.

ATEBRAS. A ſubliming veſſel.

ATECHNIA, (ατεχνια, from α priv. and τεχνη, an art). Want of art. When this word is uſed as expreſſive of diſeaſe; it is ſynonimous with *Anaphrodiſia*,

ATER SUCCUS. *Atrabilis*.

ATERAMNIA, ατεραμνια. This word occurs in Hippocrates De Aere Locis & Aquis, and is expounded by Galen as ſignifying difficulty of concoction and hard. He obſerves that the ancients called bad waters thus, and that, as joined with other words, it hath other ſignifications.

ATHANASIA, αθανασια. Signifying immortal, hath been a term affectedly given to ſome medicines to expreſs their extraordinary efficacy, as the *Athanaſia magna* of Nicolaus, &c.

ATHANASIA, (αθανασια, from α priv. and θανατος, death). Immortality. It is a name of ſeveral ancient compoſitions; as antidotes, collyriums, &c. Alſo of the herb tanſy, becauſe when ſtuffed up the noſtrils of a dead corpſe, it is ſaid to prevent putrefaction.

ATHANOR. Is a digeſting furnace, contrived to keep a conſtant heat for ſome time together, ſo that it may be augmented or diminiſhed at pleaſure, by opening or ſhutting ſome apertures made on purpoſe with ſliders over them, called regiſters.

ATHERA, αθηρα. A ſort of food made with wheat flour, like the pap-meat which is given to children. Pliny ſays it is an Egyptian invention.

ATHROOS, or *Athroon*, αθροον. In medicinal authors it imports copious, accumulated, or ſudden; and is the reverſe of by degrees.

ATHYMIA, (αθυμια, from α priv. and θυμος, courage). Puſillanimity. In medicinal authors it uſually ſignifies that dejectedneſs, deſpondency, anxiety, and deſpair, which often occurs in diſtempers. Some uſe this word as ſynonimous with *Melancholia*.

ATINCAR, *Atinkar*. Borax.

ATOCHIA. Preternatural labour.

ATOCIUM. A name of the *Lychnis ſylveſtris*.

ATOLLI. A ſort of pap made o

the meal of maize and water, which the Indians mix with their chocolate.

ATRABILARIOUS HUMOUR, may very well be underſtood of the thick part of the blood deprived of its due proportion of ſerum, or finer and more volatile parts, whereby it is rendered groſs, black, unctuous, and earthy. The ſame may not improperly be called by the name of *Succus Melancholicus*, which we meet with in ſome authors. See *Atra Bilis*.

ATRA BILIS. Black bile, or melancholy. According to the ancients, it hath a two-fold origin. 1. From the groſſer parts of the blood, and this they called the melancholy humour. 2. From yellow bile being highly concocted. Dr. Percival, in his Eſſays, Med. and Exp. ſuggeſts, that it is the gall rendered acrid, by ſtagnation in the gall-bladder, and rendered viſcid by the abſorption of its fluid parts.

ATRACHELUS, (ατραχηλος, from α priv. and τραχηλος, the neck). Short-necked.

ATRAMENTUM SUTORIUM. A name of the green vitriol, of the *Chalcanthum* and *Melanteria*.

ATRESIA, (from α priv. and τιτραω, to perforate). Imperforation.

ATRETARUM. A ſuppreſſion of urine from the menſes being retained in the vagina.

ATRETI, (ατρητοι, from α priv. τρητος, perforate). Thoſe of either ſex are thus called, when their anus, or other natural aperture, is cloſed.

ATRICES. Small tubercles about the anus, which recede and return again, eſpecially at the firſt.

ATRICI. Small ſinuſes in the inteſtinum rectum, which do not reach ſo far as to perforate into its cavity.

ATTA. Feſtus ſays it is one who by reaſon of the tenderneſs or other defect in his feet, touches the ground rather than treads on it.

ATTINCAR VENERIS. The whitening of copper to tranſmute it into ſilver.

ATTONITUS MORBUS. A name of the *Apoplexy*, and of the *Epilepſy*.

ATTONITUS STUPOR. *Apoplexy*.

ATTRACTIVUS, *Attractorius*, *Attrahens*. Remedies that have a power of attracting.

ATTRITA. Galls from attrition, or rubbing one part againſt another.

ATYPOS, (ατυπος, from α priv. and τυπος, a form or tenor.) Irregular. It is applied to diſeaſes which have no regularity in their periods. Alſo to deformity in the limbs.

AUANTE, *Auapſe*, αυαντη. The dry diſeaſe. Hippocrates deſcribes it thus: the patient cannot bear either abſtinence or eating. Faſting cauſes flatulence and pain in the ſtomach. He vomits up various matters, and after vomiting he is eaſy. After eating there are eructations, an inflammatory heat and redneſs; a teneſmus, and great diſcharge of wind: head-ach; a ſenſe of pricking in different parts of the body; the legs grow feeble and ſmall, and become weak. In order to a cure, Hippocrates directed a purge, and then an emetic; afterwards abſtinence from fat food, temperance, bathing, unctions, and moderate exerciſe.

AUCHMOS, (αυχμος, from αυω, to dry). The Latins call it *ſqualor*. It is hot, dry, ſultry weather.

AUDACIA. In a medical ſenſe is that ſort of boldneſs which we meet with in deliria or madneſs.

AUBLETIA. A ſpecies of *Verbena*.

AULISCOS, αυλισκος. A catheter, or clyſter pipe.

AULOS. The onyx.

AURATOS GERMANORUM. It is an oleo-ſaccharum with the oil of cinnamon.

AUREUS RAMUS. The art of making gold.

AURICHALCUM. The ancients

thus named a compoſition of copper and zinc, which was ſimilar to our braſs and pinchbeck.

– AURICULA LEPORIS. *Bupleurum.*

AURIGA. A name of the fourth lobe of the liver. Alſo a ſort of bandage for the ſides, deſcribed by Galen.

AURIGO. The ſame as *Ictterus.*

AURORA CONSURGENS. A whimſical phraſe by which the alcheniſts expreſs the vegetation of their gold.

AURUM HORIZONTALE. It is an *Oleoſaccharum*, made with the oil of cinnamon.

AURUM LEPROSUM. A name of *Antimony.*

AURUM VEGETABLE. A name given to ſaffron.

AUTHEMERON, (αυθημερον, from αυτος, the ſame, and ημερα, a day). The very ſame day. A medicine is thus called that gives relief on the ſame day it is taken.

AVICULÆ HERMATICÆ. The univerſal ſalt which is ſaid to be found in dew.

AVICULARIA SYLVIA. A name for the greater Venus's looking-glaſs.

AVORNUS. A name of the black alder.

AVRANCUM. Egg-ſhells.

AVRARIC. Mercury.

AXEA COMMISSURA. A ſort of articulation.

AXIRNACH. Superfluous fat, found ſometimes in the upper eyelids of children.

AYBORZAT. Galbanum.

AYCAPHER. Burnt copper.

AYCOPHOS. Burnt braſs.

AZAA. Red marl.

AZAC. An Arabian name for *Gum Ammoniacum.*

AZADIRACHTA. A ſpecies of *Melia.*

AZAGOR. Verdigris.

AZAMAR. Vermillion, or native cinnabar.

AZANE. A drop.

AZAR. A drop.

AZARNET. *Auripigmentum.*

AZEDARACH. The bread tree, a ſpecies of *Melia.*

AZEDEGRIN. *Lapis Hæmatitis.*

AZEFF. Sciſſile alum.

AZEG. Vitriol.

AZEMAFOR. Red lead.

AZEMASOR. Native cinnabar.

AZIMAR. Burnt copper.

AZOB. *Alumen Saccharinum.*

AZOCH. A name given by Paracelſus to the *Mercurius Philoſophorum*, that is, to quickſilver extracted from any metalline body.

AZUM. Boiled butter.

AZOTH, the ſame as *Azoch.* Paracelſus alſo ſignifies by it, the univerſal remedy prepared of the ſun, moon, and mercury. *Azoth* is alſo taken for the liquor of ſublimed mercury or quickſilver mixed with vitriol and ſalt, and ſo ſublimed which is alſo called *Aqua permanens*, *Cryſtalli philoſophorum*, and *Luna phyſica.* *Azoth* is a name for braſs. It ſometimes ſignifies the mercury of any metallic body.

AZRAGAR. Verdigris.

AZUB. Alum.

AZUR. Red coral.

AZURIUM. A chemical preparation deſcribed by Albertus Magnus. It conſiſts of mercury two parts, ſulphur one-third, ſal ammoniac one fourth, mixed in a mortar, ſet in a veſſel over the fire till a bluiſh ſmoke ariſes, it is then to be taken from the fire, the glaſs to be broken, and the contents are to be powdered.

AZUTUM. The Armenian ſtone.

AZYMAR. Native cinnabar.

AZYMOS, (αζυμος, from α priv. and ζυμη, ferment). Unfermented bread, as ſea-biſcuit, which as Galen ſays, is not very wholeſome, except where the digeſtive powers are too ſtrong

B.

BABUZICARIUS (from βαβαζιαρος, from βαβαζω, to speak inarticulately). The incubus or nightmare.

BACANON. Cabbage seed.

BACCAR. A name of the *Bacharis*.

BACCHIA. So Linnæus calls the *Gutta Rosacea*.

BACCHIA. A name of the ivy.

BACCINIA. *Vaccinia*.

BACCULI. Is used by some writers for a particular kind of lozenges shaped into little short rolls. Hillanus likewise uses it for an instrument in surgery.

BACOBA. The *Banana*.

BADATIS. A name of the herb *Clava Herculis*.

BADIZA AQUA. Bath water.

BADUCCA. A species of *Capparis*.

BADUKKA. The *Baducca*.

BÆOS, βαιος. In Hippocrates it means few; but in P. Ægineta, it is an epithet for a poultice.

BÆOTHRYON. A species of *Scirpus*.

BAGNIO. A sweating-house.

BAHEI COYOLLI. Ray takes it to be the *Areca*, or *Faufel*.

BAILLEMENT. Yawning and stretching.

BALANGHAS. A species of *Sterculia*.

BALANNIUM. Oil of the ben nut.

BALANOCASTANUM. The *Bulbocastanum*.

BALANOS. See *Adipsos*.

BALANOS, βαλανος. Properly it is an acorn; but Hippocrates, in his treatise De Affectionibus, expresses by it an oak. Theophrastus uses it sometimes to express any glandiferous tree. From the similitude of form, this word is used to express suppositories and pessaries. It is a name of the glans penis.

BALANUS. The glans or nut of the yard.

BALASIUS. A sort of gem of the carbuncle kind.

BALBUTIES. A defect of speech; properly that sort of stammering, where the patient sometimes hesitates, and immediately after, speaks precipitately. It is the *Pselliſmus Balbutiens*, of Cullen.

BALLIA MUCCA PIRA. The *Momordica*.

BALISTÆ OS. The *Astragalus*; from βαλλω, to cast.

BALNEABILIS. An epithet for such waters as are proper for bathing.

BALSAMELÆON. Balm of Gilead.

BALSAMI OLEUM. Balm of Gilead.

BALSAMINA. A species of *Impatiens*.

BALSAMINA. Male balsam-apple, a species of *Momordica*.

BALSAMITA. Oriental ox-eye daisy; a species of *Chrysanthemum*.

BALUX. A name for the sand of some rivers which is mixed with gold.

BAMBALIO. A man who stammers or lisps.

BAMBAX. Cotton.

BAN ARBOR. The coffee-tree.

BANANIERA. A name of the *Ficus Indica*.

BAPTICA COCCUS. Kermes berries.

BAPTUS. A bituminous soft fossil, of an agreeable smell, mentioned by Agricola.

BARACH PANIS. Rulandus explains it by *Nitrum Salis*.

BARAMETZ. The *Agnus Scythicus*.

BARAS. In M. A. Severinus, it is the same as *Alphus* or *Leuce*.

BARBA ARONIS. *Arum*.

BARBA CAPRÆ. *Ulmaria*.

BARBA HIRCI. *Tragopogon.*

BARBA JOVIS. The ſilver buſh; alſo a name of the *Sempervivum Majus*, and a ſpecies of *Anthyllis.*

BARBARIA. Rhubarb.

BAROMETZ. Chineſe polypody, a ſpecies of *Poypodium.* Alſo a name of the *Agnus Scythicus.*

BARONES. Small worms, called alſo *Nepones.*

BAROS, Βαρος. Gravity. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs by it an uneaſy weight in any part.

BAROS. An Indian name for that ſpecies of camphor which is diſtilled from the roots of the true cinnamon-tree.

BARRELIRI. American red oxalis; a ſpecies of *xalis.*

BARRELIERI. Spaniſh rocket; a ſpecies of *Siſymbrium.*

BASILICON, Βασιλικον. Thus an ointment is named, from Βασιλικος, royal, the royal ointment, or from Βασιλευς,, a king, derived from Βασις, a foundation, and λαος, the people. It was ſo called from its ſuppoſed kingly virtues. Meſue is ſuppoſed to be the inventor, but long before him Aëtius deſcribed it in his Tetrabib. iv. Serm. iii. cap. xxi.

BATCIA. A name of the *Paſtinaca Sylveſtris.*

BATHMIS, Βαθμις. A ſeat, baſis, or foundation, from Βαινω, to enter. Hippocrates and Galen uſe it to expreſs a ſinus or cavity of a bone which receives the protuberance of another at the joints, particularly thoſe at the articulation of the *Humerus* and *Ulna.*

BATHRON, Βαθρον, or *Bathrum*, a ſeat, or ſupport. It is alſo the *Scamnum* of Hippocrates, that is an inſtrument invented for the extenſion of fractured limbs. Oribaſius and Scultetus both deſcribe it.

BATHYPICRON. A name of the *Abſinthium Latifolium.*

BATHYS, Βαθυς. A ſort of cheeſe formerly uſed in Rome.

BATIA. A retort.

BATICULÆ. The greater *Samphire.*

BATINON MORON. The raſpberry.

BATRACHIOIDES. A ſort of Geranium.

BATRACHITES, Βατραχιτης. Toad-ſtones.

BATRACHIUM. Crow-foot, crane's bill.

BATRACAUS, (Βατραχος, a frog). An inflammatory tumor which ariſes under the tongue, eſpecially of children. Aetius ſays it is a tumor under the tongue, eſpecially in the veins. See *Ranula.*

BATTARISMUS. Stammering with heſitation, or difficulty to begin a word.

BATTISECULA. The leſſer blue-bottle.

BATTITURA. The ſquamous ſcales of metals which fly off whilſt under the hammer.

BAUDA. A veſſel of diſtillation is thus named.

BAURAC. A name for the mineral fixed alkaline ſalt. It is the Arabic name for nitre, or for any ſalt; and hence it is, that borax took its name, which is alſo thus called.

BAZCHER. A Perſian name for antidote.

BDELLA. A horſe-leech. Dioſcorides uſes this word to expreſs a varicoſe vein.

BDELLERUM. A horſe-leech.

BECHICA, (Βηχικα, from Βηξ, a cough, or from Βηττω, to cough). Any medicine deſigned to relieve a cough. It is of the ſame import as the word *pectoral.*

BECHION, or *Bechium. Tuſſilago.*

BECHITA. Expectorating medicines.

BEESHA. A ſpecies of *Bambu.*

BEGMA, (Βηγμα, from Βηξ, a cough). Hippocrates means by this word, both a cough, and the ſpit brought up with it.

BEHEM, or *Bebemen.* Theſe words

are erroneouſly put for the *Balanus Myrepſica*. The glans unguentaria, is the Arabian *Ben*.

BEJUIO. The bean of Carthagena.

BELEMNOIDES, (from βελεμνον, a dart, and ειδος, ſhape). A name for the *Proceſſus Styloides*. It is alſo a name of the proceſs at the lower end of the ulna.

BELLIDIASTRUM. A ſpecies of *Doronicum*; alſo a ſpecies of *Oſmites*.

BELMUSCUS. *Abelmoſch*.

BELULCUM, (βελελκοι, from βελος, an arrow or a dart, and ελκω, to draw). An inſtrument for extracting darts and arrows.

BELUZAAR. The Chaldee word for antidote.

BELZOE. Gum benjamin, and its tree.

BELZOINUM. Gum benjamin and its tree.

BEM-TAMARA. The Egyptian bean.

BENATH. The Arabic name for ſmall puſtules which riſe in the night after ſweating.

BENEDICTA AQUA. Formerly the *Aq. Calcis Sim.* was thus named. Alſo a water diſtilled from *Serpyllum*.

BENECICTUM VINUM. *Vinum Antimoniale*.

BENEDICTUS LAPIS. A name for the philoſopher's ſtone.

BENEOLENTIA. Sweet ſmelling medicines.

BENGI-EIRI. A ſpecies of evergreen Indian *Ricinus*, which grows in Malabar.

BENIVI ARBOR. *Benivifera*. The benjamin tree.

BENJUI. The benjamin tree.

BERENICE. Amber.

BERENICIUM, βερενικιον. A ſpecies of nitre mentioned by Galen.

BERIBERIA. Dr. Aitken uſes this word as ſynonymous with *Contractura*. Linnæus defines it as being a tumor of the limbs and body, with contracted knees, attended with ſtupor and hoarſeneſs.

BERIBERI. It ſeems to be the ſame with *Beriberia*. Bontius ſays it is a ſpecies of palſy, common in ſome parts of the Eaſt Indies. The name in the language of the country ſignifies a ſheep. In this diſeaſe the patients lift up their legs very much in the ſame manner as is uſual with ſheep. Bontius adds, that this palſy is a kind of trembling, in which there is deprivation of the motion and ſenſation of the hands and feet, and ſometimes of the body.

BERRIONIS. Colophony, gum juniper, or vernice.

BERULA. Brooklime.

BES. An eight ounce meaſure.

BESACHAR. A fungus or ſponge.

BESASA. Wild rue.

BESENNA. Rulandus explains it by *Muſcarum Fungus*. Probably he means a ſponge, which is the nidus of ſome ſorts of flies.

BESSANEN. In Avicenna it is a redneſs of the external parts, reſembling that which precedes the leproſy; it occupies the face and extremities. Dr. James thinks it is what we call chilblains.

BESTO. A name in Oribaſius for *Saxifrage*.

BETLE. Indian betle. A ſpecies of *Piper*.

BEX, βηξ. A cough.

BEXUGO. The root of the *Æmatitis Peruviana* of C. B. one dram of which is ſufficient for a purge.

BEX-GUILLO. The Peruvian ipecacuanha.

BEZAHAN. The foſſile bezoar.

BEZOARDICUM JOVIALE. *Bezoar* with tin. It differs very little from the *Antihecticum Poterii*. It is a mere calx.

BICHICHIF. An epithet of certain pectorals, or rather troches, deſcribed by Rhazes, which were made of liquorice, &c.

BICHOS. A Portugueſe name for the worms which get under the toe

of the people in the Indies, which are deſtroyed by the oil of the caſhew-nut.

BIHAI. A ſpecies of *Muſa*.

BILADEN. Iron or ſteel.

BINOCULUS. A bandage for both the eyes is thus named.

BINSICA. A Rabinical term, ſignifying a diſordered imagination.

BIOLYCHNIUM, (βιολυχνιον from βιος, *vita*, life, and λυχνιον, *lumen*, light). Is a term much uſed by ſome writers to ſignify the ſame as *Vital Flame*; but, it is too figurative an expreſſion to convey any clear and determinate idea.

BIOS, βιος. Life, and its courſe. But ſometimes it only means victuals.

BIOTE, βιοτη. Life. In an affected ſenſe it ſignifies the time of continuance of aliment in the body thus weak food hath a ſhort life annexed.

BIOTHANATI, βιοθανατοι. A term applied to thoſe who die a violent death.

BIPULA. A ſort of worm mentioned by Ariſtotle.

BIRAO. The true *Amomum*.

BIRSEN. An Arabian or Perſian word, ſignifying an inflammation, or an abſceſs in the breaſt.

BISEMATUM. The lighteſt, baſeſt, and paleſt lead.

BLACCIÆ. A name which Rhazes gives to the meaſles.

BLÆSITAS. Stammering or liſping.

BLÆSUS, Βλαισος. A Greek primitive, the ſame as *Valgus*, a bandy-legged perſon, or, one whoſe legs are bent outwards; one whoſe backbone is bended either forward or backward; alſo, a paralytic perſon, and one who hath an impediment in his ſpeech.

BLANCNON. A name in Oribaſius for fern.

BLAPTISECULA, (from βλαπτω, to hurt, and *ſeco*, to cut). A name for the *Cyanus*; becauſe it injures the mowers' ſcythes.

BLASTEMA, (βλαστημα, from βλαστανω, *to germinate*, a bud, or offſet, or ſhoot of a plant: but Hippocrates expreſſes by it it a cutaneous eruption or pimple.

BLATTA BYZANTIA, βλαττιον βυζαντιοι, or *Byzantina*, called alſo *Unguis odoratus*, and Conſtantinople ſweet hoof. The purple fiſh, the welk, and other fiſhes of the ſame kind, i. e. that have wreathed ſhells, have alſo operculæ or lids. Theſe lids are of various ſhapes, and different ſubſtances: the matter of ſome of them reſembles ſhells, others are like leather, and a third kind are horny. The horny and leathery kinds have a greaſineſs or unctuoſity, which, when they are burnt, exhales a ſtrong ſmell, ſometimes agreeable, but moſt generally very fetid. The *Blatta Byzantia*, or *Unguis Aromaticus* vel *Odoratus* of the ancients, was of the leathery or horny kind. It was called *Unguis* from its likeneſs to a man's nail in its ſhape and colour.

BLATTARIOIDES. A ſpecies of *Hieracium*.

BLATTI. The wild Malabar plum-tree.

BLECHNON. The leſſer branched fern.

BLECHUM. A ſpecies of *Ruellia*.

BLENNA, βλεννα or *Blena*, a thick phlegm deſcending from the brain, through the noſtrils; which ſhews a beginning recovery.

BLEPHARIDES, (from βλεφαρον, an eye-lid). The hairs on the edges of the eye-lids; alſo that part of the eye-lids themſelves on which the hairs grow.

BLEPHAROXYSTON, βλεφαροξυστον. So Paulus Ægineta calls the *Specillum Aſperatum*, from βλεφαρον, an eye-lid, and ξεω, to ſcrape off.

BLESTRISMUS, βλησμος. A reſtleſs toſſing of the body, as happens under various diſeaſes.

BLETA. An epithet for milky

irine, proceeding from diſeaſed kid-neys.

Bleti, *βλητοι*. Struck. So thoſe were called who were ſuddenly ſeiz-ed with a ſuffocation or difficulty of breathing.

Blincta. Red earth.

Bochetum. A ſecondary de-coction of lignum vitæ, and of other ſuch like woods.

Bocia. A glaſs veſſel with a round belly, and a long neck. It is uſed by the chemiſts. It is alſo cal-led *Ovum Sublimatorium*, *Urinale*, and *Cucurbita*.

Bocium. *Bronchocele*.

Boethema. A remedy.

Boethematica semeia. Auxiliary ſigns in diſeaſes; ſuch as give notice of a cure obſervable in them.

Bolchon. *Bdellium*.

Bolesis. Coral.

Boleson. Balſam.

Bolismus. Avicenna hath this word inſtead of *Bulimus*.

Bolu fabrilis. Red chalk.

Bolus judaicus. A name for the Marſhmallow.

Bombast. Cotton.

Bon arbor. The coffee-tree.

Bona. The kidney-bean.

Bona nox. A ſpecies of *Ipo-mœa*.

Bonarota. A ſpecies of *Pæde-rota*.

Bonduc. A ſpecies of *Guilan-dina*.

Bonduch indorum, *Bonduch cinerea*. Molucca nuts, and bezoar nuts.

Boona. The kidney-bean.

Borace. Borax.

Borassus. The tender medul-ly ſubſtance which grows at the top of the great palm-tree.

Borborodes, *βορβόρωδες*. Fecu-lent, muddy, dirty, or earthy.

Boridia. A ſort of ſalt meat, prepared of a kind of fiſh, which is eaten raw. Oribaſius takes notice of

Borozail. The Ethiopian name for the venereal diſeaſe. It is a name for the *Zail* of the Ethiopians, which is a diſeaſe epidemic about the river Senegal. It principally infeſts the pudenda, but, is different from the lues venerea, though it owes its riſe to immoderate venery. In the men it is alſo called *Aſab*; in the women *Oſſa batus*.

Borros, *βορος*. Voracious. A voracious water, or ſuch a one as be-gets a good appetite.

Bosa. An Egyptian word for a maſs which is made of the meal of darnel, hemp-ſeed, and water. It is inebriating.

Boscas. A ſort of dry pitch that is tenacious like bird-lime.

Bosci salvia. A kind of ſage, which takes its name from *boſcum*, or *boſcus*, a wood, the place where it grows.

Botamum. Waſhed-lead.

Bothor. It hath three ſignifi-cations among the Arabians. 1. Tu-mors in general. 2. A tumor with a ſolution of continuity. And, 3. Small tumors, which laſt is the moſt proper. Some take it for an abſceſs of the noſtrils. Blancard ſays it ſig-nifies pimples in the face, which do not ſpread, but are eaſily ſuppu-rated, and vaniſh. It is, beſides, a general appellation for pimples in the face, lungs, or other parts; and the Arabians call the ſmall-pox and meaſles by this name.

Bothrion. A ſmall ditch, from *βοθρος*, a ditch. This word is alſo uſed to expreſs a ſmall ulcer in the pupil of the eye, or tunica cornea. Alſo the ſockets of the teeth.

Botin. Turpentine. Alſo a bal-ſam from it.

BototHinum. A term uſed by Paracelſus, by which he would ex-preſs the flower of a diſeaſe.

Botou, *Botua*. The *Pareira Brava*.

Botryites, (*βοτρυιτης*, from *βοτρυς* a cluſter, properly of grapes). Iti

a ſort of burnt cadmia, reſembling a cluſter of grapes, and, collected from the upper part of the furnace, where it is burnt; as what is collected in the lower part is called *Placitis*. Schroder ſays, that the *botryites* is collected in the middle part of the furnace the *placitis* in the upper, and the *oſtracitis* in the loweſt.

BOUBALIOS. A wild cucumber. Some explain it to be the *Pudendum Muliebere*.

BOVILLÆ. The meaſles.

BOZA. The name of a drink much uſed in Turkey.

BRABE. An herb mentioned by Oribaſius.

BRABYLA. The plums which are called Damaſcene and Hungarian. They are large, ſweet, and of a blue colour.

BRACHERIUM. A bandage and truſs for a hernia. A word uſed by the barbarous Latin writers, probably from *brachiale*, a bracelet.

BRACHIA. The diviſion of the large branches of trees from the trunk.

BRACHYCHRONIUS (βραχυχρονιος, from βραχυς, ſhort, and χρονος time). An epithet of a diſeaſe, which continues but a ſhort time.

BRACHYPNÆA, (βραχυπνοια, from βραχυς, ſhort, and πνεω, to breathe). Breath fetched ſhort, but at long intervals.

BRACHYPOTÆ, (βραχυποται, from βραχυς, ſhort, or ſmall, and ποτος, drink). Little drinkers.

BRADYPEPSIA, βραδυπεψια. Weak concoction of food. Or when digeſtion in the ſtomach is performed ſlowly and with difficulty.

BRAGGAT. A drink made of water and honey.

BRASILETTO. Logwood.

BRASIUM. Barley-malt.

BRASMA. Bauhine ſays it is the immature black pepper, or rather, ſuch as from ſome accident is hindered from ripening.

BRASMOS. Fermentation.

BRASSIDELLICA ARS. A way of curing wounds, mentioned by Paracelſus, by applying the herb *Braſſidella* to them.

BRATHU. The herb ſavine.

BREYNIA. A ſpecies of *Capparis*.

BRICUMUM. A name which the Gauls gave to the herb *Artemiſia*.

BROCHTHUS, βροχθος. The throat, alſo a ſmall kind of drinking veſſel.

BROCHUS, βροχος. One with a prominent upper lip, or one with a full mouth and prominent teeth.

BRODIUM. A term in pharmacy, ſignifying the ſame with *Juſculum*, broth, or the liquor in which any thing is boiled. Thus we ſometimes read of *Brodium Salis*, or a decoction of ſalt.

BRUTIA. An epithet for the moſt reſinous kind of pitch, therefore uſed to make the *Oleum Piſinum*. The *Pix Brutia* was ſo called, from Brutia, a country in the extreme parts of Italy, where it was produced.

BRYAMUS. A peculiar kind of noiſe, ſuch as is made by gnaſhing or grating the teeth; or, according to ſome, a certain kind of convulſion affecting the lower jaw, and ſtriking the teeth together, moſt frequently obſerved in ſuch children as have worms.

BUCCACRATON, (βυκκα κατον, from *bucca*, or *bucella*, that is, a morſel of bread ſopped in wine, which ſerved in old time for a breakfaſt). Paracelſus calls by the name of *Bucella* the carneous excreſcence of the polypus in the noſe, becauſe he ſuppoſes it to be a portion of fleſh parting from the bucca, and inſinuating itſelf into the noſe.

BUCCELATON, βυκελατον. A purging medicine made up in the form of a loaf; conſiſting of ſcammony, &c. put into fermented flour, and, then baked in an oven.

BUCELLATIO. A way of ſtopping

the blood by applying lint upon the vein or artery.

Buceras, *Buceros.* Fenugreek.

Buceras. A ſpecies of *Pucida.*

Bucranion, (from βε, an ox, and κρανιον, a head). So the *Antirrhinum* is called, becauſe it reſembles an ox's head.

Bucton. The hymen.

Buffeli. A ring made of the horn of a buffalo, which is worn on the ring-finger to cure the cramp.

Bugantiæ. Chilblains.

Bugones, (from βε, an ox, and γινομαι, to be bred, or generated of). An epithet for bees, becauſe the ancients thought them to be bred from the putrefaction of an ox.

Bulbocodium. A ſpecies of *Ixia.*

Buna. Coffee.

Buphthalmus. A diſtempered eye, (from βε, an ox, οφθαλμος, *oculus*, from its vaſt largeneſs like an ox's eye).

Burac. All kinds of ſalt.

Burhaiaga. A name of the ſea-heath-ſpurge.

Burina. Pitch.

Buris. So Avicenna calls a ſcirrhous *Hernia.*

Burnea. Pitch.

Butica. An inflammation of the whole face, otherwiſe called *Gutta Roſacea.*

Butina. Turpentine.

Butios. So the ancient pretenders to phyſic in Hiſpaniola were called.

Byrsa. A ſkin of leather to ſpread plaſter on.

Byrsodepsicon, (from βυρσα, a ſkin, and δεψεω, to curry leather). *Sumach.*

Bysaucen, (βυσαυχην, from βυω, to hide, αυχην, the neck). People are thus called who by elevating their ſhoulders hide their neck. Alſo one who hath a morbid ſtiffneſs of the neck.

Bysma (βυσμα, from βυω, to ſtop up, obſtruct, fill up, conſtipate, or ſtuff). The covers or ſtopples of any veſſels.

Byssus, βυσσος. A name for the *Pudendum Muliebre*; alſo a name of a ſort of fine cloth worn by the ancients.

Byzen, (from βυζω, or βυω, to fill up by ſtuffing, to condenſe, a heap, croud, or throng). Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs the hurry in which the menſes flow away in an exceſſive diſcharge of them.

C.

CABALA. The cabaliſtic art. It is derived from the Hebrew word ſignifying to receive by tradition. It is a term that hath been anciently uſed in a very myſterious ſenſe amongſt divines; and ſince, ſome enthuſiaſtic philoſophers and chemiſts have tranſplanted it into medicine, importing by it ſomewhat magical: but ſuch unmeaning terms are now juſtly rejected.

Cabalator. Nitre.

Caballica ars, (from καταβαλλω, to throw down). A term in gymnaſtics, importing among wreſtlers, the art of foiling, or throwing an antagoniſt down.

Cabeb, *Cabebi.* Scales of iron.

Cabulator. Nitre.

Cabrusi. Amongſt the ancients this word was uſed to expreſs Cyprian, or, coming from the iſland of Cyprus. The ancient Greeks had almoſt all their vitriols and vitriolic minerals from this iſland; they therefore ſometimes called theſe *Cabruſi*, without any addition. It is very

probable that our word copperas is a falſe pronunciation of this word *Cabruſi.*

CABUREIBA, *Caburiiba.* A name of the *Balſ. Peruv.* Ray thinks it is the tree which affords that balſam.

CACAGOGA. Ointments, that by being rubbed on the fundament, procure ſtools.

ÇACAMOTICTLANOQUILONI. The purging potatoe.

CACATORIA FEBRIS. A name given by Sylvius to a kind of intermittent fever attended with copious ſtools.

CACCIONDE. A pill commended by Baglivi againſt the dyſentery; its baſis is the *Terra Japonica.*

CACHRY. The ſeeds of the *Libanotis.*

CACHRYS. Galen ſays it ſometimes means parched barley. In Linnæus's botany, it is the name of a genus, of which he enumerates three ſpecies.

CACHUNDE. A compound medicine much eſteemed by the Chineſe and Indians. It is ſaid to be made of amber, muſk, pearls, aloes, cinnamon, ſome of the precious ſtones, and other things.

CACHYMIA. A term in Paracelſus, by which he intends an imperfect metallic body, or, an immature metalline ore.

CACHYMIÆ. It may be divided into ſulphureous, as marcaſites, biſmuths, and cobalts; or, ſecondly, into mercurial, or arſenical, or orpimental, &c.; or thirdly, into ſaline, ſuch are all talcs.

CACOCHOLIA. An indiſpoſition of the bile.

CACOHROI, (from κακη, ill, and χροα, colour). Such as have an ill colour in the face.

CACOCHYLIA. Indigeſtion or depraved chylification.

CACOETHES, (κακοηθης, from κακος, ill, and ηθος, a word which, when applied to diſeaſes, ſignifies a quality, or a diſpoſition. Hippocrates applied this word to malignant and difficult diſtempers. Galen, and ſome others expreſs by it, an incurable ulcer, that is rendered ſo through the acrimony of the humours flowing to it. Linnæus and Vogel uſe this term much in the ſame ſenſe with Galen, and deſcribe the ulcer as ſuperficial, ſpreading, weeping, and with callous edges.

CACOPATHIA, κακοπαθια. An ill affection.

CACOPHONIA, κακοφωνια. A depravity of the voice.

CACOPRACIA, (from κακος, ill, and πρατω, to do or act). A depravation in the viſcera, by which nutrition is performed.

CACORRYTHMUS, (κακορρυθμος, from μακο, ill, and ρυθμος, order). An epithet of a diſorderly pulſe.

CACOSPHYXIA, (κακοσφυξια, from κακος, ill, and σφυξις, from σφυζω, to leap or beat like an artery). A diſorder of the pulſe in general.

CACOSTOMACHUS, κακοστομαχος. Literally an ill or bad ſtomach; but is ſpoken of food that is bad for the ſtomach.

CACOTHYMIA, (from κακος, ill, and θυμος, the mind). Any vicious diſpoſition of the mind.

CACOTROPHIA, (κακοτροφια, from κακος, ill, and τροφη, nutriment). Any ſort of vicious nutrition in general.

CADDIS. Soft lint.

CADEL AVANACU. *Moluccenſe Lignum.*

CADMIA *Lapis Calaminaris.*

CADMIA FACTITIA. The *Tutia.*

CADMIA METALLICA. A name of cobalt.

CADUCASE. Vertigo.

CADUCA. See *Decidua.*

CADUCUS MORBUS. The epilepſy.

CÆSIA. A ſpecies of *Mimoſa.*

CAF, *Caſa, Caſar, Camphor.*

CAGASTRUM. Paracelſus uſes

his word to expreſs the morbific matter which generates diſeaſes, and, that is not innate, but adventitious. Diſeaſes ariſing from the *cagaſtrum* are pleuriſy, peſtilence, fever, &c.

CAGUACU-APARA, *Caguacu-Ete.* The American Bezoar deer.

CAICU. *Terra Japonica.*

CALABA. A ſpecies of *Calophyllum.*

CALÆ, *Calæum. Calæmum.* A kind of Indian tin, which is reduced by the fire, into a kind of ceruſe, ſuch as is made of lead and European tin.

CALAMACORUS. Indian reed.

CALAMEDON, (καλαμηδον, from καλαμος, a reed). A ſpecies of fracture which runs along the bone in a right line, but is lunated in the extremity.

CALAMINTHA HUMILIOR. Ground ivy.

CALAMITIS. A name of that fictitious *Cadmia*, which by fixing to iron rods, acquires the figure of a reed; the word is applied to *Pompholyx*, to calamine; and Agricola calls a marine ſtony plant thus.

CALAMITA ALBA. The white ſand ſtone.

CALAMITA OF RHASES. The white load-ſtone.

CALCADINUM. Vitriol.

CALCADIS. White vitriol.

CALCANTHOS, *Chalcanthum.* Names for vitriol, from the Greek χαλκανθον.

CALCANTUM. A kind of red ink.

CALCAR. *Calcaneous*, alſo the furnace in a glaſs-houſe.

CALCARIS FLOS. The lark-ſpur.

CALCARIUS LAPIS. Lime-ſtone.

CALCATOR. Vitriol.

CALCATON. Troches of arſenic.

CALCEUM EQUINUM *Tuſſilago.*

CALCHITHIOS. Verdigris, alſo a *Marcaſite.*

CALCIFRAGA. Break-ſtone, an epithet given to the herb *Scolopendrum* or *Spleenwort* in Scribonius Largus.

CALCIFRAGUS. It ſignifies ſtone-breaking, and, is therefore applied to ſome things having that quality, as by Scribonius Largus to the *Scolopendrium*, and by others to *Pimpernel*, called alſo for the ſame reaſon *Saxifrage.*

CALCIGRADUS. Hippocrates means by it, one who in walking lays much ſtreſs upon the heels.

CALCINATUM MAJUS. It is whatſoever is dulcified by the chemical art, which was not ſo by nature; ſuch as dulcified mercury, lead, and the like ſubſtances, which are very ſpeedily conſolidated.

CALCINATUM MAJUS POTERII. It is mercury diſſolved in aqua fortis, and precipitated with ſalt water. Poterius uſed it in the cure of ulcers.

CALCINATUM MINUS. Any thing which is ſweet by nature, and ſpeedily cures, as ſugar, manna, tamarinds, &c.

CALCITREA. Vitriol.

CALCITEOSA. Litharge.

CALCITHOS. Verdigris.

CALCULIFRAGUS. Lithontripic.

CALDAR. Tin.

CALDARIUM. A veſſel in the baths of the ancients to hold hot water. It is alſo called *Laconicum.*

CALDUS. This term is frequently uſed by Scribonius Largus for *calidus.*

CALICHAPPA. The true white thorn.

CALIDARIUM. Thus Celſus calls that part of a bath which was the hypocauſtum of the ancient Greeks.

CALIDUM INNATUM. The ancients had many vague notions under this term.

CALIETA, *Caliette.* The young fungi on the juniper tree.

CALLÆON. The gills of a cock, which Galen ſays is a food neither to be praiſed nor condemned.

CALLECAMENON. Burnt copper.

CALLENA. A kind of ſalt-petre.

CALLIBLEPHARON, (from καλλος, beauty, and βλεφαρον, an eye-lid).

Medicines appropriated to the eyelids.

CALLICREAS. The *Pancreas*.

CALLIGONUM, (from καλλος, beauty, and γονυ, a joint or knot). The *Polygonum*.

CALLIOMARCUS. The Gauliſh name in Marcellus Empiricus for the herb coltsfoot.

CALLIONYMUS, (from καλλος, beauty, and ονομα, a name). The *Uranoſcopus*.

CALLITRICHUM, (from καλλος, beauty, and θριξ, a hair). The *Adianthum*.

CALMET. Antimony.

CALOCATANOS. A name of the wild poppy.

CALOCHIERNI. A large ſpecies of *Atractylis*, common in Greece and Candy. The name *Atractylis* is from ατρακτος, a ſpindle, becauſe their ſtalks were uſed for ſpindles.

CALONIA. Calonian myrrh. Hippocrates often preſcribes it.

CALTROPS. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of *Potamogeton*.

CANUSA. Cryſtal.

CALYPTER, (from καλυπτω, to hide). A carnous excreſcence covering the hemorrhoidal vein.

CAMARA. The fornix of the brain; alſo the vaulted part of the auricle, leading to the external foramen; alſo the name of a ſpecies of *Lantana*.

CAMAROSIS, (καμαρωσις, from καμαρα, a tortoiſe). An arched roof. A fracture of the ſkull, which appears like an arch of a vault.

CAMBIREA. So Paracelſus calls the venereal bubo.

CAMBUCA. So Paracelſus calls the venereal cancer. Alſo by ſome it is writ for a bubo, an ulcer, an abſceſs on the pudenda; alſo a boil in the groin.

CAMBUI. The wild American myrtle of Piſo and Marcgrave.

CAMEHNIA. The onyx ſtone.

CAMES. Silver.

CAMINGA. The *Canella Alba*.

CAMINUS, καμινος. It ſignifieth the furnace and its chimney. In Rulandus it ſignifies a bell.

CAMISIA FŒTUS. The ſhirt of the fœtus. It is frequently put for the *Chorion*.

CAMPE, (καμπη, from καμπτω, to bend). A flexure or bending. It is alſo uſed for the ham; alſo a joint or an articulation.

CAMPULUM, (καμπυλον, from καμπτω, to twiſt about. A diſtortion of the eye-lids.

CANABIL. A ſort of medicinal earth. See *Eretria*.

CANCRENA. Paracelſus uſes this word inſtead of *Gangræna*.

CANDELA FUMALIS. They are candles made of odoriferous powders, and reſinous matters, to purify the air and excite the ſpirits.

CANELLA CUBANA. *Canella Alba*.

CANELLA CUURDO. The true cinnamon-tree.

CANICÆ. Coarſe meal was thus called by the ancients, from *canis*, a dog, becauſe it was food for dogs. Hence *Panis canicaceus*, very coarſe bread.

CANNA FISTULA. *Caſſia Fiſtula*.

CANNABINA. So Tournefort named the *Datiſca*.

CANONIAI, κανονιαι. Hippocrates in his book De Aëre, &c. calls thoſe perſons thus, who have ſtraight, and not prominent bellies. He would intimate that they are diſpoſed, as it were, by a ſtraight rule.

CANTABRICA. *Lavender leaved bind weed*. Pliny ſays it was diſcovered in the time of Auguſtus, in the country of the Cantabri in Spain; whence its name.

CANTABRUM. In Cœlius Aurelianus it ſignifies bran.

CANTACON. Garden ſaffron.

CANTARA. The plant which bears the St. Ignatius's bean.

CANTHARI FIGULINI. Earthen cucurbits.

CANTHUM. Sugar-candy.

CANTION. An epithet for ſugar.

CAOVA. The drink called coffee.

CAPELLA. A cupel or teſt.

CAPHORA. Camphor.

CAPIPLENIUM. A catarrh. It is a barbarous word; but Baglivi uſes it to ſignify that continual heavineſs or diſorder in the head, which the Greeks call *Carebaria*, καρηβαρια.

CAPISTRATIO. *Phimoſis.*

CAPISTRUM. A bandage for the head is ſo called. In Vogel's Noſology it is the ſame as *Triſmus.*

CAPITELLUM. The head or ſeed veſſels, frequently applied to moſſes, &c. as in *Capitulum.* Some ſay it ſignifies ſoapy water, others ſay it is a lixivium.

CAPNELÆUM, καπνελαιον. In Galen's works, it is ſaid to be a reſin. Fœſius ſays it ſeems to be called *capnelaion* becauſe of the ſmoak it gives when placed near the fire.

CAPNIAS, (καπνιας, from καπνος, a ſmoak). A jaſper of a ſmoaky colour. Alſo, a kind of vine which bears part white and part black grapes.

CAPNITIS. Tutty.

CAPNOIDES, (from καπνος, fumitory, and ειδος, likeneſs). A ſpecies of fumitory.

CAPNOS, καπνος. Fumitory.

CAPO MOLAGO. Guinea pepper.

CAPREOLUS. The helix of the ear.

CAPRICORNUS. Lead.

CAPRIFICUS. The wild fig-tree.

CAPRIZANS. Is by Galen and others uſed to expreſs an inequality in the pulſe, when it leaps, and, as it were, dances in uncertain ſtrokes and periods.

CAPSELLA. A name in Marcellus Empiricus for vipers bugloſs.

CAPULUM, (from καμπτω, to bend). A contortion of the eyelids, or other parts.

CAPUR. Camphor.

CARABE. Amber.

CARACUS. Sometimes this word is uſed for an inſect of the beetle kind; ſometimes for the cray-fiſh; and, at others for the *Locuſta marina.*

CARACOSMOS. A name of the four mare's milk, ſo much admired by the Tartars.

CARBASUS. Scribonius Largus uſes this word for lint.

CARCAROS. A ſort of fever.

CARCAS. The Barbadoes nut-tree, the *Cataputia.*

CARCAX. A ſpecies of poppy, with a very large head.

CARCER. Paracelſus means by it, a remedy proper for reſtraining the diſorder by motions of body and mind, as in curing the *Chorea Sancti Viti.*

CARCHESIUS, καρχησιος. A name of ſome bandages noticed by Galen, and deſcribed by Oribaſius. Properly it is the top of a ſhip's maſt.

CARDIMELECH. A fictitious term in Dolæus's Encyclopædia, by which he would expreſs a particular active principle in the heart, appointed to what we call the vital functions.

CARDIMONA. *Cardialgia.*

CARDINAMENTUM, (from *cardo*, an hinge). An hinge-like articulation.

CARDIOGMUS, (from καρδιωσσω, to have a pain in the ſtomach). The ſame as *Cardialgia.* Alſo an aneuriſm in the aorta, near the heart, which occaſions pain in the præcordia.

CARDIONCHUS. An aneuriſm in the heart, or in the aorta near the heart.

CARDIOTROTUS. One who hath a wound in his heart.

CARDO. The articulation called *Ginglymus*; alſo the ſecond vertebra of the neck.

CARDONET. A wild artichoke.

CARDONIUM. So Paracelſus calls wine medicated with herbs.

CAREBARIA, (καρηβαρια, from

κάρη, the head, and βάρος, heavineſs). An uneaſy and ſomewhat painful heavineſs of the head.

CARENA. The twenty-fourth part of a drop.

CARICOUS TUMOR. Called by Hippocrates καρακοιδες, is a ſwelling reſembling the figure of a fig; ſuch are frequently the piles: from *carica*, a fig.

CARIUM TERRA. Lime.

CARNICULA. Fallopius uſeth this word inſtead of *Faruncula*, and, to ſignify in particular the fleſh of the gums.

CAROLI. Chancres, alſo little venereal excreſcences in the private parts.

CAROPI. True *Amomum*.

CARORA. The name of a veſſel that reſembles an urinal.

CARPASUS. An herb not known; but, its juice was poiſonous, and, was formerly called *Opocarpaſon*, or *Opocarpathon*.

CARPHOS, καρφος. In Hippocrates it ſignifies a ſtraw, or mote, or any ſmall ſubſtance. Alſo a ſmall puſtule for the cure of which Aëtius, Tetrab. i. recommends rubbing them with the dried ſeeds of mercury.

CARPOLOGIA. A delirious fumbling, as, when a patient ſeems to be gathering ſomething from the bedcloaths, which yet is difficultly performed, becauſe of the trembling which affects his hands. It is generally a fatal ſymptom.

CARUNCULOCA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from caruncles in the urethra.

CARYOTI. A name in Galen, for the beſt dates in Syria, &c.

CASABONÆ. Fiſh-thiſtle.

CASAMUM. A name in Myrepſus for the *Cyclamen*.

CASCHU. *Catechu*.

CASIBO. A ſpecies of *Privet*.

CASSA. A barbarous word in Fallopius for the *Thorax*.

CASSALE VULNUS. A term ſignifying a wound in the breaſt; from the Arabian word *Cas*, a breaſt.

CASSADUM. So Paracelſus calls weak ſpiritleſs blood that is grumous, and hinders the paſſage of the circulating blood.

CASSIBOR. Coriander.

CASSIDBOTT. Coriander.

CASSOH. Alkaline ſalt.

CASSOLETA. A kind of humid ſuffumigation deſcribed by Marcellus.

CASSUTHA. Dodder.

CASUS. The word ſignifies the ſame as *Symptoma*; ſometimes it is uſed for any thing fortuitous or ſpontaneous, or a fall from an eminence. In Paracelſus it ſignifies a preſent diſtemper, and alſo, an entire hiſtory of a diſeaſe.

CATABLEMA, καταβλημα. According to Galen, Hippocrates means by it the outermoſt fillet which ſecures the reſt of the bandage.

CATACHLOOS, (καταχλοος, from χλοη, graſs, or green herb; Galen expounds it "a very green colour." It is applied to ſtools, and then, many read for this word *Catachola* i. e. very bilious.

CATACHRISTON. Medicine applied by way of unction.

CATATCLASIS, (κατακλασις, from κατακλαω, to break or diſtort). Galen explains it to be an affection of the eye, as when the eye-lids are diſtorted. Vogel defines it to be a ſpaſtic occluſion of the eye.

CATACLEIS, (κατακλεις, ſubclavicle, from κατω, below, κλεις, *clavis*, the clavicle). According to Galen it is the firſt ſmall rib of the thorax.

CATACORES, κατακορες. Full, abundant, and when applied to ſtools it means that they are purely or intenſely bilious. Hippocrates uſes it in both ſenſes.

CATAGMA, καταγμα. A fracture; Galen ſays a ſolution of the bone is called *Catagma*, and, that *Eclos* is a

ſolution of the continuity of the fleſh; that when it happens to a cartilage it hath no name, though Hippocrates calls it *Catagma*.

CATAGMATICA. Catagmatic, from καταγω, *deduco*; remedies proper for cementing broken bones, or, to promote a callus, from καταγνυμι, to break.

CATALENTIA. Paracelſus coined this word to expreſs an epilepſy.

CATALYSIS, (καταλυσις, from καταλυω, to diſſolve or deſtroy). It ſignifies a palſy, or, ſuch a reſolution as happens before the death of the patient; alſo, that diſſolution which conſtitutes death.

CATAPASMA, (καταπασμα, from πασσω, to ſprinkle). The ancient Greek phyſicians meant by this, any dry medicine reduced to powder, to be ſprinkled on the body. Their various uſes may be ſeen in Paulus, lib. vii. cap. xiii.

CATAPLEXIS, (καταπληξις, from πλησσω, to ſtrike). Any ſudden ſtupefaction, or deprivation of ſenſation in any of the members or organs.

CATAPOSIS, (καταποσις, from καταπινω, to ſwallow down). According to Aretæus, it ſignifies the inſtruments of deglutition. Hence alſo,

CATAPOTIUM, καταποτιον. A pill.

CATAPSYXIS, (καταψυξις, from ψυχω, to refrigerate). A refrigeration without ſhivering, either univerſal, or of ſome particular part. A chilline ſs, or as Vogel defines it, an uneaſy ſenſe of cold in a muſcular or cutaneous part.

CATAPTOSIS, (καταπτωσις, from καταπιπτω, to fall down). It implies ſuch a falling down, as happens in apoplexies; or the ſpontaneous falling down of a paralytic limb.

CATARRHEUMA, καταρρευμα. *Catarrhus.*

CATARRHEXIS, καταρρηξις. A violent and copious eruption, or effuſion, joined with κοιλιας; it is a copious evacuation from the belly, and ſometimes alone it is of the ſame ſignification. In Vogel's Noſology, it is defined, a diſcharge of pure blood from the belly.

CATARRHŒCUS, καταρροικος. A word applied to diſeaſes proceeding from diſtillations of rheum.

CATARRHOPA PHYMATA, καταρροπα φυματα. Tubercles tending downward; or, as Galen relates, thoſe that have their apex on a depending part.

CATARRHOPOS NOUSOS, καταρροπος νοσος. A remiſſion of the diſeaſe, or its decline, and oppoſed to the paroxyſm.

CATARTISMUS, καταρτισμος. According to Galen it is a tranſlation of a bone from a preternatural to its natural ſituation.

CATASARCA, κατασαρκα. *Anaſarca.*

CATASTAGMOS, (κατασταγμος, from σταζα, to diſtil). This is the name which the Greeks, in the time of Celſus, had for a diſtillation.

CATASTALTICUS, (καταστολτικος, from καταστελλω, to reſtrain, or στελλω, to contract.) It ſignifies ſtyptic, aſtringent, repreſſing.

CATASTASIS, καταστασις. The conſtitution, ſtate, or condition of any thing.

CATATASIS, κατατασις. In Hippocrates it means the extenſion of a fractured limb, or a diſlocated one, in order to replace it. Alſo the actual replacing it in a proper ſituation.

CATEIADION. A long inſtrument which was introduced into the noſtrils, in order to provoke an hæmorrhage for the cure of the headach. It is mentioned by Aretæus.

CATELLUS CINEREUS. A cupel or teſt.

CATAVALA. Common aloe.

CATHÆRESIS, καθαιρεσις, from καθαιρεω, *abſumo*, to waſte: Hippocrates uſes it for ſuch a conſumption of the body as happens without any

manifeſt evacuation; but Scribonius Largus, and ſome others, expreſs by it ſuch loſs as ariſes from purging or the like.

CATHÆRETICA, καθαιρετικα. Remedies which conſume ſuperfluous fleſh.

CATHARMA, (καθαρμα, from καθαιρω, to purge). The excrements purged off from any part of the body.

CATHARMOS, καθαρμος, from καθαιρω, to purge). Purgation by medicines; and the cure of a diſorder by ſuperſtitious remedies.

CATHEDRA. In Hippocrates it is the *Anus*.

CATHIDRYSIS, (καθιδρυσις, from καθιδρυω, to place together). The reduction of a fracture.

CATHIMIA. In the ſpagyric language it ſignifies, 1. A ſubterraneous mineral vein, where gold and ſilver is dug; 2. Concretions in the furnace of gold and ſilver. 3. Gold. 4. Spuma argenti; and 5. Soot, that adheres to the wall in burning braſs.

CATHMIA. Litharge.

CATHOLIC, (καθολικος, from κατα *per*, through, and ολον, *totum*, all). Is aſcribed to medicines that are ſuppoſed to purge all humours; alſo, the ſame as a panacea or univerſal medicine: but ſuch are now laughed at for impoſitions.

CATHYPNIA, (from υπνος, ſleep). A profound ſleep.

CATIAS, κατιας. An inciſion knife, formerly uſed to extract a dead fœtus, and, for opening an abſceſs in the uterus.

CATILIA. The weight of nine ounces.

CATINUM ALUMEN. Pot-aſh.

CATINUS FUSORIUS. A crucible.

CATISCHON, κατισχων. One who is coſtive, or not eaſily purged.

CATMA. Filings of gold.

CATOCATHARTICA. Medicines that operate by ſtool.

CATOCHE, κατοχη. A catalepſy; alſo a *Coma Somnolentum*.

CATOCHUS, κατοχος. A catalepſy. Some ſay it is the ſame as *Tetanus*. Others define it to be a rigidity of the body without ſenſibility.

CATOCHUS CERVINUS. The tonic tetany, particularly affecting the neck.

CATOCHUS DIURNUS. The ſymptomatic tetany.

CATOCHUS HOLOTONICUS. The tonic tetany.

CATONISMOS, (κατωμισμος, from κατω, under, and ωμις, the ſhoulder). A putting under of the ſhoulder. By this word P. Ægineta expreſſeth that mode of reducing a luxated humerus, which is performed by a ſtrong man taking the patient's luxated arm, and, laying it over his ſhoulder, ſo that he can raiſe him from the ground: thus, by the weight of the body the luxation is reduced.

CATOTERICA, κατωτερικα. Purging medicines.

CATTA TRIPALI. *Catta Tirpali*. Long pepper.

CATULOTICA, κατκλωτικα. Medicines that cicatrize wounds.

CAUDA. Aëtius ſays, that in ſome women a fleſhy ſubſtance ariſes from the os uteri, and fills the vagina. Sometimes it protuberates without the lips of the pudenda, like the tail of ſome animal; whence its name. A polypus of the uterus.

CAUDATIO. So an elongation of the clitoris is called.

CAULEDON, καυληδον, becauſe it breaks like καυλος, a branch. A ſpecies of fracture, and is, when the bone is broken tranſverſly, ſo as not to cohere.

CAUMA, (καυμα, from καιω, to burn). The heat of the atmoſphere, or, of the body in a fever.

CAUSODES FEBRIS, καυσωδης

Cauſus. Celſus renders this word by *Febris Ardens*.

CAUSOMA, καυσωμα. In Hippocrates it ſignifies a burning heat and inflammation.

CAUSUS, καυσος, from καιω, to burn. An highly ardent fever. According to Hippocrates, a fiery heat and inſatiable thirſt, are its peculiar characteriſtics. Others alſo are particular in deſcribing it; but whether, they are ancients or moderns, from what they relate, this fever is no other than a continued *ardent fever* in a bilious conſtitution. In it the heat of the body is intenſe; the breath is particularly fiery; the extremities are cold; the pulſe is frequent and ſmall; the heat is more violent internally than externally, and the whole ſoon ends in recovery or death.

CAVERNA. A name of the female pudenda.

CEASMUS, (κεασμα, from κεω, to ſplit or divide). A fiſſure or fragment.

CELSA. A term of Paracelſus's, to ſignify what is called the beating of the life in a particular part.

CEMENTERIUM. A crucible.

CENCHRAMIS, κεγχραμις. A grain or ſeed of the fig.

CENCHRIUS. A ſpecies of *Herpes* that reſembles κεγχρος. Millet.

CENCHROS, κεγχρος. Millet.

CENEONES, (κενεωνες, from κενος, empty). The flanks.

CENIGDAM. The name of an inſtrument anciently uſed for opening the head in epilepſies.

CENIOTEMIUM. A purging remedy formerly of uſe in the venereal diſeaſe, ſuppoſed to be mercurial.

CENOSIS, (κενωσις, from κενος, empty). Evacuation. It muſt be diſtinguiſhed from *Catharſis*. *Cenoſis* imports a general evacuation; *Catharſis* means the *evacuation* of a particular humour which offends with reſpect to quality.

CENTRATIO. Paracelſus expreſſes by it the degenerating of a ſaline principle, and contracting a corroſive and exulcerating quality. Hence *Centrum Salis* is ſaid to be the principle and cauſe of ulcers.

CEPHALARTICA. Medicines that purge the head.

CEPHALINE, κεφαλινη. That part of the tongue which is next the root, and neareſt the fauces.

CEPHALONOSOS, (from κεφαλη, a head, and νοσος, a diſeaſe. This term is applied to the *Febris Hungarica*.

CEPINI. Vinegar.

CEPULA. Large myrobalans.

CERÆÆ, (κεραιαι, from κερας, a horn). So Rufus Epheſius calls the cornua of the uterus.

CERAMIUM. A Greek meaſure of nine gallons.

CERANITES, κεραντης. A paſtil or troch is thus named by Galen.

CERASIATUM. A purging medicine in Libavius ſo called, becauſe the juice of cherries is a part of it.

CERASMA, κεραστμα. A mixture of cold and warm waters, when the warm is poured into the cold.

CERATITIS. The yellow horned poppy.

CERATOIDES, (from κερατος, the genitive caſe of κερας, a horn). A name of the *Tunica cornea*.

CERATOMALAGMA. A cerate.

CERCHNOS, κερχνος. Wheezing. See *Renchos*.

CERCHODES. Thoſe are ſo called who labour under a denſe breathing.

CEREBELLA URINA. Paracelſus thus diſtinguiſhes urine which is whitiſh, of the colour of the brain, and, from which he pretended to judge of ſome of its diſtempers.

CERIA, *Ceriæ*. The flat worms bred in the inteſtines.

CEROMA, κερωμα. Was uſed by the ancient phyſicians for an unguent or cerate, though originally, it ſeems to have been given to a particular compoſition which the wreſtlers uſed

in their exercises; whence Juvenal calls one so anointed *Ceromaticus*.

CEROPISUS. A plaster of pitch and wax. Of this the ancients made their *Dropaces*.

CESTRISTIS VINUM. Wine impregnated with betony.

CESTRUM. Betony.

CHAITA. Properly the name of quadrupeds; but Rufus Ephesius expresses by it the hair of the hind-head.

CHALASIS, (χαλασις, from χαλαω, to relax). Relaxation.

CHALBANE. Galbanum.

CHALCANTHUM. Vitriol, or rather vitriol calcined red.

CHALCOIDEUM OS. The os cuneiforme of the tarsus.

CHALCUTE. Burnt brass.

CHALICRATON, χαλικρατον, from χαλις, and old word that signifies pure wine, and κερανυμι, to mix). Wine and water.

CHALINOS. That part of the cheeks which on each side is contiguous to the angles of the mouth.

CHAMÆRAPHANUM. So Paulus Ægineta calls the upper part of the root *Apium*.

CHAOMANTIA SIGNA. So Paracelsus calls those prognostics that are taken from observations of the air; and the skill of doing this, the same author calls *Chaomancia*.

CHAOSDA. Paracelsus uses this word as an epithet for the plague.

CHARABE. *Succinum*.

CHARANTIA. A species of *Momordica*.

CHARISTOLOCHIA. Mugwort.

CHARTA EMPORETICA. Is paper made soft and porous, such as is used to filter with.

CHARTA VIRGINEA. A name of the *Amnios*.

CHASEMIE. The loss of the sense of smelling.

CHASME, χασμη. Yawning.

CHEDROPA, χεδροπος. A general term for all sorts of corn and pulse.

CHEILOCACE, (from χειλος, a lip, and κακον, an evil). The lip evil, a swelling of the lips; also, according to Le Dran, a canker in the mouth or lips.

CHEIMETLON, (from χειμα, winter). A chilblain.

CHEIMIA. Cold, shivering.

CHEIRAPSIA, χειραψια, from χειρ, the hand, and απτομαι, to touch). Scratching.

CHEIRIATER, (from χειρ, a hand, and ιατρος, a physician). A surgeon.

CHEIRISMA, χειρισμα. Handling, or a manual operation.

CHEIRIXIS, χειριξις. Surgery.

CHEIRONOMIA. An exercise mentioned by Hippocrates, which consists of peculiar gesticulations of the hands.

CHEIZI. Paracelsus means by it quicksilver, when he speaks of minerals; and flowers, when he speaks of vegetables.

CHELA, χηλη. A forked probe mentioned by Hippocrates, for extracting a polypus from the nose. In Rufus Ephesius, it is the extremities of the cilia, but most commonly, it is used for claws, particularly of crabs. It also signifies fissures in the heels, feet, or pudenda.

CHELIDON, χιλιδων. The swallow; also the hollow at the bend of the arm.

CHELONE, χελωνη. A tortoise. It imports a part of a surgical machine mentioned by Oribasius.

CHELONION, χελωνιον. A hump-back; so called from its resemblance to the shell of χελωνη, a tortoise.

CHELYS, χελυς. The breast; so called because it resembles in its figure the back of a tortoise.

CHELYSCION, χελυσκιον. A short dry cough.

CHEMA, χημη. Blancard says it it is a certain measure mentioned by the Greek physicians, supposed to contain two small spoonfuls. The

Athenians had one of two drachms, and another of three.

CHERAS. The ſtruma or ſcophula.

CHERNIBION. In Hippocrates it is an urinal.

CHEVASTRE. A double headed roller, applied by its middle below the chin; then running on each ſide, it is croſſed on the top of the head; then paſſing to the nape of the neck, is there croſſed: then paſſes under the chin, where croſſing, it is carried to the top of the head, &c. until it is all taken up.

CHEZANANCE, χεζαναγκη, from χεζω, to go to ſtool, and αναγκη, neceſſity). It ſignifies any thing that creates a neceſſity to go to ſtool; but, in P. Ægineta, it is the name of an ointment, with which the anus is to be rubbed for promoting ſtools.

CHIADUS. In Paracelſus it is the ſame as *Furunculus*.

CHIASTOS, χιαστος. The name of a bandage in Oribaſius; ſo called from its reſembling the Letter X, *chi*.

CHIASTRE. The name of a bandage for the temporal artery. It is a double-headed roller, the middle of which is applied to the ſide of the head, oppoſite to that in which the artery is opened, and, when brought round to the part affected, it is croſſed upon the compreſs that is laid upon the wound, and then, the continuation is over the coronal ſuture, and under the chin; then croſſing on the compreſs, the courſe is, as at firſt, round the head, &c. till the whole roller is taken up.

CHIBOULS. A ſort of onions which form no bulbs at the roots.

CHIBUR. Sulphur.

CHILIODYNAMON, (χιλιοδυναμον, from χιλιοι, a thouſand, and δυναμις, virtue). An epithet of the herb *Polemonium* In Dioſcorides, this name is given on account of its many virtues.

CHILON, χειλων. An inflamed and ſwelled lip.

CHIMETHLON. A chilblain.

CHIMOLEA LAXA. Paracelſus means by this word the powder which is ſeparated from the flowers of ſaline ores.

CHIOLI. In Paracelſus it is the ſame as *Furunculus*.

CHITON, χιτων. A coat or membrane.

CHLIASMA, χλιασμα. A warming fomentation, called alſo *Thermaſma*.

CHLOE, χλοη. Graſs that is new ſprung up, or young and tender graſs.

CHOANA, χοανη. It is properly a funnel, but is uſed to ſignify the *Infundibulum*.

CHOANAS, χοανος. A funnel or furnace for melting metals.

CHOENICIS. The trepan, ſo called by Galen and P. Ægineta, from χοινικις, the nave of a wheel.

CHOERADES, (from χοιρος, a ſwine), the ſame as *Strumæ*.

CHOERADOLETHRON, (from χοιρος, a ſwine, and ολεθρος, deſtruction). Hogbane, a name in Aetius for the *Xanthium*, or louſe-bur.

CHOLADES. So the ſmaller inteſtines are called, becauſe they contain bile.

CHOLAGOGA, (Cholagogues, from χολη, bile, and αγω, to evacuate). By cholagogues the ancients meant only ſuch purging medicines as expelled the internal fæces, which reſembled the cyſtic bile in their yellow-colour, and other properties.

CHOLAS, χολας. All the cavity of the ilium is ſo called, becauſe it contains the liver which is the ſtrainer of the gall.

CHOLICELE. A ſwelling formed by the bile morbidly accumulated in the gall bladder.

CHOLOMA, (χωλωμα, from χωλος, lame or maimed). Galen ſays that in Hippocrates it ſignifies any diſtor-

tion of a limb. In a particular ſenſe it is taken for a halting or lameneſs in the leg.

CHOLOSIS, χωλωσις. In Vogel's Noſology it is a genus of diſeaſe, which he defines to be lameneſs, from one leg being ſhorter than the other.

CHONE, χωνη. The infundibulum.

CHORA, χωρα. A region. Galen in his De Uſu Part. expreſſes by it particularly the cavities of the eyes; but, in others of his writings, he intimates by it any void ſpace.

CHORDA MAGNA. A name of the *Tendo Achillis*.

CHORDAPSUS, χορδαψος. An ancient name for the colic, when ſeated in the ſmall inteſtines.

CHORTOS, χορτος. Ripe or perfect graſs, which is fit to be mowed and made into hay.

CHRISTOS, (χριστος, from χριω, to anoint). It is whatever is applied by way of unction.

CHROS, χρως. Galen ſays that the Ionians mean by this word all that is of fleſh in our own bodies, i. e. all but bones and cartilages.

CHRYSSATICUM. An epithet of a ſort of *Paſſum*, recommended by P. Ægineta to be drank with the ſeed of atriplex, for the jaundice.

CHRYSOMS, (from χρισμα, *unctio*, anointing). Anciently children were anointed as ſoon as born, with ſome aromatic compoſitions; and, upon the head they wore an anointed cloth, till they were judged ſtrong enough to endure baptiſm: after which that cloth was left off; ſo that from the birth was accounted a particular period of the child's life, deemed a ſtate of unction; and hence our bills of mortality ſeem to derive their diſtinction of *chryſoms*, for all who die before they are baptized.

CHYBUR. Sulphur.

CHYLURIA. A diſcharge of whitiſh mucous urine.

CHYLISMA, (χυλισμα, from χυλος, juice). In Dioſcorides it ſignifies expreſſed juice.

CHYLUS, χυλος. The chyle. In general, it is a juice inſpiſſated to a middle conſiſtence between humid and dry. In Hippocrates the word χυλος is uſed to expreſs the juice and ſorbile liquor of barley, which liquor they call *ſtrained ptiſan*.

CHYMIATER, a chemical phyſician, or one who cures by chemical medicines.

CHYMIATRIA, (from χυμια, chemiſtry, and ιατρεια, healing). The art of curing diſeaſes by chemical medicines.

CHYTLON. In Hippocrates it means a plentiful inunction with oil and water.

CIBUR. Sulphur.

CICIS. In ſome places of Hippocrates and Theophraſtus it is put for κηκις, a gall.

CIGNUS. A meaſure ſo called, containing about two drams.

CINCLESIS. In Vogel's Noſology it ſignifies a morbid nictitation, or an involuntary winking.

CINCLISIS, (κιγκλισις, or *Cincliſmos*, from κιγκλιζω, to ſhake or wag). Hippocrates means by it a ſmall and repeated motion.

CINERITIUM. A cupel.

CINCTUS. The diaphragm.

CINNIOGLOTTUS CINNATUS. Paracelſus coined theſe words to expreſs the total deſtruction and corruption of mineral bodies.

CINZILLA. So Paracelſus calls the diſorder which others call *Zona*.

CION, κιων. So Aretæus calls the *Uvula*, alſo a ſwelling or relaxation of the uvula. Hippocrates gives this name to a carunculous excreſcence in the pudendum muliebre.

CIONIS, κιονις. A painful ſwelling of the uvula.

CIRCUMLITIO. In general, it is any medicine applied by way of unction; but, in a particular manner it is appropriated to ophthalmic medicines, with which the eye-lids are anointed.

CIRCUMOSSALIS. A name of the *Tunica conjunctiva oculi.* Le Dran calls the *Periosteum* thus.

CIRSOIDES. It is an epithet in Rufus Ephesius for the upper part of the brain. He also applies this name to two of the four seminal vessels.

CISSA. A depraved appetite.

CISSANTHEMOS. A name in Dioscorides for one of the two species of *Cyclamen.*

CIST, *Rist.* A measure of wine containing about four pints.

CISTERNA. A cistern. A name of the fourth ventricle of the brain; and, of the concourse of the lacteal vessels in the breasts of women who give suck.

CITHARUS. According to Hesychius it signifies the breast, side, and a species of fish.

CITRINATIO. Complete digestion; and, according to Rulandus and Johnson it signifies resurrection.

CITTA, κιττα. The disease called *Pica*, or unnatural longings for eatables.

CLASIS, (κλασις, from κλαω, to break). A fracture.

CLASMA, (κλασμα, from κλαω, to break). A fracture.

CLAUDICATIO. Halting, limping, or staggering, as when one leg is shorter than the other.

CLAVUS OCULORUM. Celsus says that it is a callous tubercle on the white of the eye, and is thus named from its figure.

CLEIDION, κλειδιον. The name of an epithem in Aetius. An epithet of a pastil in Galen and P. Ægineta. And sometimes it is used to signify *Os Clavicula.*

CLEISAGRA, (from κλεις, the clavicle, and αγρα, a prey). The gout in the articulation of the clavicles to the sternum.

CLEPSYDRA, (κλεψυδρα, from κλεπτω, to conceal, and υδωρ, water). Properly, an instrument to measure time by the dropping of water through a hole from one vessel to another; but it is used to express a chemical vessel perforated in the same manner. It is also an instrument mentioned by Paracelsus, contrived to convey suffumigations to the uterus.

CLIMACTERICAL YEARS are certain observable years which are supposed to be attended with some considerable change in the body; as the 7th year; the 21st, made up of three times seven; the 49th, made up of seven times seven; the 63d, being nine times seven; and the 81st, which is nine times nine; which two last are called the grand climacterics. Aulus Gellius tells us that this whimsy first came from the Chaldeans, from whom it is very probable to have come to Pythagoras, who was very fond of the number seven, and used much to talk of it in his philosophy.

CLINOPETES, κλινοπετης. A person who, on account of great weakness, or any disorder, is obliged to lie in bed, or on a bed.

CLONODES, κλονωδης. An epithet for a sort of pulse which is vehement and large, at the same time unequal in one and the same stroke.

CLUNES. The buttocks.

CLUNESIA. Inflammation and pain of the anus.

CLYDON, κλυδων. A fluctuation and flatulency in the stomach.

CLYSSUS, κλυσσος, is a term anciently used by the chemists for medicines made by the re-union of different principles, as oil, salt, and spirit, by long digestion; but, it is not now practised, and the term is almost lost.

CNIDOSIS, κνιδωσις. An itching and ſtimulating ſenſation, ſuch as is excited by the nettle.

CNIPTES, κνιπτης. Itching. Some ſay it ſignifies a dry opthalmy.

COCCA BAPTICA. Kermes berries.

COCCALOS. A name of the *Cnidia*, and of the *Nux Pinea*.

COCCI RADICUM. Kermes berries.

COCCONES. The grains or acini of the pomegranate.

COCHONE, κοχωνη. Galen explains this to be the juncture of the iſchium, near the ſeat or breech; whence, ſays he, all the adjacent parts about the ſeat are called by the ſame name. Heſychius ſys that *cochone* is the part of the ſpine which is adjacent to the os ſacrum.

COCILIO. A weight of eleven ounces.

COCTION. In a medicinal ſenſe, ſignifies that alteration, whatever it be, or however occaſioned, which is made in the crude matter of a diſtemper, whereby it is either fitted for a diſcharge, or rendered harmleſs to the body. This is often brought about by nature, as we ſpeak, that is, by the vis vitæ, or the diſpoſition or natural tendency of the matter itſelf, or elſe by proper remedies, which may ſo alter its bulk, figure, coheſion, or give it a particular determination, ſo as to prevent any farther ill effects, or drive it quite out of the body. And, that time of a diſeaſe wherein this action is performing, is called its ſtate of coction.

CODOSCELÆ. So Fallopius calls venereal buboes in the groin.

CŒLA. The hollow of the eyes, or rather above and below the eye-lids. The *cœla* of the feet are the hollow parts of the bottom of the foot, adjacent to the heels.

CŒLIA, (κοιλια, from κοιλος, hollow, ſignifies any cavity). If ανω is joined with it, it ſignifies the ſtomach, and ſometimes the thorax; and η κατω joined with it is the lower belly or inteſtinal tube, from the cardia to the anus.

CŒLOMA, (κοιλωμα, hollow). An ulcer in the tunica cornea of the eye.

CŒLOSTOMIA, (from κοιλος, hollow, and στομα, the mouth). A defect in ſpeaking, when a perſon's ſpeech is obſcured by ſounding as if his voice proceeded from a cavern.

CŒNOTES, (from κοινος, common). The phyſicians of the methodic ſect aſſerted that all diſeaſes aroſe from relaxation, ſtricture, or a mixture of both. Theſe were called *cœnotes*, viz. what diſeaſes have in common.

COHOL. Caſtellus ſays this word is uſed in Avicenna, to expreſs dry collyria for the eyes in fine powder.

COILIMA. A ſudden ſwelling of the belly from wind.

COLATORIA LACTEA. Aſtruc ſays they were formerly called glands, and are ſituated in the third and internal tunic of the uterus, and, that they are veſiculo-vaſcular bodies.

COLLATERALES. So Spigelius calls the erectores penis, from their collateral order of fibres.

COLLETICA, (from κολλα, glue). Conglutinating medicines.

COLLICIÆ. The union of the ducts which convey the humours of the eyes from the puncta lachrymalia to the cavity of the noſe.

COLLIGAMEN. A ligament.

COLLIQUAMENTUM. is a term firſt made uſe of by Dr. Harvey, in his application of it to the firſt rudiments of an embryo in generation.

COLLOBOMA. The growing together of the eye-lids.

COLLODES. Glutinous, (from κολλα, glue).

COLOBOMA, (κολοβωμα, from κολοοω, to maim). The growing together of the eye-lids; alſo the want of a particular member of the body.

COLOBOMATA. In Celſus this

word is expreſſed by *curta*. Both the words ſignify a deficiency in ſome part of the body, particularly the ears, lips, or alæ of the noſtrils.

COLOPHONIA, κολοφωνια, or according to Scribonius Largus, *Colofonia*, is now commonly uſed for any pitch or roſin, made by the exhalation or drawing off the thinner parts of terebinthinous juices: though Paracelſus ſeems to mean by it what is now preſcribed by the name of *Terebinthina cocta*: but the ancients, and particularly Galen, ſeemed to underſtand by it a ſoft kind of maſtich, from *Chio*, probably the ſame as our *Chio* turpentine.

COLOSTRUM, is the firſt milk in the breaſts after delivery, according to ſome authors; but Bartholine applies it to an emulſion made by the ſolution of turpentine with the yolk of an egg.

COLOTOIDES, (κωλωτοειδης, from *colotes*, a lizard of that name); variegated like the ſkin of a lizard. Hippocrates applied it to the excrements.

COLPOCELE. A hernia forced into the vagina.

COLPOPTOSIS. A bearing down of the vagina.

COMISTE. The epilepſy. This name aroſe from the frequency of perſons being ſeized with this diſorder while in the aſſemblies called Comitia.

COMMI. Gum. When alone it ſignifies gum Arabic. The κομμι λευκον mentioned by Hippocrates in his De Morb. Mulieb, is gum Arabic.

COMMUNICANT, is, by Bellini, applied to fevers of two kinds afflicting the ſame perſon, wherein as one goes off the other immediately ſucceeds.

COMPLETION, is by the ancient writers uſed in various acceptations; but latterly it ſignifies only the ſame as a *Plethora*.

COMPUNCTIO. *Paracenteſis*.

CONCAUSA. A cauſe which cooperates with another in the production of a diſeaſe.

CONDUCTIO. In Cœlius Aurelianus it is a ſpaſm, or a convulſion.

CONEION. In Hippocrates it imports the *Cicuta*. It is ſaid to be thus named (from κωνειν, to turn round), becauſe it produces a vertigo in thoſe who take it inwardly.

CONFŒDERATIO. Confluent.

CONFLUXION, ξυρροια, is much uſed by Hippocrates and his interpreter Galen, in the ſame ſenſe as we uſe conſent and tranſpirable, from a notion that parts at a diſtance have mutual conſent with one another, and that they are all perſpirable by many ſubtle ſtreams. Paracelſus, according to his way, expreſſed the former by confederation.

CONGELATI, *Congelatici*, or *Congellatio*. Perſons afflicted with a catalepſy are ſo called.

CONIS, κονις. Duſt, fine powder, aſhes, a nit in the hair, ſcurf from the head, and ſometimes it ſignifies lime.

CONNATUS, συνγενης, uſed much by Hippocrates for what is born with a perſon; the ſame with *congenite*, as,

CONNUTRITUS, συντροφος, is what becomes habitual to a perſon from his particular nouriſhment, or what breaks out into a diſeaſe in proceſs of time, which gradually had its foundation in the firſt aliments, as from ſucking a diſtempered nurſe or the like.

CONQUASSATIO, conquaſſation. In pharmacy it is a ſpecies of comminution, or, an opperation by which moiſt concreted ſubſtances, as recent vegetables, fruits, the ſofter parts of animals, &c. are agitated and bruiſed, till, partly by their proper ſucculence, or, by an effuſion of ſome liquor, they are reduced to a ſoft pulp.

CONTORSIO, (from *contorqueo*, to turn aside, contortion). In medicine, this word signifies, 1. the iliac passion; 2. an incomplete dislocation; 3. a dislocation of the vertebræ of the back sideways, or crookedness of them; 4. a disorder of the head, in which it is drawn to one side.

CONTRALUNARIS. An epithet given by Dietericus to a woman who conceives during the menstrual discharge.

COPISCUS. A sort of frankincense.

COPRIEMETOS, (κοπριεμετος, from κοπρος, dung, and εμεω, to vomit). A person who vomits up his excrements.

COPROSTASIA. A constriction of the belly.

COPULA. A ligament.

CORACOBOTANE, (from κορακ, a crow, and βοτανη, a plant). A name for the *Laurus Alexandrina*.

CORDINEMA, κορδινημα. Yawning and stretching.

CORDOLIUM. The heartburn.

CORE, κορη. The pupil of the eye.

COREMATA, κορηματα. Brushes and besoms; but in P. Ægineta is used to signify medicines for cleaning the skin.

CORIUM. A name of the dartos muscle.

CORNESTA. A retort.

CORNUTA. A retort.

CORRAGO. Borrage.

CORÆ. The temples.

CORSÆ. The temples.

CORYPHÆ, κορυφη. The vertex.

COSMET. Antimony.

COSMOS, κοσμος. In Hippocrates it is the order and series of critical days.

COSSI. Worms that breed among planks, also tubercles in the face.

COSSUM. A malignant ulcer of the nose, mentioned by Paracelsus.

COTIS. Some say it is the back part of the head, others say it is the hollow of the neck.

COTONEA. The quince.

COUROS. So Hippocrates called the child in the womb when perfected there.

CRADE. In Hippocrates it is the branch of a fig-tree.

CRAMBEION. Erotian says it is an old Sicilian word for hemlock; but in Hippocrates it signifies a decoction of cabbage.

CRASPEDON. A disorder of the uvula when it hangs down in the form of a thin oblong membrane.

CREA. The spine of the *Tibia*, or the shin.

CREMNOI, κρημνοι. The lips of ulcers, also, the labia pudendi, (from κρημνος, a precipice).

CREPATURA. In Paracelsus, it is an intestinal hernia.

CREPINUM. Paracelsus means by it tartar.

CRESPULUM. In Myrepsus, it is the herb called ox-eye.

CRIMNODES, (κριμνωδης, or κριμνον, bran). An epithet for urine which deposits a branny sediment.

CRIMNON, κριμνον. Dioscorides describes it as being a coarse sort of meal produced from zea and wheat, of which they make pulse. Galen says that κριμνα are the largest particles of torrified barley, which have escaped due contusion in the mill.

CRIOMYXUS, κριομυξος. An epithet for persons abounding with mucus in the nose.

CRITHE, κριθη, i. e. *Grando*, or stye on the eye-lid.

CROCUS INDICUS. Turmeric.

CROMMYON. An onion.

CROMMYOXYREGMIA. Acid and fœtid eructations resembling the taste of onions.

CROTONE, κροτωνη. A fungous excrescence on trees, but by a metaphor, it is applied to excrescences

and fungous humours on the perioſteum.

CRYMODES, (κρυμωδης, from κρυος, cold). An epithet for a fever, wherein the external parts are cold.

CRYPSORCHIS. When the teſticles are hid in the belly, or have not deſcended into the ſcrotum, (from κρυπτω,, to hide, and ορχις, a teſticle).

CRYPTOPYICA, *Iſchuria*. A ſuppreſſion of urine from a retraction of the penis within the body.

CRYSORCHIS, κρυσορχις,. A retraction or retroceſſion of one of the teſticles.

CRYSTALLI. Eruptions about the ſize of a lupine, white and tranſparent, which ſometimes break out all over the body. They are alſo called *Cryſtallinæ*, and by the Italians Taroli.

CTEIS, κτεις, *pecten*. *Ctenes*, in the plural number, implies thoſe teeth which are called inciſores.

CUEMA, κυημα. The conception or rather, as Hippocrates ſignifies by this word, when the complete rudiments of the fœtus are formed.

CULBICIO. A ſort of ſtranguary, or rather heat of urine.

CULTER. The third lobe of the liver.

CULUS. The anus.

CUNEALIS SUTURA. The ſuture by which the os ſphenoides is joined to the os frontis.

CUPHOS, κυφος. Light, when applied to aliments, it imports their being eaſily digeſted; when to diſtempers, that they are mild.

CURA AVENACEA. A decoction of oats and ſuccory roots, in which a little nitre and ſugar were diſſolved, was formerly uſed in fevers, and was thus named.

CYATHISCUS, (κυαθισκος, from κυαθος, a cup). The hollow part of a probe, formed in the ſhape of a ſmall ſpoon, as an ear-picker.

CYBITOS, κυβιτος. The cubitus.

CYCIMA. Litharge.

CYCLISCUS, (κυκλισκος, from κυκλος, a circle). An inſtrument in the form of a half moon, formerly uſed for ſcraping rotten bones.

CYCLOPION, (κυκλωπιον, from κυκλοω, to ſurround, and ωψ, the eye). The white of the eye.

CYCLOS. A circle. Hippocrates uſes this word to ſignify the cheeks, and the orbits of the eyes.

CYCLUS METASYNCRITICUS. It is a long protracted courſe of remedies, perſiſted in with a view of reſtoring the particles of the body to ſuch a ſtate as is neceſſary to health.

CYLLOS, (κυλλος, from κυλλοω, to make lame). In Hippocrates it is one affected with a kind of luxation, which bends outwards, and is hollowed inward. Such a defect in the tibia is called *Cylloſis*, and the perſon to whom it belongs, is called by the Latins *Varus*, and is oppoſed to *Valgus*.

CYMATODES. Is applied by Galen and ſome others to an unequal fluctuating pulſe.

CYNANTHROPIA, (from κυων, a dog, and ανθρωπος, a man). It is uſed by Bellini, De Morbis Capitis, to expreſs a particular kind of melancholy, when men fancy themſelves changed into dogs, and imitate their actions.

CYNOCOCTONUM. Wolf's-bane.

CYNOCYTIS. The dog-roſe.

CYNODECTOS, κυνοδηκτος. So Dioſcorides calls a perſon bit with a mad dog.

CYNODESMION, (κυνοδεσμιον, from κυων, a dog, and δεω, to bind). A ligature by which the prepuce is bound upon the glans. Sometimes it ſignifies the lower part of the prepuce.

CYNODONTES, (κυνοδοντες, from κυων, a dog, and οδους, a tooth). The canine teeth.

Cynolissa. It is uſed by Leiſter in his Exercit. tert. de Morb. Chron. in the ſame ſenſe as *Rabies Canina*.

Cynolopha. Pollux calls theſe certain aſperities of the vertebræ, and beginning of the ſpine of the back.

Cynorexia. The ſame as *Bulimia*, i. e. a greedy appetite that is not eaſily ſatisfied.

Cyophoria, (from κυημα, the fœtus, and φερω, to carry). Geſtation. It is ſpoken of a woman with reſpect to her pregnancy.

Cyphoma, (κυφωμα, from κυφοω, to bend). A kind of gibboſity, an incurvature of the ſpine of the back, when the vertebræ incline preternaturally outwards.

Cyrbasia. Properly the tiara or cap worn by the Perſian monarchs. Hippocrates uſes this word in his treatiſe on the Diſeaſes of Women, in deſcribing a ſort of covering which he directs for the breaſts.

Cyrenaicus. Is applied to the juice of the laſerpitium of the ancients, from the country where it moſtly flouriſhed by Scribonius Largus, Ægineta, and ſome others; as it is alſo taken notice of under the ſame diſtinction by Sanctorius in his Aphoriſms.

Cyrseon. The podex or anus.

Cyrtoides. Gibbous.

Cyrtoma, (κυρτωμα, from κυρτος, hump-backed). Any preternatural tumour or gibboſity. In Vogel's Noſology it ſignifies a particular flatulent tumour of the belly.

Cyrtonosus. The rickets.

Cyssaros, κυσσαρος. The podex or anus.

Cyssotis. Inflammation of the anus.

Cysteolithos, κυστεόλιθος, from κυστις, the bladder, and λιθος, a ſtone). The ſtone in the bladder.

Cystics. Medicines preſcribed in any diſorder of the bladder; becauſe *cyſticus*, from κυστις, a bladder, ſignifies any part of the body ſo called, as the urinary bladder or gall-bladder.

Cystoptosis. The inner membrane of the bladder protruding through the urethra.

D.

DACETON (from δακνω, to bite). An epithet for ſuch animals as hurt by biting.

Dachel. So Boerhaave calls the *Palma major*.

Dacneron, (from δακνω, to bite). Biting; an epithet for a collyrium in Trallian.

Dacrydium. *Diagridium*.

Dacryodes, (δακρυωδης, from δακρυ). A tear, in Hippocrates.

Dacryoma. A coalition of one or more of the puncta lachrymalia

Dacryopæos. An epithet for ſuch things as cauſe the tears to flow, ſuch as onions, &c.

Dactiletus. The *Hermodactyl*.

Dactylethra, δακτυληθρα. A machine ſhaped like a finger, and introduced into the ſtomach to excite vomiting.

Dactylion, δακτυλιον. Web-fingered.

Dædalus. A name given to mercury on account of its volatility with heat; from a perſon ſo called, who invented wings to fly with.

Dæmon, δαιμων, which ſtrictly ſignifies a ſpirit either good or bad, hath not likewiſe eſcaped torture from the application of ſome writers in medicine, moſt of which are too

ridiculous to take notice of; but, as it is taken in a bad ſenſe, its derivative *Dæmoniac* is moſt juſtly aſcribed to ſuch diſtempers as cannot be aſſigned to natural cauſes, but are ſuppoſed from the influence of poſſeſſion by the devil; though ſuch notions have not long ſince been exploded.

DAPHNELÆ N, (δαφνέλαιον, from δαφνη, the bay-tree, and ελαιον, oil). The oil of bay-berries. Dioſcorides calls the oil thus, from Daphne, the nymph, reported by the poets to have been changed into the bay-tree.

DAPHNITES. A name for the beſt pieces of Caſſia.

DAPHNOIDES. The ſame as *Daphne*.

DARATOS, δαρατος. Unfermented bread.

DARCHEM. A name of the beſt cinnamon.

DARSINI. The Arabian name for the ordinary ſort of true cinnamon.

DARTA. A tetter, ring-worm, or the itch.

DASYMMA, δασυμμα. So the *Opthalmia Trachoma* of Sauvages is called when it is tettery.

DAURA. So Paracelſus calls black hellebore.

DAVERIDON. Oil of ſpike.

DEAMBULATION ſtrictly ſignifies motion of the body by walking, but by Hippocrates is applied to inquietude of the mind.

DEBUS. So Paracelſus calls a medicine, which is given againſt anger.

DECIDENTIA. Some change in diſeaſes, whereby they are prolonged.

DECIMANA. A kind of erratic fever, returning every tenth day.

DECLINATIO. It is when a diſeaſe abates. In Avicenna it is an imperfect diſlocation.

DECOLLATIO. It is when a part of the cranium is cut off with the teguments in the wound of the head.

DECURTATUS, is by ſome applied to a pulſe which grows weaker every ſtroke, until an entire ceſſation; or if it recovers again, it is called *Pulſus decurtatus reciprocus*. See Galen De Different Pulſ. lib. i. cap. xi.

DEFENSIVA. In Paracelſus they are called cordials.

DEFLUVIUM. A falling off of the hair.

DEGMOS, (δηγμος, from δακνω, to bite). A biting pain in the orifice of the ſtomach, ſuch as is perceived in the heart-burn, &c.

DEJECTORIA. Purging medicines.

DEINOSIS, (δεινωσις, from δεινοω, to exaggerate). Exaggeration. Hippocrates uſes this word with reſpect to the ſupercilia, where it imports their being enlarged.

DELACRYMATIVÆ. Delacrymatives, medicines which dry the eyes by firſt diſcharging tears, ſuch are onions, &c.

DELAPSIA. A falling down of the anus, uterus, or inteſtines; from *delabo*, to ſlip down.

DELPHYS, δελφυς. The uterus.

DEMOTIVUS LAPSUS. Sudden death.

DENDROLIBANUS. Roſemary.

DENODATIO. Diſſolution.

DENTARPAGO. The inſtrument called *Dentagra*.

DENTO. One whoſe teeth are prominent to a great degree, or who is full mouthed.

DEPURATORIA FEBRIS. Depuratory fever, a name given by Sydenham to a fever which prevailed in the year 1661 and 1664. He called it depuratory, becauſe he obſerved that nature regulated all the ſymptoms in ſuch a manner as to fit the febrile matter for expulſion in a certain time, either by a copious ſweat or a free perſpiration. See Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works.

DERAS, δερας. A ſheep-ſkin, the title of a book in chemiſtry, treating

of the art of transmuting base metals into gold. It is wrote on sheepskins.

DERTRON, δερτρον. Fœsius says it is the abdomen or omentum: Linden and Coronarius say it is the small intestines.

DESCENSORIUM. The furnace in which the distillatio per descensum is performed.

DESIPIENTIA. The symptomatic phrenitis.

DESME, (from δεω, to bind or tie). This word occurs in Moschion, and signifies the same as *manipulus, fasciculus*.

DESMIDION, δεσμιδεον. It is a diminutive of *desme*; so signifies a small handful.

DESMOS, δεσμος. In Hippoc. De Fract. this word signifies an affection of the joint after a luxation, in the manner of a tie or ligature, whereby they are rendered incapable of bending or stretching out. It proceeds from inflammation.

DESUDATION, from *desudo*, to sweat off, expresses a profuse and inordinate sweating from what cause soever.

DEUTERIA, δευτερια. A poor kind of wine, which the Latins call *Lora*; also, adhesion of the placenta.

DEUTERION, δευτεριον. The secundines.

DEXTANS. A ten ounce measure or weight.

DIA, in Greek, signifying *ex* or *cum, of* or *with*, is frequently prefixed in the name of some medicines to the principal ingredient therein; as *Diascordium* is a composition wherein *Scordium* is the chief ingredient; *Diasena*, from *Sena*, and so of many others.

DIABEBOS, διαβεβως. The ankle bones; Hippocrates uses this word.

DIABOLUS METALLORUM. A name of tin, because when incorporated with other metals, they are not reduced but with the greatest difficulty.

DIABOTANUM, (from βοτανη, an herb). The name of a plaster prepared of herbs.

DIABROSIS, (διαβρωσις, from διαβρωσκω, to eat through). An erosion of the skin, from a pungent matter, either externally or materially produced.

DIACATHOLICON, sometimes called *Catholicon*, (from δια, of, and καθολικος, universal). The universal purge. Originally it was prescribed by Nicolaus, and was an electuary which he proposed as a purge suited to carry off all kinds of humours.

DIACELTATESSON. A name given by Van Helmont to a purging preparation of antimony. It is also a term in Paracelsus; he seems to mean a vomit excited by mercury. According to some, this word signifies quicksilver dissolved in alcahest.

DIACENOS, (διακενος, from κενος, empty). An epithet of porous bodies, such as sponge, pumice-stone, &c.

DIACHALASIS, (διαχαλασις, from διαχαλαω, to relax). This word was formerly used to signify the opening of the sutures of the skull.

DIACHEIRISMOS, (διαχειρισμος, from χειρ, a hand). It is any manual operation.

DIACHELIDONIUM, (from χελιδων, a swallow). A preparation of swallows.

DIACHOREMA, διαχωρημα. All sorts of excretions from the body, but more properly and frequently those by stool.

DIACHRISTA, (from χριω, to anoint). In P. Ægineta it signifies medicines that are applied to the fauces, palate, uvula, and tongue, to absterge phlegm.

DIACHYLON, διαχυλων. An emollient digestive plaster, made of certain juices. This name is given to very different compositions for plas-

ters, and is now the *Emplaſtrum Lithargyri.*

DIACHYSIS, (διαχυσις, from χυω, to fuſe or melt). Fuſion.

DIACHYTICA, in Dioſcorides are medicines that diſcuſs or diſſolve.

DIACHYTOS, διαχυτος. An epithet for wine prepared of grapes that have been dried ſeven days, and were preſſed on the eighth.

DIACINEMA, (διακινημα, from διακινεω, to move aſunder). A ſlight diſlocation.

DIACLYSMA, (διακλυσμα, from διακλυζω, to waſh out, or rinſe). It generally ſignifies a gargariſm.

DIACOCHLACON, (διακοχλακων, from κοχλακες, flints). An epithet of milk in which red hot flints have been extinguiſhed. Such milk is ſaid to be ſudorific.

DIACODIUM, (διακωδιον, from δια and κωδια, or κυδεια, a poppy head). *Codia* ſignifies the top or head of any plant, but by way of pre-eminence particularly the poppy. It is the ſyrup made with the heads of white poppies, and called *Syr. Papaveris albi.*

DIACOPE, (διακοπη, from διακοπτω, to cut through). A deep cut or wound, or cutting of any part.

DIACRISIS, (διακρισις, from διακρινω, to judge or diſtinguiſh). The judging of diſeaſes and ſymptoms.

DIACURCUMA, from *Curcuma*, a word which Fuchſius thinks Meſue uſed for ſaffron. A name of ſeveral antidotes uſed in Myrepſus, of which ſaffron is an ingredient.

DIACYDONIUM. Marmalade of quinces.

DIADEXIS, διαδεξις. *Metaſtaſis.*

DIADOCHE, διαδοχη. *Diadexis.*

DIADOSIS, (διαδοσις, from διαδιδωμι, to diſtribute or diſſipate). In medicinal authors it ſignifies to remit, though ſometimes it means the diſtribution of the aliment over all the body.

DIÆRESIS, (διαιρεσις, from διαιρεω, to divide or ſeparate). It is any ſolution of continuity; though in ſurgery it uſually expreſſes that diviſion of operations, by which parts morbidly or preternaturally concreted, are divided.

DIÆRETICA, (διαιρετικα, from διαιρεω, to divide). Corroſive medicines.

DIALEPSIS, (διαληψις, from διαλαμβανω). The ſame as *Apolepſis*. Hippocrates means by it the ſpace left in a bandage for a fracture in which the dreſſings are applied to wounds.

DIALTHÆA. The name of an ointment in Myrepſus, from which the ointment of althæa, now in uſe, ſeems to have been taken.

DIAMASSEMA, (διαμασσημα, from διαμασσαομαι, to chew). A maſticatory.

DIAMBRÆ (*Pil. vel Spec.*) i. e. *Pil. vel Spec. Aromat.* The name is from the ambergris which was part of the compoſition.

DIAMNES. An involuntary diſcharge of urine, and that inſenſibly.

DIAMOTOSIS, (διαμοτοσις, from μοτος, lint). The introducing of lint into a wound or ulcer.

DIANANCASMOS, (διαναγκασμος, from αναγκη, force or neceſſity). The forcible reſtitution of a luxated part into its proper place. Hippocrates calls an inſtrument thus, which is intended for reſtoring a diſtorted ſpine.

DIAPEDESIS, διαπηδησις, is ſuch a rupture of the ſides of a veſſel of the body, from an internal cauſe, as leaves conſiderable interſtices between the fibres through which the contents eſcape, (from δια, *per*, through, and πηδαω, *ſalio*, to leap). It is alſo expreſſive of a tranſudation of blood through the coats of an artery.

DIAPENTE. A compoſition ſo called becauſe it conſiſts of five ingredients.

DIAPHLYXIS, διαφλυξις. In Galen's Exegeſis it is expounded by effuſions.

DIAPHORA, (διαφορα, from διαφερω,

to differ). Difference. In medicine it comprehends the characteriſtic marks and ſigns which diſtinguiſh one diſeaſe from another. It alſo ſignifies a corruption of food in the ſtomach; and then it is an inſtance of *Dyſpepſia*.

DIAPHORA, (διαφθορα, from φθειρω, to corrupt). In Hippocrates it ſignifies the corruption of the fœtus. An abortion.

DIAPHYLACTICOS, (from φυλασσω, to keep). Preſervative or prophylactic.

DIAPHYSIS, διαφυσις. An interſtice, a partition or whatever intervenes between things. Galen explains it to be a nervous and cartilaginous protuberance in the middle of the joining of the os tibiæ with the os femoris, which enters that large ſinus, and makes a ſeparation between the lower heads and proceſſes of the os femoris, which are inſerted into the ſinus of the os tibiæ. This ſubſtance only appears in recent ſubjects. In other places the *diaphyſis* is ſpoken of as a cavity, chink, &c. for the reception of ſome other part.

DIAPLASIS, (διαπλασις, from διαπλασσω, to faſhion). Conformation. It ſignifies the replacing a luxated or fractured bone as near as may be to its proper ſituation.

DIAPLASMA, διαπλασμα. An unction or fomentation applied all over the body, from διαπλασσω, to ſmear over.

DIAPNOE, διαπνοη. Perſpiration.

DIAPOREMA, (διαπορημα from διαπορεω, to be in doubt). Anxiety in diſtempers.

DIAPTEROSIS, from πτερον, a feather. The cleaning of the ears with a feather.

DIAPYEMA, (διαπυημα, from πυον, *pus*, an abſceſs or a ſuppuration.

DIAPYEMATA. Suppurating medicines.

DIAPYESIS, διαπυησις. In Sauvage's Noſology, it is a kind of abſceſs in the eye, cauſing blindneſs.

DIAPYETICA, διαπυητικα. Suppurating medicines.

DIARIA FEBRIS. Diary fever, a fever of one day. See *Ephemera*.

DIARRHOCHÆ. The interſtices betwixt the circumvolutions of bandages.

DIARRHAGE, διαρραγη. A fracture in particular of the temple bones.

DIASCILLION. So M. Empiricus calls the vinegar and oxymel of ſquills.

DIASCINCI. A name for *Mithridate*.

DIASCORDIUM. So called from the ſcordium in it. *Elect. e Scordio*.

DIASOSTICA, (from διασωζω, to preſerve). That part of medicine which relates to the preſervation of health.

DIASPHAGE, διασφαγη. An interſtice. Hippocrates expreſſes by it the interval betwixt two branches of a vein.

DIASPHYXIS, (διασφιξις, from σφιγγω, to ſtrike). The pulſation of an artery.

DIASTOMOTRIS, διαστομωτρις, implies any dilating inſtrument, as a ſpeculum oris, ſpeculum ani, &c.

DIASTREMMA, (διαστρεμμα, from διαστρεφω, to diſtort or turn aſide). A diſtortion of the limbs.

DIATASIS, (διατασις, from διατεινω, to diſtend or ſtretch out). The extention of a fractured limb, in order to its reduction.

DIATESSARON, (διατεσσαρων, from δια, and τεσσαρες, four). A compound medicine, ſo called becauſe made of four ingredients.

DIATRITARII, and *Diatritos*, διατριτος. An abſtinence during three days was one of the points in practice by which the firſt methodics diſtinguiſh themſelves from other phyſicians. This term of three days they called *diatritos*, and not the abſtinence itſelf; and from this circumſtance the methodics had the name of *diatritarii*. On the third day they

gave such medicines as they thought proper, and not before. Cœlius Aurelianus gives the name *diatritos*, not only to the space of three days, but to the third day in particular also.

DIAULOS, διαυλος. A kind of exercise in which the person runs a straight course forwards and back again.

DIAZOMA, διαζωμα. A name of the diaphragm, from δια, and ζωννυμι to surround.

DIAZOSTER, διαζωστηρ. A name of the twelfth vertebra of the back. It is so called from ζωστης, the belt, which lies upon it.

DIEMEAC. A term in Paracelsus. It signifies a kind of spirit, which he says resides in stones.

DIEXODOS, (διεξοδος, from δια, and εξοδος, a way by which any thing passes). In Hippocrates, it is the descent or passage of the excrements by the anus.

DIFFLATIO. Transpiration.

DIGLOSSON, (from δι-, double, and γλωσσα, tongue). A name of the *Laurus Alexandrina*, because that above its leaf there grows another lesser leaf, resembling a tongue.

DIHÆMATON, (from αιμα, blood). The name of an antidote, in which is the blood of many different animals.

DIIPETES, διιπετης. In Hippocrates it is applied to semen, and signifies a sudden or immediate defluxion.

DINICA, (from δινεω, to turn round). Medicines against a vertigo.

DINOS, δινος. The same with vertigo, an apparent turning round of the objects of sight, together with a failure of the limbs, proceeding from the same causes as the apoplexy though in a less degree.

DIOBOLON, διωβολον. The weight of two i. It is also called *Gramma*.

DIOGMUS, διογμος. A vehement palpitation of the heart.

DIONYSISCUS, διονυσισκος, horned. People who have bony excrescences growing out of the temples which resemble horns.

DIOPTRISMOS, διοπτρισμος. The operation which consists in dilating the natural passages with a dioptra.

DIORRHESIS, (διορρησις, from ορος, or ορρος, serum). A conversion of the humours into serum and water.

DIORTHOSIS, διορθωσις, from ορθος, right, or from διορθοω, to direct). A restitution of a fractured limb into its natural situation.

DIOXELÆUM. A malagma in which was oil and vinegar.

DIPHRYGES, διφρυγες, or *Disphryges*, scurf. There are three kinds 1st. Metallic, produced only in Cyprus; it is found in the mud of pools, whence it is taken and dried in the sun, then burnt, whence its name, (from δις, twice, and φρυγω, to torrify, it being as it were twice roasted). 2d. The dross in working copper. 3d. Pyrites calcined to redness.

DIPNOOS, (διπνοος, from δις, double and πνεω, to breathe). An epithet of wounds which penetrate into some cavity, or quite through a part, or that hath two orifices.

DIPSETICUS. An epithet for such things as cause thirst.

DIPYRITES, (διπυριτης, or *Dipyros* from δις, twice, and πυρ, fire). Bread twice baked. Hippocrates recommends it in dropsies.

DIRADIATION, or *Irradiation*, strictly signifies to dart out light; and is applied by some anatomists to the sudden invigoration of the muscles by the animal spirits.

DISCESSUS. A chemical term, which the French call *Depart*, or *Linquart*; it signifies in general, any separation of two bodies before united; but, it is particularly applied to the separation of gold from silver by means of aqua fortis, where the silver is dissolved, but the gold left untouched.

DISCOIDES, (from δισκος, the *quoit*

uſed in the Roman games, and εἶδος, a form). An epithet of the cryſtalline humour of the eye, from its form reſembling a diſk.

DISCRETA PURGATIVA. In Fallopius it is that ſort of purging which evacuates a particular humour.

DISCIFORME. The knee-pan.

DISCUSSIO. A diophreſis.

DISSEPTUM. The diaphragm.

DIVULSIO URINÆ. An irregular ſeparation of urine, in which the ſediment is divided, ragged and uneven.

DOCHME, δοχμη. A meaſure among the Greeks of four fingers breadth.

DODECATHEON, An antidote preſcribed by P. Ægineta, which conſiſts of twelve ſimples.

DODRA. A kind of potion among the ancients, made of nine ingredients.

DOGGA. An Arabic term for *Paronychia*.

DOLICHOLITHOS, (δολιχολιθος, from δολιχος a kidney-bean). Velſchius gives this name to certain blackiſh ſtones from Tyrol, of the ſhape of a kidney-bean, which emit an odorous effluvium upon attrition.

DRAGMA, δραγμα. A handful.

DRAGMIS, δραγμις, a pugil. What may be contained in three fingers.

DRAPTOS, δραπτος, dilacerated.

DROPAX, δρωπαξ, is an external ſtimulating form of medicine, applied in the manner of a plaſter, to cauſe a redneſs, heat, and tumour in the part that grows ſenſeleſs or benumbed. Pitch, galbanum, pellitory, ſal ammoniac, &c. are generally uſed for this purpoſe.

DROSTOBATANON. Betony.

DROSOMELI. Manna.

DUDASALI. A ſpecies of ſnakewood.

DUELLA. A weight of eight ſcruples.

DUENECH. Antimony.

DUENEZ. Filings of ſteel.

DULECH. A term uſed by Paracelſus and Helmont for a ſort of ſpongy ſtone generated in the body.

DYNAMIS, (δυναμις, from, δυναμαι, to be able). It is the power from whence an action proceeds. Galen often uſes this word for a compoſition of a medicine, ſometimes particularly of an approved one.

DYOTA. The circulatory veſſel which the chemiſts call a pelican.

DYSALTHES, (δυσαλθης, from δυς, difficulty, and αλθω, to cure). Difficult of cure.

DYSANAGOGOS. An epithet for tough viſcid matter, which is difficultly expectorated.

DYSCRASIA, δυσκρασια, dyſcraſy, (from δυς, bad, and κρασις, temperament, or conſtitution). It is an ill habit of body, as a jaundice, &c.

DYLCRITOS, (δυσκριτος, from δυ-, difficult, and κρισις, a criſis). Difficult to be brought to a criſis, or brought to an imperfect criſis.

DYSELCES, δυσελκης, } (from δυς, difficult and
DYSELCIA δυσελκια, } ελκος, an ulcer). An epithet for ſuch perſons whoſe ulcers are difficult to heal. The latter word more properly ſignifies ſuch ulcers as are difficult to cure.

DYSEMETI, (from δυς, difficult, and εμεω, to vomit). Thoſe who vomit with difficulty.

DYSHÆMORRHOIS. Suppreſſion of the bleeding piles.

DYSIATOS, (δυσιατος, from δυ, difficulty, and ιαομαι, to heal). Difficult of cure.

DYSODES, (δυσωδης from δυς, bad, and οζ, to ſmell, an ill ſmell, fetid). Fœſius ſays, that in Hippocrates we are to underſtand by this word a fœtid diſorder of the ſmall inteſtines. It is alſo the name of a malagma, and an acopon, which Galen and Paulus deſcribe.

DYSODIA. Sauvages and ſome other noſologiſts form a genus of

diſeaſe which they name thus, and define it to be, ſtinking exhalations from the whole body, or from a particular part, as ſtinking breath, ſtinking feet, &c.

DYSTHERAPEUTOS, (δυσθεραπευτος, from δυς, difficulty, and θεραπευω, to heal). Difficult to heal.

DYSTOCIA, (δυστοκια, from δυς, difficulty, and τικτω, to bring forth). Difficulty in labour or child-birth.

E.

EBEL. The ſeeds of ſage, or of juniper.

EBISCUS. Marſhmallow.

EBRIECATUM. By this term Paracelſus expreſſes the partial loſs of reaſon, as it happens in drunkenneſs.

EBRIECATUM CŒLESTE. By this Paracelſus means that kind of enthuſiaſm which is affected by many heathen prieſts.

EBESMECH. A name in Langius for quickſilver.

ECBOLICA, (εκβαλλω, to caſt out). Medicines which cauſe abortion.

ECBRASMATA, (εκβρασματα, from εκβρασσω, to caſt out violently). Fiery puſtules on the ſurface of the body.

ECBYRSOMATA, (εκβυρσωματα, from βυρσα, a ſkin). Protuberances of the bones at the joints, which appear through the ſkin.

ECCATHARTICA, (εκκαθαρτικα, from καθαιρω, to purge). According to Gorræus, eccathartics are remedies which, applied to the ſkin, open the pores; but in general they are underſtood to be deobſtruents: ſometimes expectorants are thus called, and ſo are purgatives alſo.

ECCLISIS, (εκκλισις, from εκκλινω, to bend, or turn aſide). A luxation.

ECCOPE, (εκκοπη, from εκκοπτω, to cut off). The cutting off of any part.

ECCOPEUS, (εκκοπευς, from κοπτω, to cut). An ancient inſtrument, of the ſame uſe as the modern raſpatory.

ECDORA, (εκδορα, from εκδερω, to excoriate). Excoriation; and particularly uſed for an excoriation of the urethra.

ECHETROSIS. So Hippocrates calls the white bryony.

ECHINIDES. In Hippocrates it is mentioned as what he uſed for purging the womb with.

ECHOS, ηχος. In Hippocrates, it is the ſame as *Tinnitus Aurium*.

ECHISIS. A fainting or ſwooning.

ECLAMPSIA, εκλαμψις, } (from
ECLAMPSIS, } λαμπω, to ſhine). It ſignifies a ſplendour, brightneſs, effulgence, flaſhing of light, ſcintillation. It is a flaſhing light, or thoſe ſparklings which ſtrike the eyes of epileptic patients. Cœlius Aurelianus calls them *circuli ignei*, ſcintillations, or fiery circles. Though only a ſymptom of the epilepſy, Hippocrates puts it for epilepſy itſelf.

ECLECTICA, (εκλεκτικη, *Medicina*, from εκλεγω, to elect). Archigenus and ſome others ſelected from all other ſects what appeared to them to be the beſt and moſt rational; hence they were called *Eclectics*, and their medicine *Eclectic Medicine*.

ECLECTOS. A linctus.

ECLEGMA, (εκλειγμα, from εκλειχω, *lingo*, to lick). Is a form of medicine made by the incorporation of oils with ſyrups, and which is to be taken upon a liquorice ſtick; the ſame alſo as *Lambative*, from *lambo*, which ſignifies the ſame; and *Linctus*.

ECLYSIS, εκλυσις. An univerſal faintneſs.

ECNEPHIAS, (εκνεφιας, of εκ, from and νεφος, a cloud). A ſtormy wind breaking out of a cloud.

ECPEPIESMENOS, εκπεπιεσμενος, from εκπιεζω, to preſs out). An epithet for ulcers with protuberating lips.

ECPHRACTIC, (εκφρακτικα, from εκφραττω), are ſuch medicines as incide and render more thin tough humours, ſo as to promote their diſcharge.

ECPHRAXIS, (εκφραξις, from εκφραττω, to remove obſtruction). An opening of the pores.

ECPHYAS, (εκφυας, from εκ and φυω, to produce). An appendix or excreſcence. Some call the appendicula vermiformis thus.

ECPHYSE. Flatus from the bladder through the urethra, and from the womb through the vagina.

ECPHYSESIS, (εκφυσησις, from εκφυσαω, to breathe). A quick expulſion of the air out of the lungs.

ECPHYSIS, (εκφυσις, from εκφυω, to produce). An apophyſis, appendix, or proceſs; alſo a name of the duodenum.

ECPIESMA, (εκπιεσμα, from εκπιεζω, to preſs out). The ſame as magma; alſo the juice that is preſſed out from the plants of which the magma is made. It is alſo a kind of fracture of the cranium, in which the bones are ſhattered, and preſs inwardly, affecting the membranes of the brain.

ECPIESMOS, (εκπιεσμος, from εκπιεζω, to expreſs). In general it implies expreſſion, but it is alſo the name of a diſorder of the eye, which conſiſts in a great prominence of the entire globe, thruſt as it were almoſt out of the orbit by an afflux of humours.

ECPLEROMA, (εκπληρωμα, from εκπληροω, to fill). In Hippocrates they are hard balls of leather, or other ſubſtances, adapted to fill the armpits, while by the help of the heels, placed againſt the balls, and repreſſing the ſame, the luxated os humeri is reduced into its place.

ECPLEXIS, (εκπληξις, from εκπλησσω, to terrify or aſtoniſh). A ſtupor or aſtoniſhment, from ſudden external accidents.

ECPNOE, (εκπνοη, from εκπνεω, to breathe). Expiration; that part of reſpiration in which the air is expelled from the lungs.

ECPTOMA, (εκπτωμα, from εκπιπτω, to fall out). A luxation of the bone, the excluſion of the ſecundines; and ſpeaking of corrupt parts, it ſignifies a falling off. It is alſo an hernia in the ſcrotum, and a falling down of the womb.

ECPYEMA, εκπυημα, A copious collection of pus or matter, from the ſuppuration of a tumour.

ECREXIS, (from ρηγνυμι, to break). A rupture. Hippocrates expreſſes by it a rupture or laceration of the womb.

ECRHYTHMOS, εκρυθμος. It is applied to the pulſe, and ſignifies that it is diſorderly or irregular.

ECROE, (εκροη, from εκρεω, to flow out). An efflux, or the courſe by which any humour which requires purging is evacuated.

ECRUSIS, (from εκρεω, to flow out). In Hippocrates it is an efflux of the ſemen before it receives the conformation of a fœtus, and therefore is called an efflux, to diſtinguiſh it from abortion.

ECSARCOMA, (εκσαρκωμα, from σαρξ, fleſh). A fleſhy excreſcence.

ECSTASIS, (εκστασις, from εξιστημαι, to be out of one's ſenſes). An extacy or trance. In Hippocrates it ſignifies a deliirium. Dr. Cullen ranks it as a kind of apoplexy. See *Exſtacis*.

ECTROPHIUS, (εκτροφιος, from εκτρεφω, to invert). An epithet for any medicine that makes the blind piles appear outwardly.

ECTASIS, (εκτασις, from εκτειναω, to extend). An extenſion of the ſkin, the reverſe to wrinkling.

ECTEXIS, (εκτηξις, from εκτηκω, to liquify or conſume). An emaciation.

ECTELYNSIS, (εκτηλυνσις, from εκθηλυνω, to render effeminate). Softneſs. It is applied to the ſkin and fleſh, when lax and ſoft, and to bandages when not ſufficiently tight.

ECTHLIMMA, (εκθλιμμα, from εκθλιβω, to preſs out againſt). An ulceration cauſed by preſſure of the ſkin.

ECTHLIPSIS, (εκθλιψις, from εκθλιβω, to preſs out againſt). Eliſion or expreſſion. It is ſpoken of ſwelled eyes, when they dart forth ſparks of light.

ECTHYMA, (εκθυμα, from εκθυω, to break out). A puſtule or cutaneous eruption.

ECTHYMATA, εκθυματα. Pimples, puſtules, or cutaneous eruptions.

ECTOPOCYSTICA ISCHURIA. In Sauvages's Noſology, it is a ſuppreſſion of urine from a rupture of the bladder.

ECTOMON. Black hellebore.

ECTRIMMA, (εκτριμμα, from εκτριβω, of τριβω, to rub). An attrition or galling. In Hippocrates it is an exulceration of the ſkin about the os ſacrum.

ECTROPE, (εκτροπη, from εκτρεπω, to divert, pervert, or invert). It is any duct by which the humours are diverted and drawn off. In P. Ægineta it is the ſame as *Ectropium*.

ECTROSIS, (εκτρωσις, from εκτρωσκω, to miſcarry). A miſcarriage,

ECTORITICA, (from εκτιτρωσκω, to miſcarry). Medicines which cauſe miſcarriage.

ECTYLOTICA. So Horſtius calls medicines that deſtroy calloſities.

ECZEMA, (εκζεμα, from εκζεω, to boil, or to be hot). An hot painful puſtule.

EDELPHUS. So Paracelſus calls one who makes prognoſtics from the nature of the elements.

EDENTULUS. Without teeth.

EDES. Amber.

EDIC, *Edich*. Iron.

EDRA. A fractured bone, in which, beſide the fracture, there is an impreſſion from the inſtrument by which it was broken.

EFFIDES. Ceruſe.

EFFILA. Freckles.

EFFRACTURA. A ſpecies of fracture of the cranium, when the bone is broken and much depreſſed by a blow.

EILAMIDES, (ειλαμιδες, from ειλεω, to involve). The meninges or membranes of the brain, viz. the dura and pia mater.

EILEMA, (ειλημα, from ειλεω, to form convolutions). In Hip. De Flatibus, it ſignifies painful convolutions of the inteſtines from flatulence. Sometimes it ſignifies a covering. Vogel ſays, it is a fixed pain in the guts, as if a nail was driven in.

EILEON, (from ειλεω, to wind). Gorræus ſays it is a name of the inteſtinum ileum.

EILEOS, (ειλεος, from ειλεω, to form convolutions). The iliac paſſion.

EISBOLE, (εισβολη from εις, into, and βαλλω, to caſt). It ſignifies ſtrictly an injection, but is uſed to expreſs the acceſs of a diſtemper, or of a particular paroxyſm.

EISENMAN. A variety of the ſpecies of iron, which is of the unnamed colour of metals. It is of a ſcaly ſtructure, not rubbing into ſcales.

ELAMBICATIO. A method of

analyzing mineral waters to inveſtigate their virtues.

ELAPHOPILA. The hairs collected in the ſtomach of a ſtag, and formed there into a ball.

ELAPHOSCORODON. Stag's or viper's garlic.

ELAQUIR. Red vitriol.

ELAS MARIS. Burnt lead.

ELASIS. Elaſtic.

ELASMA, ελασμα, (from ελαυνω, a lamina or plate of any kind; but it is uſed to expreſs a glyſter-pipe.

ELECTRODES, (from ηλεκτρον, amber). An epithet for ſtools which ſhine like amber.

ELECTRUM MINERALE. The tincture of metals. It is made of tin and copper, to which ſome add gold, and double its quantity of martial regulus of antimony melted together; from theſe there reſults a metallic maſs, to which ſome chemiſts have given the name of *electrum minerale*. This maſs is powdered and detonated with nitre and charcoal to a kind of ſcoria; it is powdered again whilſt hot, and then digeſted in ſpirit of wine, whence a tincture is obtained of a fine red colour.

ELERSNA. *Molybdæna.*

ELETTARI. The leſſer cardamoms.

ELHANNA. *Alcanna.*

ELHANNE ARABUM. Eaſtern privet.

ELIGII MORBUS. A fiſtula.

ELIGMA. A linctus.

ELIPSIS. The ſcoria of ſilver.

ELOANX. Auripigmentum.

ELODES. So the Greeks call ſweating fevers; they are a kind of tertian intermittents.

ELOME. Auripigmentum.

ELOPITINUM. Vitriol.

ELOS MARIS. Burnt lead.

ELUTRIATIO. Waſhing over. It is the pouring a liquor out of one veſſel into another, in order to ſeparate the ſubſiding matter from the clear and fluid part.

ELUVIES. In Pechlinus it imports the humour diſcharged in a fluor albus.

EMBORISMA. An aneuriſm.

EMBREGMA, εμβρεγμα, (from εμβρεχω, to moiſten). An embrocation.

EMBROCHE, εμβροχη, (from εμβρεχω, to make wet). *Embrocatio*, vel *Fomentatio.*

EMBRONTETOS, εμβροντητος, (from βρονη, thunder). Properly it is one thunderſtruck; and from a ſimilarity of effects it is applied to apoplectic perſons.

EMBRYOTHLASTES, εμβρυοθλαστης, (from εμβρυον, fœtus, and θλαω, to break). An inſtrument to break the bones of a fœtus, in order to its more eaſy delivery. It is alſo a crotchet for extracting a fœtus.

EMMENIA, εμμηνια, (from μην, a month). The menſtrual diſcharges.

EMMOTOS, εμμοτος, (from μυλος, lint). An epithet for perſons, parts of the body, or diſorders that require lint for the cure.

EMODIA. A ſtupor of the teeth.

EMPHRACTICA, εμφρακτικα, (from εμφρασσω, to obſtruct). Such topics as obſtruct the pores when applied to the ſkin.

EMPHRAGMA, (εμφραγμα, from εμφρασσω, to obſtruct). An impediment or obſtruction. Thus Hippocrates calls the parts of a child which preſent in an unnatural poſture, becauſe they obſtruct the birth.

EMPNEUMATOSIS, εμπνευματωσις, (from εμπνεω, to blow into, or inflate). An inflation of the ſtomach, the womb, or other parts.

EMPRION, εμπριον, (from εμπριω, to ſaw). Saw-like; a kind of pulſe mentioned by Galen, in which the artery is unequally diſtended in different parts.

EMPTYSIS, (from εμπτυω, to ſpit upon). Aretæus limits this word to a diſcharge of blood by ſpitting,

when it comes only from the mouth, fauces, and parts adjacent.

EMPYROS, εμπυρος. One labouring under a fever.

ENÆMOS, εναιμος, (from αιμα, blood). So Hippocrates and Galen call such topical medicines as are appropriated to bleeding wounds.

ENÆOREMA, εναιωρημα, (from εναιωρεωμαι, *in sublime attollor*, to be lift up, called also *Nubeculæ*, little clouds), are those contents of the urine which float about in the middle, resembling a cloud.

ENARGES, εναργης, (from αργος, white). Hippocrates applies this as an epithet to dreams.

ENCARDION, εγκαρδιον, (from καρδια, the heart). The pith of vegetables.

ENCARDIUM PREMNOU, εγκαρδιον πρεμνου. The heart and marrow of the trunk; but Dioscorides improperly calls the tender medullary substance which grows on the tops of the great palm tree, thus.

ENCATALEPSIS, εγκαταληψις. *Catalepsis.*

ENCATHISMA, εγκαθισμα, (from εγκαθιζομαι, to sit in). A semicupium.

ENCERIS, εγκηρις, (from κηρος, wax). Bits of wax found in plasters as they cool.

ENCHARAXIS, εγχαραξις, (from χαρασσω, to scarify). Scarification.

ENCHEIRESIS, εγχειρεσις, (from χειρ, a hand). Galen uses this word as part of the title to one of his works, which treats of dissection. The word imports the manual treatment of any subject.

ENCHILOMA. So Lemery says an elixir is sometimes called.

ENCHONDROS, εγχονδρος, from χονδρος, which signifies both a grain and a cartilage; hence implies both granulated and cartilaginous.

ENCHORIOS, (from εν and χωρος, a region or country). Endemical.

ENCHRISTA. Liquid medicines for anointing any part with.

ENCHYMA, (εγχυμα, from εγχεω, to infuse). Infusion, or a sanguine plethora.

ENCHYMATA, εγχυματα. Liquid medicines to be infused into the eyes, ears, &c.

ENCHYMOMA, (εγχυμωμα, of εγχυμος, from εγχυω). In the writings of the ancient physicians, it is a word by which they express that sudden effusion of blood into the cutaneous vessels, which arises from joy, anger, or shame, and in the last instance is what we usually call blushing.

ENCHYMOSIS, εγχυμωσις. Blushing; also an extravasation of blood, which makes the part appear livid. Thus, but improperly, it is synonimous with *Ecchymosis.*

ENCHYTOS. An epithet for any thing infused into any cavity of the body.

ENCLYSMA. A glyster.

ENCŒLIA, (εγκοιλια, from εν, in, and κοιλια, the belly). All the contents of the abdomen.

ENCOLPISMOS. An uterine injection.

ENCOPE, εγκοπη, from εν, in, and κοπτω, to cut). An incision, and figuratively, an impediment.

ENCYMON, (εγκυμων, from εγκυω, to conceive). Pregnant with child.

ENDEDINEMENOS, (ενδεδινημενος, from ενδινεω, to turn round like a vortex). An epithet for the eyes which perpetually turn in their orbits.

ENDEIXIS. An indication.

ENDESIS, (ενδεσις, from δεω, to tie). A ligature, band, or connexion.

ENELLAGMENOS, (ενηλλαγμενος, from εναλλαττομαι, to be changed). An epithet applied to the joints of the vertebræ, because of their alternate or mutual reception and insertion.

ENEOS, ενεος. Vain, empty, or

uſeleſs. The Greeks call thoſe who are unable to perform the common offices of life, ſuch as dumb, deaf, &c. ενεοι.

ENERGUMENI, ενεργυμενοι, expreſſes in ſome authors a poſſeſſion by evil ſpirits.

ENGISOMA, εγγεισωμα. An inſtrument formerly uſed about fractures of the cranium: alſo the ſame as *Engiſomata*.

ENGISOMATA. Fractures of the cranium, in the middle of which the bone preſſes upon the membrane of the brain, and makes the appearance of γεισον, the eaves of a houſe, from εγγιζω, to draw near.

ENGOMPHOSIS. *Gomphoſis*.

ENGONIOS, (from γωνια, an angle). Hippocrates expreſſes by it the bending of the arm at a right angle.

ENIXA. A woman in child-bed.

ENIXUM, from an original ſignifying to bring forth, is by the chemiſts applied to a kind of ſalt, partaking both of an acid and alkaline nature, as the *Tartar of Vitriol*, which ſome alſo call *Sal neutrum*, *Sal tertium*, and *Sal ſalſum*.

ENIXUM PARACELSI (*Sal*). It is the caput mortuum of the ſpirit of nitre, joined with vitriolic acid. It is much the ſame as the *tart. vitr.*

ENNEAPHYLLUM, (from εννεα, nine, and φυλλον, a leaf). *Helleboraſter*.

ENOCHDIANUS. In Paracelſus, it is one who equals Enoch in longevity.

ENS PARVUM SAFIENTIUM. It is ſoap made by mixing fixed alcaline ſalt with diſtilled vegetable oil.

ENS PRIMUM SOLARE. *Antimonium*.

ENTADA. A ſpecies of *Mimoſa*.

ENTALE. A veſſel.

ENTALI. Foſſil alum.

ENTATICA, εντατικα (*Medicamenta*). Medicines that provoke venery. Cælius Aurelianus calls them *Satyrica*.

ENTERA. So Hippocrates calls the bags in which were incloſed medicines for fomentations.

ENTERADENES, (from εντερον, an inteſtine, and αδην, a gland). The inteſtinal glands.

ENTERENCHYTÆ, (from εντερα, the viſcera, and εγχυω, to infuſe). Inſtruments for adminiſtering glyſters.

ENTERON, (εντερον, from εντος, within). Internal and inteſtine. But in Hippocrates, Epid. vi. ſect. 4. ap. 3. *enteron* ſignifies ſimply the colon.

ENTHEMATA, (from εντιθημι, to put in). Medicines applied immediately to recent wounds, in order to prevent an inflammation, and ſtop an hæmorrhage.

ENTHETOS, (ενθετος, from εντιθημι, to put in). Any thing introduced, but particularly ſuch as are put up the noſe, to prevent an hæmorrhage there.

ENTHLASIS, ενθλασις. A contuſion, with the impreſſion of the inſtrument by which it happened.

ENTRICHOMA, (εντριχωμα, from εν and τριχωμα, the hair). The edge of the eye-lid, on which the hairs grow.

ENTYPOSIS, (εντυπωσις, from εντυπωω, to make an impreſſion, of τυπος, a type or image formed by impreſſion). The acetabulum of the humerus.

ENULON, (ενηλον, from εν and ηλον, the gums). The internal fleſh of the gums, or that part of them which is within the mouth.

ENYPOSAPROS, ενυποσαπρος, from εν, within, υπο, a prepoſition, which in compoſition is a diminutive one, and σαπρος, putrid). An epithet uſed to the ſpit of hepatic patients.

ENYSTRON, (ηνυστρον, from ανυω, to perfect). The laſt or fourth

ventricle in animals that chew the cud, which completes the digeſtion. According to Ariſtotle, it is a ſecond ventricle, or thick part of the ſtomach of ruminating animals, in which the food is concocted. Gorræus makes it the ſame with *Abomaſum*.

EON, ηων. The whole compaſs of the eye.

EPACMASTICA, επακμαστικος. It is a continual putrid fever that is ſtill increaſing.

EPAGOGION, επαγωγιον. A name in Dioſcorides for the prepuce.

EPANADIDONTES PURETI. Fevers whoſe heat is not biting to the touch in the beginning, but becomes more and more ſo in the advance.

EPANADIPLOSIS, (επαναδιπλωσις, from διπλης, reduplication). The reduplication of a fit of a ſemi-tertian fever: that is, the renewal of a cold fit before the hot fit is ended.

EPANASTASIS, επαναστασις. A tumour or tubercle.

EPANCYLOTUS, (επαγκυλωτος, from αγκυλος, crooked). A ſort of bandage in Oribaſius.

EPANTHISMA, (επανθισμα, from ανθος, a flower). An efflorescence.

EPAPHÆRESIS, (επαφαιρεσις, from επι, importing a repetition, and αφαιρεσις, a removal). In Galen it is uſed to expreſs a repeated evacuation by bleeding.

EPARCEMOS. An epithet for a perſon affected with that diſorder of the eye called *Argemon*.

EPARITA. A ſort of earth thus named.

EPARMA, επαρμα, or *Eparſis*, (επαρσις, from επαιρω, to elevate). Any kind of tumour, but frequently applied to the parotis.

EPASMASTICA FEBRIS. A fever is thus termed by Bellini, and others long before him, while it is in its increaſe.

EPENCRANIS. A name of the cerebellum.

EPHEBÆON, εφηβαιον. The pubes.

EPHEDRA. The name of an inſtrument for reducing luxations.

EPHEDRANA. The buttocks.

EPHELCIS, (εφελκις, from ελκος, an ulcer). The cruſt of an ulcer, or a ſmall abraſion, or bloody fragment coughed up.

EPHIALTES, (εφιαλτης, from εφαλλομαι, to leap upon). The night-mare.

EPHIALTIA. A name for the *Pæonia*.

EPHODOS, (εφοδος, from επι and οδος, a way). In Hippocrates it hath three ſignifications: 1. the ducts or paſſages by which the excrements of the body are evacuated: 2. the periodical attack of a fever, from the common uſe of it to expreſs the attack of thieves: 3. the acceſs of ſimilar or diſſimilar things, which may be uſeful or hurtful to the body.

EPIALA. A kind of tertian fever.

EPIALOS, επιαλος. An ardent fever in which both heat and cold are felt in the ſame part at the ſame time. Galen defines it to be a fever in which the patient labours under a preternatural heat and a coldneſs at the ſame time. The ancient Latins call it *Quercera*.

EPIBOLE, (from επιβαλλω, to preſs upon). The night-mare.

EPICANTHIDES, επικανθιδες. The two angles of the eyes.

EPICARPIUM, (from επι, *ſuper*, upon, and καρπος, *carpus*, the wriſt), are medicines applied to the wriſts of any kind, but for conveniency they are generally in the forms of cataplaſms or plaſters.

EPICERASTIC, (επικεραστικος, from επι, *ſupra*, above, and κεραννυμι *tempero*, to correct), is a medicine that aſſuages and corrects ſharp humours.

EPICHOLOS, (επιχολος, from χολη, bile). Bilious.

EPICHORDIS, (επιχορδις, from επι and χορδη). The meſentery.

EPICŒLIS, επικοιλις. The upper eyelid, or cilium.

EPICRASIS, επικρασις. A critical evàcuation of bad humours, an attemperation of bad ones. When a cure is performed in the alterative way, it is called *per Epicraſin*.

EPICTENION, (επικτενιον, from επι, upon, and κτεις, pubes). The part above the pubes.

EPICYEMA, (επικυημα, from κυω, to conceive). In Hippocrates it is a fœtus; alſo a mole.

EPICYESIS, (επικυησις, from κυω, to conceive). Superfœtation.

EPIDERIS. The clitoris.

EPIDOSIS, επιδοσις. A preternatural enlargement of the parts.

EPIDROME, (επιδρομη, from επι, upon, and δρεμω, to run). An afflux of humours, as it happens when a ligature is made on any part.

EPIGENNEMA, (επιγεννημα, from επιγενναω, to generate over and above, or anew). Sometimes it ſignifies a ſymptom; at others, any thing grown over another, as when the ſaliva is thickened and forms a fur on the tongue.

EPIGINOMENA, (επιγινομενα, from επιγινομαι, to ſucceed or ſupervene). Galen ſays, they are thoſe ſymptoms which naturally ſucceed, or may be expected in the progreſs of a diſeaſe; but Fæſius ſays, they are acceſſions of ſome other affection to diſeaſes, which never happen but in ſtubborn and malignant diſeaſes.

EPIGLOSSUM. A name for the *Laurus Alexandrina*.

EPIGLOTTUM. An inſtrument mentioned by Paracelſus for elevating the eye-lids.

EPIGLOUTIS, επιγλυτις, or *Epiglutis*, (from επι, above, and γλυτος, the buttock). The ſuperior part of the buttock.

EPIGONATIS, επιγονατις; from επι, upon, and γονυ, a knee). The patella.

EPIGOUNIDES. The muſcles inſerted into the knees.

EPIMORIOS, (επιμοριος, from μοιρα, to divide). Superpartial. In Galen it is an epithet of the difference of pulſes, with reſpect to their inequality of the time they keep in beating.

EPIMULIS, επιμυλις. The knee-pan.

EPINEUCOS, (επινευκως, from νευω, to nod or incline). It is an epithet of a pulſe which beats unequally in different parts of the artery. It is alſo called *Perineneucos*. Galen ſays it is familiar in hectics.

EPINEPHELOS, (επινεφελος, from νεφελη, a cloud). Cloudy; an epithet applied to the enæorema in the urine, which appears like a cloud.

EPINOTION, (επινωτιον, from επι, upon, and νωτος, the back). The ſhoulder-blade.

EPIOS, ηπιος. Mild, gentle, an epithet which Hippocrates beſtows on mild epidemic fevers.

EPIPAROXYSMUS. It is when the patient ſuffers more exacerbations than are uſual in a fever.

EPIPECHY, (επιπηχυ, from επι, above, and πηχυς, the cubit). The parts of the arm above the cubit.

EPIPEPHYCOS, (επιπεφυκως, from επι, upon, and φυω, to grow). A name of the *Tunica conjunctiva*.

EPIPHÆNOMENOS, (επιφαινομενος, from επι, importing addition, and φαινομενον, a phænomenon or ſymptom). An adventitious ſymptom which does not appear till the diſeaſe is found, and ſeems to be the ſame as *Epiginomenos*,

EPIPHLEBOS, (επιφλεβος, from επι and φλεψ, a vein). One whoſe veins are prominent.

EPIPHLOGISMA, (επιφλογισμα, from επι, and φλογιζω, to inflame, of φλοξ, a flame). A violent inflammation, attended with pain, tumour, and redneſs.

EPIPHLOGISMA. A name which Hippocrates gives to the ſhingles; alſo a burning heat in any part.

EPIPLASMA, επιπλασμα. *Cataplaſma.* Alſo a name for an application of wheat meal boiled in hydrelæum to wounds.

EPIPLOOMPHALON, (επιπλοομφαλον, from επιπλοον, the omentum, and ομφαλος, the navel). An hernia umbilicalis.

EPIPLOSCHEOCELE. An hernia in which the omentum deſcends into the ſcrotum.

EPIPOGIUM. A ſpecies of *Satyrium.*

EPIPOLÆUS, επιπολαιος. Slight, gentle. Hippocrates applies it to diſorders that are no way dangerous.

EPIPOLASIS, επιπολασις. A redundance and fluctuation. In cheniſtry, it is when what is ſublimed, aſcends only to the ſurface, and there ſettles.

EPIPOROMA, επιπωρωμα. It is any indurated tumour in the joints, from επιπωροω, to harden; a callous concretion, a tophus, a tophaceous callus moleſting the joints.

EPISARCIDIUM, (επισαρκιδιον, from σαρξ, fleſh). The ſame as *Anaſarca.*

EPISCHION, (επισχιον, from επι, upon, and ισχιον, *iſchium*). The os pubis.

EPISEION, επισειον. The pubes.

EPISTASIS, επιστασις. See *Epiſchheſis.* Alſo the ſubſtance on the ſurface of the urine.

EPISTROPHALUS, (from επι, upon, and στρεφω, to turn about). It is applied to the firſt vertebra of the neck, becauſe it turns about upon the ſecond as upon an axis, which therefore was ſo called by the ancients. Some, though improperly, call the ſecond thus. It is alſo written *Epiſtrophea* and *Epiſtrophis.*

EPITASIS, επιτασις. In Hippocrates it is the beginning and increaſe of the fit.

EPITEDEUMA, επιτηδευμα. The way of living which a perſon preſcribes to himſelf. Cœlius Aurelianus calls it *Vitæ affectiones*, and Celſus calls it *Vita propoſita.*

EPITHEMA, επιθημα, or *Epithem*, (επιθεμα, from επι, upon, and τιθημι, to lay upon or apply). It is any outward application, but generally ſignifies thoſe of a liquid form, like a fomentation.

EPITHESIS, επιθεσις. In ſurgery it is the rectification of crooked limbs by means of inſtruments.

EPOCHETEUSIS, εποχετευσις. A derivation of the juices to the other parts.

EPOMIS, επωμις, *Acromion*; from επι, upon, and ωμος, ſhoulder.

EPOMPHALIUM, (επομφαλιον, from επι, upon, and ομφαλος, the navel). Any application to the navel.

EPODE, επωδη, or *Epodos*, (from επι, over, and ωδη, a ſong): The method of curing diſtempers by incantation.

EREGMOS, (ερεγμος, from ρηγνυμι, to break). It is any leguminous fruit decorticated and broken into pieces. Fœſius ſays it is bean meal.

EREUMENA URA. Urine that aſſumes a cloudy conſiſtence in the middle.

ERUEXIS, ερευξις. Eructation.

ERGALIA. That part of alchemy that explains the inſtruments thereof.

ERGASIMA. A name of the worſt ſort of myrrh.

ERGASTERIUM, (from εργον, a work). A laboratory. In particular, it is that part of a furnace in which the copel, alembic, retort, &c. containing the matter to be acted upon, is repoſited.

ERINEOS. The wild fig-tree.

ERIX. The ſuperior part of the liver.

ERRHIPSIS, (ερριψις, from ριπτω, to precipitate). When ſpoken with reſpect to the body, it ſignifies a loſs of ſtrength.

ERYTHROEIDES, ερυθροειδης, or *Erythroides*, (from ερυθρον, *rubrum*, red, and ειδος, *forma*, appearance), is a red membrane, called alſo *Tunica vaginalis*, embracing looſely the whole body of the teſticles, and adhering to one end of the epididymis.

ESAPHE, (εσαφη, from εσαφαω, to feel with the fingers). The touch or feeling the mouth of the womb, to know its ſtate.

ESEBON. Common ſalt.

ESOCHE, εσωχη. A tubercle within the anus.

ESSATUM POTENTIALE. The medicinal power or virtue which reſides in vegetables and minerals.

ESSATUM VINUM. Spirit of wine impregnated with the medicinal power or virtue of vegetables.

EUANASPHALTOS, (ευαναςφαλτος, from ευ, well, and αναςφαλλω, to recover ſtrength). One who is ſoon reſtored.

EUANTHEMON. Galen ſays it is the ſame as *Anthemis* and *Chamæmelum*.

EUBOICA NUX. The walnut.

EUEMBOLOS, (ευεμβολος, from ευ, well εν, in, and βαλλω, to caſt). One expert at ſetting of bones.

EUEMETI, (ευεμετοι, ευημετοι, from ευ, importing facility, and εμεω, to vomit). Thoſe who vomit with eaſe.

EUEXIA, (ευεξια, from ευ, *bene*, well, and εξις, *habitus*, habit). A ſound and healthy conſtitution, in oppoſition to cachexy, or a bad habit.

EUGEOS, (from ευ, well, and γη, the earth). The uterus is thus named on account of its fertility. It is alſo a name of the hymen.

EULE, ευλη. A worm, properly that is bred in ulcers.

EUODIA, or ευωδη, in oppoſition to *Dyſodes*, is uſed by Hippocrates in his Epidemics, to expreſs an healthful or agreeable diſpoſition; as alſo, a ready method for obtaining any end; and by Scribonius Largus it is applied to a particular collyrium. But we have not heard of this term latterly, unleſs prefixed to a book, the contents of which are as whimſical and unintelligible as the title.

EUPHORIA, ευφορια, is uſed by ſome to expreſs that eaſe with which ſome bear the courſe of a diſtemper, or bear the operation of a medicine; as alſo the aptitude of ſome things to particular operations. From ευ, well, and φερω, to bear.

EUPORISTA, (ευποριστα, from ευ, well, and πορεω, to afford). Medicines eaſily prepared.

EURYTHMIA, (ευρυθμια, from ευ, well, and ρυθμος, order and harmony, properly in muſic). It imports the proper order of the pulſe.

EUSARCOS, ευσαρκος, is uſed by Galen, and others ſince, for ſuch a proportion of fleſh, as is not too lean or too corpulent, but gives due ſymmetry and ſtrength to all the parts.

EUSPLANCHNOS, ευσπλαγχνος, is applied by Hippocrates to thoſe who are ſuppoſed to have ſound viſcera. Thus the adverb ευ is put to ſeveral things to expreſs the goodneſs of their condition; as *Eutaxia*, for an healthful ſtate; *Euthanaſia*, for an eaſy or happy death, &c.

EUTHESIA, ευθεσιη. Galen explains it to be an innate ſtrong habit of body.

EUTHYPOROS, (ευθυπορος, from ευθυς, ſtraight, direct). An epithet of extenſion made with a view to reduce a broken bone.

EUZOMEN. The herb rocket.

EVERRICULUM. In Paré it is a ſort of ſpoon uſed to cure the bladder from gravel, &c. after lithotomy.

EVISTIOLA. In Paracelſus it ſeems to import a leprous diſorder in the nape of the neck.

EXÆRESIS, (from ἐξ, out of, or away, and αἱρω, to remove). It is that part of ſurgery which conſiſts of removing ſuperfluities; as removing parts by amputation, extracting foreign bodies, &c.

EXALMA, (ἐξαλμα, from ἐξαλλομαι, to leap out). Hippocrates applies it to the ſtarting of the vertebræ out of their places.

EXAMBLOMA, ἐξαμβλωμα, or *Exambloſis*. A miſcarriage.

EXANGUIS. Without blood. So Galen and the ancients called the nerves, cartilages, bones, and other parts which appeared white.

EXANTHROPIA. According to Wedelius, it is the third degree of melancholy.

EXARMA, (ἐξαρμα, from ἐξαιρομαι, to be elevated). An elevated tumour.

EXARSIO. An hot intemperature, ſuch as happens in hectic fevers.

EXARTHREMA, (ἐξαρθρημα, from ἐξ, out of, and ἀρθρον, a joint). A luxation.

EXARTHROS, ἐξαρθρος. An epithet for a perſon whoſe joints are large and prominent.

EXCIPULUM. In chemiſtry, it is a receiver.

EXCLUSORIUM. A medicine which cauſes abortion.

EXECHEBRONCHOS, ἐξεχεβρογχος. An epithet for a perſon who hath a prominent throat.

EXECHEGLUTOS, ἐξεχεγλυτος. One who hath prominent buttocks.

EXELCOSIS, (from ἑλκος, an ulcer). Ulceration.

EXERAMA, ἐξεραμα. The matter ejected by vomiting.

EXIPOTICOS, (ἐξιπωτικος, from ἐξιπτομαι, to be preſſed out). An epithet for digeſting or deterging medicines.

EXITURA. A ſuppurated abſceſs, Paracelſus applies it to all ſorts of putrid excrements.

EXOCHAS, or *Exache*, (ἐξοχας, ἐξοχη, from ἐξω, without, and ἐχω, to have). A tubercle on the outſide of the anus.

EXOCYSTIS. A prolapſus of the internal membrane of the bladder.

EXONCHOMA, (from ἐξ, out, and ογκος, a tumour). Any large prominent tumour.

EXONEIROSIS, ἐξονειρωσις, is by Linden explained, a ſpecies of gonorrhæa, commonly called *Pollutio nocturna*, when the ſemen involuntarily flows in ſleep; from ἐξ, out, and ονειρος, a dream.

EXORCISM, ἐξορκισμος, hath been introduced into the practice of phyſic by enthuſiaſts, who pretended by ſome religious ceremonies to expel an evil ſpirit out of the body, which was ſuppoſed the cauſe of diſeaſes.

EXOS. A leech; alſo a fiſh from which iſinglaſs is obtained.

EXSUCCASIO. An ecchymoſis.

EXTRAVERSIO. Extraverſion. In chemiſtry, it is the rendering manifeſt any thing ſaline, alkaline, or acid, concealed in mixed bodies, and is juſt the reverſe to one ſpecies of concentration,

EXTRINSECI. The external parts, particularly the limbs; alſo painful diſorders in the external parts.

F.

FI

FARCTURA. In pharmacy, it is the ſtuffing of any exenterated animal, or excavated fruit, with medicinal ingredients.

FARFARUS. White poplar.

FERINA. That delirium in which the patient rages violently, and is furious.

FERSA. The meaſles.

FILELLUM. The frenum of the prepuce.

FILETUM. The frenum under the tongue.

FLEMEN. A tumour of the foot, about the ancle. Sometimes it ſignifies callous furrows in the hands and feet.

FU

FLERESIN. A name for the gout.

FODINA. The labyrinth in the bone of the ear is thus called.

FONTALE ACETOSUM. In Paracelſus it is the ſame as *Acidulæ*.

FRIESEL. So the Germans call the miliary fever.

FRIGERARIA. The putrid fever.

FURCELLA. The enſiform cartilage.

G.

GA

GABIREA. A fatty kind of myrrh, mentioned by Dioſcorides.

GÆODES. A ſpecies of *Ætites*, or a round ſort of *Belemnites*.

GALACTIA. An exceſs or overflowing of the milk.

GALACTODES, γαλακτωδης. In Hippocrates it ſignifies both milk warm and a milky colour.

GALACTOPHORA MEDICAMENTA. Medicines which increaſe the milk.

GALÆNA INANIS. Biſmuth.

GALACTOPOETICA, (from γαλα, milk, and ποιεω, to make). Milk-making, an epithet applied to the faculty of making milk.

GALACTOPOSIA. The method of curing by a milk diet.

GALBEI, or *Galbeum*. A ſort of ornamental and medical bracelets worn by the Romans.

GA

GALBULUS. When the ſkin of the body is naturally yellow.

GALEANIONES. People with one arm ſhorter than the other.

GALEANTHROPIA. It is a ſpecies of madneſs in which a patient imagines himſelf to be a cat, and then he imitates its manners. The name ſeems to be from γαλεη, a cat, and ανθρωπος, a man.

GALENIC MEDICINE, is that practice of medicine which conforms to the rules of Galen, and runs much upon multiplying herbs and roots in the ſame compoſition, though ſeldom torturing them any otherwiſe than by decoction, in oppoſition to chemical medicine, which by the force of fire and a great deal of art, fetches out the virtues of bodies, chiefly mineral, into a ſmall compaſs.

GALIANCON. One arm ſhorter than the other.

GAMPHELE, γαμφηλη, the cheek, the jaw; from γαμψος, crooked.

GANGAMON, γαγγαμων. A name of the omentum, from its ſuppoſed likeneſs to a fiſhing net, which the Greeks call *Gangamon*. Some call that contexture of nerves about the navel thus.

GARAB. An Arabic name for the diſorder called *Ægilops*.

GARGALA, γαργαλη, *Gargalos*, *Gargaliſmos*. Irritation or ſtimulation.

GARGATHUM. A bed on which lunatics, &c. were formerly confined.

GARON, γαρον, or *Garum*. A kind of pickle prepared of fiſh; at firſt it was made from a fiſh which the Greeks call *Garos*; but the beſt was made from mackrels. Among the moderns, *garum* ſignifies the liquor in which fiſh is pickled.

GEISON, γεισον. Properly the eaves of houſes, but by a metaphor is uſed for the prominent part of the eyebrows.

GELASINOS, (γελάσινος, from γελως, laughter). An epithet for the four middle foreteeth, becauſe they are ſhewn in laughter.

GELASMUS. The Sardonic laugh.

GEMURSA. The name of an exceſcence between the toes.

GENEIAS. The downy hairs which firſt cover the cheek; alſo the name of a bandage mentioned by Galen; and comes under the chin.

GENUGRA. A name in Paracelſus for the gout in the knee.

GERANIUM. A bandage was ſo named.

GEROCOMIA, (from γερων, an aged perſon, and κομεω, to be concerned about). It is that part of medicine that preſcribes to old age.

GERULA, In Paracelſus, it is a monſtrous plant.

GERYON. Quickſilver.

GINGIBRACHIUM. A name for the ſcurvy, becauſe the gums, arms, and legs are affected with it.

GINGIDIUM. A ſpecies of *Daucus*.

GINGIHIL. Zingiber.

GINGIPEDIUM. A name for the ſcurvy, becauſe the arms and legs are affected.

GIR. Quicklime.

GIRMER. Tartar.

GLABELLA. The ſpace betwixt the eye-brows.

GLANDULOSOCARNEUS. An epithet given by Ruyſch, to ſome excreſcences which he obſerved in the bladder.

GLECNON. Pennyroyal.

GLECHONITES. Wine impregnated with pennyroyal.

GLENE, γληνη, ſtrictly ſignifies the cavity or ſocket of the eye; but by ſome anatomiſts is alſo uſed for that cavity of a bone which receives another within it.

GLEUCOS, γλευκος. Muſt; and ſometimes it ſignifies ſweet wines.

GLISCERE. To increaſe gradually, properly as fire does; but by phyſical writers is ſometimes applied to the natural heat and increaſe of ſpirits; and by others to the exacerbation of fevers, which return periodically.

GLISCHROCHOLOS, γλισχροχολος. An epithet for bilious viſcid excrements.

GLISOMARGO. White chalk.

GLOSSAGRA. A rheumatic pain in the tongue.

GLOSSOCATOCHOS, (γλωσσοκατοχος. An inſtrument in P. Ægineta for depreſſing the tongue. A ſpatula linguæ, from γλωσσα tongue, and κατιχω, to hold.

GLOSSOCELE. An extruſion of the tongue.

GLOSSOCOMA. A retraction of the tongue.

GLOSSOCOMON, (γλωσσοκομον, from γλωσσα, a tongue, and κομεω,

to guard). An inſtrument or caſe for containing a fractured limb.

GLUTIA, γλουτια. The two ſmall protuberances in the brain, called *Nates*.

GLUTTUPATENS. An epithet for the ſtomach.

GNIDIUS, is applied by Hippocrates, and others ſince, to ſome medicinal precepts wrote in the iſland of Gnidos.

GONAGRA, (from γονυ, *genu*, the knee, and αγρευω, *capio*, to take), is the gout in the knee.

GONE, γονη. The ſeed. But in Hippocrates it is the uterus.

GONGRONA, γογγρωνη. A round tubercle in the trunk of a tree. Any hard round tumour of the nervous parts, but particularly a bronchocele, or other hard tumour of the neck.

GONGYLION, γογγυλιον. A pill.

GONOIDES, (from γονη, ſeed, and ειδος, form). Reſembling ſeed. Hippocrates often uſes it as an epithet for the excrements of the belly, and for the contents of the urine, when there is ſomething in them, which reſembles the ſeminal matter.

GRAMIA. The ſordes of the eyes.

GRAMME, γραμμη. The iris of the eye.

GRAPHIOIDES, (γραφιοειδης, from γραφις, *ſtylus*, a pencil, and ειδος, a form). The proceſſus ſtyliformis. Alſo a proceſs of the ulna towards the wriſt. The muſculus biventer vel digaſtricus was formerly ſo called from its ſuppoſed origination from the proceſs of the temple bone ſo called.

GRATTERONA. *Aparine.*

GRAVATIO. *Caros.*

GNOSSUS. An unripe fig.

GYMNASTIC, (from γυμναζω, *exerceo*, to exerciſe), is ſuch a method of cure as is performed by exerciſe, or that part of phyſic which treats of the rules that are to be obſerved in all ſorts of exerciſes, for the preſervation of health. This is ſaid to have been invented by one Herodicus, born at Salymbra, a city of Thrace; or, as ſome ſay, at Leutini in Sicily. He was firſt maſter of an academy where young gentlemen came to learn warlike and manly exerciſes; and whom he obſerving to be very healthful on that account, he made exerciſe become an art in reference to the recovering of men out of diſeaſes, as well as preſerving them from them: and called it *Gymnaſtic*, which he made a great part of his practice of phyſic. But Hippocrates, who was his ſcholar, blames him ſometimes for his exceſſes in this kind of phyſic. And Plato exclaims againſt him with ſome warmth, for enjoining his patients to walk from Athens to Megara, which is about 25 miles, and to come home on foot as they went, as ſoon as ever they had but touched the walls of the city.

GYNÆCIA, (γυναικεια, from γυνη, woman). It ſignifies the menſtrua, and ſometimes the lochia.

GYNÆCIUM, (γυναικειον, from γυνη, a woman). A ſeraglio, alſo a name for *Antimony*.

GYNECOMASTON. γυναικομαστον. An enormous increaſe of the breaſts of women.

GYNÆCOMASTOS, γυναικομαστος. A man whoſe breaſts are large, like a woman's; from γυνη, a woman, and μαστος, breaſt. Alſo tumours on women's breaſts.

GYNÆCOMYSTAX, (from γυνη, a woman, and μυσταξ, a beard). The hairs on the female pudenda.

H.

HABENA. The name of a bandage, contrived to keep he lips of wounds together.

HADID. Iron.

HÆCCEITAS. The quinta eſſen-ia of the chemiſts.

HÆMAGOGOS, (from αιμα, blood, nd αγω, to bring away). The ame of an antidote in Nicolaus My-epſus, which was uſed for promot-ng the menſtrual and hæmorrhoidal luxes.

HÆMALOPS, (αιμαλωψ, from αι-μα, blood, and ωψ, the countenance). The livid marks of ſugillations in the ace and eyes.

HÆMATOPORIA. A waſting from poverty of blood.

HÆMATIA, αιματια, or *Hæmation*, αιματιον. An epithet for a ſort of garum, made of the inteſtines of fiſh macerated in ſalt.

HÆMATOCHYSIS, (from αιμα, blood, and χεω, to pour out). It is a term uſed by Willis to ſignify an hæmorrhage.

HÆMATOPEDESIS. Bloody ſweat.

HÆMATOPHLŒBŒSTASIS, αιμα-τοφλοιβοιστασις. Blood-making. The liver was formerly ſuppoſed to be the hæmatopoëtic viſcus, or that which converted the chyle into blood.

HÆMATOPS, is ſtrictly uſed by ſome for any bloody ſuffuſion of the eyes from external injuries, or other-wiſe, as the words from whence it is derived ſignify *bloody eyes*. But Hip-pocrates uſes it frequently in a more lax ſenſe, for any concreted or ſtag-nant blood.

HÆMITRITÆA, *Hæmitritæus*, ημι-τριταιος, a ſpecies of fever, viz. the ſemitertian.

HÆMOCERCHNUS, αιμοκιρχνον. Blood brought up from the fauces, with a noiſe, or rattling, or bloody excretions diſcharged in a dry form.

HÆMODIA, οιμωδια. Stupor of the teeth with pain.

HALATION, αλατιον, is a purging medicine prepared with ſalt, and to be uſed at table inſtead thereof: but we find little of this kind retained in the preſent practice.

HALCHEMIA. The art of fuſing ſalts.

HALCYONIUM. The ſpume or froth of the ſea. It is oily or bitu-minous.

HALICES. Pandiculation after ſleep, or upon awaking.

HALINITRON, is uſed by the La-tin writers Hoffman, Paracelſus, and ſome others, for the common ſal ni-tri or ſaltpetre.

HALMYRAX. A ſort of nitre pro-duced in the valleys of Media.

HALMYRIS. The name of a ſpe-cies of Sea-cabbage.

HALMYRODES, αλμυρωδης, *ſalſu-ginoſus*, is a term given by Hippo-crates to a particular fever that is attended with ſharp brackiſh ſweats.

HALOTECHNICS. The art of ex-tracting ſalts and their ſpirits.

HANDAL, *Handala*. Bitter-apple.

HAPSIS, αψις. The ſenſe of feel-ing. It alſo ſignifies connection with reſpect to bandages. And αψις φρενων in Hippocrates, ſignifies mad-neſs, delirium, or loſs of reaſon.

HAPSICORIA. A ſort of loath-ing of food.

HARMOS. The flesh that grows betwixt the teeth.

HARPAGA. Amber.

HARPASTRUM. A species of exercise with a ball.

HARPAX. Amber; also a mixture of quick-lime and sulphur,

HARUNDO. The Indian reed.

HASACIUM. Sal ammoniac.

HASTELLÆ. Splints used in fractures.

HAUD. Wood. The Arabs call the agalochum thus, by way of eminence. It is also called *Haud alcumeri*, *Haud hend*, and *Haud heud*.

HEAUTONTIMOREUMENOS. One who torments himself.

HEBDOMEDARIA. It is one of the febres erraticæ.

HEBE, ἥβη. This word is used in three different significations, viz. for the first hair appearing about the genital parts; for the parts themselves; but more justly, for that time of youth at which it first appears: whence custom hath appropriated it almost solely to the latter, or to signify youth in general.

HEDRA, ἕδρα. The anus; also the excrements thence voided. It sometimes signifies the basis of an abscess, or that part which is subjected to that which is converted into pus. Hippocrates sometimes uses this word to signify a species of fracture.

HEDRICOS. An epithet for remedies appropriated to the anus.

HEDYCHROI, ἡδύχροοι. A name for certain troches.

HEDYOSMOS. A name of mint, on account of its sweet smell.

HELCYDRION. A small ulcerous pustule.

HELCYSTER, from ἕλκω, to draw. A hook for extracting the fœtus.

HELEAGNUS. A species of *Gale*.

HELENIASTRUM. Bastard elecampane.

HELIOSCOPIOS. Sun-spurge.

HELIOTROPIUM INDICUM. Potatoes.

HELLEBORIZE. Hippocrates, and others after him, used prepared hellebore, which they introduced into the rectum both for vomiting and purging, which they made stronger or weaker as they required, and the vomiting, purging, or both produced thus, they called *Helleborizing*.

HELOCAPOLIN. A sort of cherry.

HELODES, or *Heloides*, ἑλώδης, the same also as τυφώδης, is a particular kind of fever attended with colliquative sweats, and hath, at the same time, the tongue dry and hard. Some take the Anglicus sudor, which was epidemical, and described by Lord Verulam in his History of Henry the VIIth's reign, to have been of this kind.

HELOTIS. *Plica Polonica*.

HEMINA, ἡμίνα. An ancient measure of different contents in different nations; but now used in medicine to signify about ten ounces in measure.

HEMIOBOLION, or *Hemiobolon*, ἡμιοβόλιον. Half an obolus.

HEMIOLION, ἡμιόλιον. The same as *Sesquialtera*. But in Galen de C. M. S. L. it particularly signifies an ounce and half.

HEMIONIS, (ἡμιονὶς, from ἡμίονος, a mule). Mule's dung.

HEMIONIUM. A name for the *Asplenium*.

HEMIPLEXIA, ἡμιπληξία. The same as *Hemiplegia*. or according to some, when one half of the body is affected after the manner of an apoplexy.

HEMIRHOMBION, ἡμιρόμβιον, or *Hemitomon*. A sort of bandage mentioned by Hippocrates, called also *Semirhombus*, from its figure.

HEPATEROS, (ἡπατηρὸς, from ἧπαρ the liver). It is an epithet for a sort of dysentery, in which an aqueous blood is secreted.

HERACLEIOS, (ηρακλειος, or *Heracleius*, from Ηρακλης, *Hercules*, Herculean). An epithet of the epilepsy and of the mania. It is a name also of the load-stone.

HERACLEOTICON. Origanum, so called from *Heraclea*, where the best was produced.

HERCULEUS MORBUS. The epilepsy is thus called, from the terror of its attacks, and difficulty of cure. Some medicines also, upon the same foundation, have been called *Herculean*, in order to denote their uncommon force; but such conceits are now much in neglect,

HERPETON, ερπητον. In Hippocrates it is a creeping pustule or ulcer.

HETERORHYTHOMOS. Is made by Galen a species of the αρυθμος, which is any irregularity of the pulse; this restraining it to that particular sort, where it beats like one of a greater or lesser age; as if a child hath a pulse like one more advanced in years, on the contrary.

HIDROCRITICA, (from ιδρως, sweat, and κρινω, to judge). Signs taken from sweat.

HIDRONOSOS, } *Sudor Anglicus.*
HIDROPYRETOS, }

HIDROTICA, } *Sudorifics.*
HIDROTOPSEA, }

HIERA DIACOLOCYNTHIDOS. An electary was formerly prepared under this name, and so called from the colocynth which was the principal ingredient in it.

HIERANOSOS. Convulsion. Some express by it, a continued kind of convulsion without pain or loss of sensibility,

HIERA PICRA. The holy bitter. It was formerly called *Hiera Logadii*. It is a particular composition of aloes and spices, and so called from the supposed excellency of its virtues; the words ιερα, *sancta*, and πικρα, *amara*, signifying the holy bitter. The term *Hiera* hath also for the same reason been given to divers compositions, by Logadius, Ruffus, Archigenes, and others, at large described by Ægineta, lib. vii. cap. 8. but they are all discontinued in the present practice.

HIEROPYR. The same as the erythematous species of *Inflammation*.

AIMANTOSIS, ιμαντωσις. Relaxation, or lengthening or smallness of the uvula.

HIMAS, ιμας. Properly a leather thong or strap. But in medicine it is a laxness of the uvula, when it becomes long and slender. It differs from the cionis, which is when the uvula is thickened.

HIN. *Asafœtida.*

HING. The Indian and Persian name for asafœtida.

HINGISH. The asafœtida; and the plant which affords it.

HIPPACE, ιππακη. The rennet of a colt; also the name by which the ancient Nomades, a people of Scythia, called the cheese which they made of mare's milk.

HIPPOCRATES'S SLEEVE. A woollen bag, made by joining the two opposite angles of a square piece of flannel, in the form of a pyramid, used to strain syrups and decoctions for clarification.

HIPPOLAPATHUM. Monks rhubarb.

HIPPOMANES, (from ιππος, a horse, and μαινομαι, to be mad). It is a name for the *Cynocrambe*, because it makes horses mad if they eat it. Some take it to signify the secundines of a mare. Lastly, the fleshy substance which sometimes adheres to the forehead of a new foaled colt is thus named.

HIPPOMARATHRUM, (from ιππος, a horse, and μαραθρον, fennel). Horse-fennel. A name also of the English saxifrage: and of a species of *Seseli*.

HIPPURIS, (ιππουρις, from ιππος, a horſe, and ουρα, a tail). It is by the ancient writers in botany, uſed for the ſame plant as the equiſetum, but is alſo by Hippocrates applied to ſuch diſorders as are apt to proceed from much riding; as debility and weeping of the genital parts.

HIRA. Some expreſs by it the inteſtinum jejunum; others extend it to all the inteſtines; and others mean by it all the contents of the abdomen.

HIRAPITANGA BRASILIENSIBUS Braſil-wood.

HIRCULUS. A ſpecies of ſaxifrage.

HIRCUS. Every one knows properly to ſignify a goat; but becauſe that creature it remarkable for its ſalacity, and inclination to venery, ſome phyſical writers have thought fit to apply *Hircoſi*, to perſons of like diſpoſitions; eſpecially thoſe juſt come to puberty, or full growth.

HIRQUUS. The great angle of the eye.

HISPANICUM VIRIDE. Verdigris.

HISPIDITAS. Hairineſs in general, but in a particular ſenſe, it is uſed to ſignify either the diſeaſe called *Phalangoſis*, or that called *Diſtichiaſis*.

HOITZILOXITL. Balſam of Peru.

HOLCIMOS, (from ελκω, to draw). An epithet applied to what may be drawn out, and ſtill preſerve its continuity. It is alſo ſpoken of the liver affected with a tumor. See Galen de Log. Affect.

HOLERA. An antiquated word for *Cholera*.

HOLIPPÆ. Thin cakes made with flour and ſugar, poured upon a hot iron, figured, and then ſet to the fire; in ſome diſpenſatories there are purging and other *Holippæ*.

HOLOTONICOS, from ολος, whole, and τεινω, to ſtretch). It is ſpoken of a univerſal convulſion, or a rigor of the whole body. It is the ſame as *Tetanus*.

HOLQUAHUILT. Peruvian bark.

HOMA. A kind of anaſarcous ſwelling.

HOMOLINON. Crude-flax, or coarſe flaxen cloth of which towels were made for the public baths.

HOMONOPAGIA. Head-ach.

HOMOPLATÆ. The ſhoulder-blades.

HOMOTONOS, (ομοτονος, equal, or rather equable), is ſaid of ſuch diſtempers as keep a conſtant tenor of riſe, ſtate, and declenſion; and is particularly applied by Galen, to thoſe continued fevers, which are by others alſo called ακμαστικαι, Acmaſtic, laſt deſcribed by Bellini De Febr.

HOMUNCULUS. Paracelſus would make a man without a woman, and digeſted ſemen maſculinum in a glaſs placed in a dunghill, and produced ſomething like a man, according to the aſſertion of ſome of his diſciples; this was called *homunculus Paracelſus*.

HORDEACEUM VINUM. Beer.

HOROSCOPE, ωροσκοπος, was one who pretended to tell from the figure of a plant, what celeſtial influence it was under, and what virtues from thence obtained; but Galen in his time, took notice of ſuch with deriſion. It is ſince become alſo a term amongſt aſtrologers, of not much better repute.

HORTUS, ſignifying a garden; ſome writers, as Rolfinkius, Macreen, and others have thought fit to apply it to the privy parts of a woman.

HYANCHE, (from υς, a ſwine, and αγχω, to ſtrangle). A quinſey, accompanied with an external tumor on each ſide of the throat, is thus called, becauſe the necks of ſwine are ſubject to ſwellings.

HYBANTHUS. A species of *Viola*.

HYDATODES, (ὑδατωδης, or *Hydatoides*, from ὑδατος, the genitive case of ὑδωρ, water, and εἰδος, shape). Watery. It is an epithet for wine much diluted with water; for limpid urine; for the aqueous humour of the eye, and for one in an *Anasarca*.

HYDEROS, ὑδερος. A general name for a dropsy; but by Galen it is particularly applied to *Anasarca*.

HYDRELÆUM, ὑδρελαιον. A mixture of oil and water.

HYDRENTEROCELE, (ὑδρεντεροκηλη, from ὑδωρ, water, ἐντερον, an intestine, and κηλη, a tumor). A tumour from the dropsy, and a hernia together.

HEDROCELODES. A suppression of urine from a rupture of the urethra into the scrotum.

HYDROMELON, ὑδρομηλον. It is made of one part honey impregnated with quinces, and two parts of boiled water, set in the sun during the dog days.

HYDRONOSOS, } from ὑδωρ water,
HYDRONOSUS, } and νοσος, a disease). *Sudor Anglicus*.

HYDROPEGE, (from ὑδωρ, water, and πηγη, a spring), Spring-water.

HYDROPHYSOCELE, (from ὑδωρ, water, φυσα, a flatus, and κηλη, a hernia). A hernia proceeding from a mixture of water and flatulencies.

HYDROPNEUMOSARCA, (from ὑδωρ, water, πνευμα, spirit or wind, and σαρξ, flesh). It is a tumor or abscess, from a mixture of flatulent, or aqueous and carneous substances.

HYDROPEIDES, (ὑδροπεις, from ὑδρωψ, a dropsy, and εἰδος, resemblance). It is applied to aqueous excretions, such as are common in dropsies.

HYDROPYRETOS, (ὑδροπυρετος, from ὑδωρ, water, and πυρετος, a fever). Blanchard says it is the same as the *Sudor Anglicus*.

HYDROROSATON, (ὑδροροσατον, from ὑδωρ, water, and ῥοδον, a rose). It is a drink made of water, honey, and the juice of roses. See *Æginetæ* lib. vii. cap. 15.

HYDRORRHODINON, ὑδρορροδινον. It is water mixed with the oil of roses.

HYDROSACCHARUM, ὑδροσακχαρον. It is a composition of sugar and water, which answers to the *Hydromel*, by changing honey for sugar.

HYDROSARCA, (from ὑδωρ, water, and σαρξ, flesh). A tumor formed of water and of flesh.

HYDROSARCOCELE, (from ὑδωρ, water, σαρξ, flesh; and κηλη, a tumour). A species of *Hernia*, composed of flesh and water.

HYDROSELINUM. Water-parsley.

HYDROTICUS, *Hydroticè*, (ὑδρωτικος, from ἱδρως, sweat). A medicine that promotes sweat.

HYPALEIPTRON, ὑπαλειπτρον. A sort of spatula for spreading ointments with.

HYPALEIPTON, ὑπαλειπτον. A ligament.

HYPERÆSTHESES. Error of appetite whether by excess or deficiency. It is synonimous with Dr. Cullen's order of *Dysorexiæ*.

HYPERCATHARSIS, (ὑπερκαθαρσις, from ὑπερ, *supra*, over or above, and καθαιρω, *purgo*, to purge), is when medicine has purged to excess. It is a variety of the *Diarrhœa Mucosa*, in Dr. Cullen's Nosology.

HYPERCORYPHOSIS, (ὑπερκορυφωσις, from ὑπερ, above, and κορυφη, the vertex). A prominence or protuberance. Hippocrates calls the lobes of the liver and lungs *Hypercoryphoses*.

HYPERCRISIS, (ὑπερκρισις, from ὑπερ, over or above, and κρινω, to separate). It is a critical excretion above measure; as when a fever terminates in a looseness, the humours may flow off faster than the strength can bear, and therefore it is to be checked.

HYPERECRISIS, ὑπερεκκρισις. Su-

perexcretion. It is the same as hypercrisis.

HYPEREPHIDROSIS, (from ὑπερ, excess, and ἱδρως, sweat). Immoderate sweating.

HYPERINESIS, ὑπερινησις. *Hypercatharsis.*

HYPERINOS, ὑπερινος. *Hypercatharsis*; also the person who suffers from it.

HYPEROA, (ὑπερωα, from ὑπερ, above). The palate.

HYPERSARCOMA. A polypus in the nose. A fleshy excrescence.

HYPEXODOS, (ὑπεξοδος, from ὑπο, under, and ἐξοδος, passing out). A flux of the belly.

HYPEXOCOS, ὑπεξωκος. It signifies the membranes which are spread under other parts, as the pleura, &c.

HYPNOBATES, ὑπνοβατης, HYPNOBATASIS, } (from ὑπνος, sleep, and βαινω, to go). One who walks in his sleep. It is the same as *Somnambulo*; and is a species of *Oneirodynia.*

HYPNOLOGICA. It teaches the due regulation of sleep and waking.

HYPNOPŒOS, (ὑπνοποιος, from ὑπνος, and ποιεω, to cause). Such medicines as procure sleep.

HYPNOTIC, (ὑπνοτικος, from ὑπνος, *somnus*, sleep). Any medicine that induces sleep.

HYPOCAPNISMA. Suffumigation.

HYPOCARODES. HYPOCAROTHIS. } One who labours under a low degree of carus.

HYPOCATHARSIS, (ὑποκαθαρσις, from ὑπο, *sub*, under, and καθαιρω, *purgo* to purge). It is when a medicine does not work so much as expected, or but very little. Or a slight purging, when it is a disorder.

HYPOCAUSTUM, (ὑποκαυστον, from ὑπο, *sub*, under, and καιω, *uro*, to burn), A stove, or hot-house, or any such like contrivance; or place to sweat in, or to preserve plants from cold air.

HYPOCERCHALEON, (ὑποκερχαλεον, from ὑπο, and κερχνος, an asperity of the fauces). A stridulous kind of *Asperity of the Fauces* and *Aspera Arteria.*

HYPOCHEOMENOS, ὑποχεομενος. One who labours under a cataract.

HYPOCHYMA, ὑποχυμα, HYPOCHYSIS, ὑποχυσις, } (from ὑπο and χυω, to pour). A cataract.

HYPOCOELON, (ὑποκοιλον, from ὑπο, under, and κοιλον, the cavity above the upper eye-lid). It is the cavity under the lower eye-lid.

HYPOCOPHOSIS, ὑποκωφωσις. *Cophosis*, but in a less degree.

HYPOCRANIUM. A kind of abscess, so called because seated under the cranium, between it and the dura mater.

HYPODEIRIS, ὑποδειρις. In Rufus Ephesius, it is the extremity of the fore-part of the neck.

HYPODERMIS. The clitoris.

HYPOGLOTTIDES, ὑπογλωττιδες. They are a kind of medicine to be held under the tongue until they are dissolved.

HYPOGLUTIS, (ὑπογλυτις, from ὑπο, under, and γλυτος, the nates). It is the fleshy part under the nates towards the thigh. Some say it is the flexure of the coxa, under the nates.

HYPOMIA, (ὑπωμια, from ὑπο, under, and ωμος, shoulder). In Galen's Exegesis, it is the part subjacent to the shoulder.

HYPONOMOS, (ὑπονομος. from ὑπονομος, a phagedenic ulcer). A subterraneous place A deep phagedenic ulcer.

HYPOPEDIUM. A cataplasm for the sole of the foot.

HYPOPHASIA, HYPOPHASIS, (ὑποφασις, } from ὑποφαινομαι, to appear a little). It is a sort of winking when the eye-lids

ire nearly closed, or it is when a lit-
le of the white of the eyes appear
n sleep.

HYPOPHASIS, ὑποφασις. The name of a symptom which consists of closing the eyes during sleep, but only so, that a part of the eye appears, and a slight motion of the eye is perceived.

HYPOPHORA, (ὑποφορα, from ὑποφερομαι, to be carried or conveyed underneath). A deep fistulous ulcer.

HYPOPHTHALMION, ὑποφθαλμιον. The part under the eye which is subject to swell in a cachexy or dropsy.

HYPOPIA. Sugillations in the parts under the eyes.

HYPOPLEURIOS, ὑποπλευριος. The pleura.

HYPOPYON, (ὑποπυον, from ὑπο, under, and πυον, pus). It is a collection of matter under the tunica cornea of the eye.

HYPORINION, ὑποριν̃ιον. A name for the parts of the upper lip below the nostrils.

HYPOSARCA, ὑποσαρκα, }
HYPOSARCIDIOS, ὑποσαρκιδιος, } (from ὑπο, under, and σαρξ, flesh). An anasarca. In Dr. Cullen's Nosology, it is synonimous with *Physconia*.

HYPOSPADÆOS, ὑποσπαδιαιος. The urethra terminating under the glans.

HYPOSPATHISMUS, ὑποσπαθισμος. The name of an operation formerly used in surgery, for removing defluxions in the eyes. It was thus named from the instrument with which it was performed.

HYPOSPHAGMA, ὑποσφαγμα. *Apossphagma*. It is an extravasation of blood in the tunica adnata of the eye, from external injury.

HYPOSTAPHYLE. Relaxation of the uvula.

HYPOSTASIS, (ὑποστασις, from ὑφιστημι, to subside). A sediment, as the sediment in urine.

HYPOTHETON. A suppository.

HYPOXYLON. A species of *Clavaria*.

HYPOZOMA. A name for the *Diaphragm*.

HYPSILOIDES, ὑψιλοειδης. A name of the *Os Hyoides*; also of the *Basioglossus muscle*. See *Hyoglossus*.

HYPTIASMOS, ὑπτιασμος. A supine decubiture, or a nausea with inclination to vomit.

HYPULUS, (ὑπ̃ελος, from ὑπο, under, and ελη, a cicatrix). An ulcer which lies under a cicatrix.

HYSSOPITES. Wine impregnated with hyssop.

HYSSOPUS CAPITATA. Wild thyme.

HYSTERIALGES, ὑστεραλγης. An epithet for any thing that excites pain in the uterus. Hippocrates applies this word to vinegar; and others signify by it, the pains which resemble labour-pains, generally called *false pains*.

HYSTEROLOXIA. Obliquity of the womb.

HYSTERON, ὑστερον. The secundines.

HYSTEROPHYSE. *Physometra*.

HYSTEROPHORUS. A species of *Parthenium*.

I.

JACINTHUS. *Hyacinthus.*

JAMBLICI SALES. A preparation with ſal ammoniac, ſome aromatic ingredients, &c. ſo called from Jamblichus, the inventor of it.

JATRALEIPTES, (ἰατραλειπτης, from ἰατρος, a phyſician, and ἀλειφω, to anoint). One who undertakes to cure diſtempers by external unction and friction: Galen makes mention of ſuch in his time, particularly one Diotas; and Pliny informs us, that this was firſt introduced by Prodicus of Selymbria, who was a diſciple of Æſculapius.

JATROCHYMICUS, ἰατροχυμικος. A chemical phyſician, called *Chymiater*, who cures by means of chemical medicines.

JATROLIPTICE, ἰατρολειπτικη. The method of curing diſeaſes by unction and friction.

JATROPHYSICUS. An epithet beſtowed on ſome writings which treat of phyſical ſubjects with relation to medicines.

IBIRACE. *Guaiacum.*

IBIRÆUM. A wild ſpecies of liquorice found in Braſil.

IBIRA PATANGA. The *Lignum Braſilium.*

IBIS, ἰβις, was a bird much like our king-fiſher, taken notice of by the Egyptians, becauſe when it was ſick, it uſed to inject with its long-bill the water of the Nile into its fundament, whence Langius, lib. ii. ep. ii. ſays they learned the uſe of clyſters.

IBISCUI. Marſhmallow.

IBIXUMA. *Saponaria Arbor.*

ICAGO. The cocoa palm-tree.

ICTHYA, ἰχθυς. The ſkin of the *Squatina*, or monk-fiſh: alſo the name of a hook for extracting the fœtus.

ICTERUS ALBUS. The white jaundice. The chloroſis or green-ſickneſs is ſometimes thus called.

ICTUS. A ſtroke or blow. It ſignifies alſo the pulſation of an artery, and the ſting of a bee or other inſect.

IDIOTROPIA. *Idioſyncraſia.*

IGASUR. *Nux Vomica.*

IGNIS CALIDUS. A hot fire: ſo ſome call a gangrene: alſo a violent inflammation juſt about to degenerate into a gangrene.

IGNIS FRIGIDUS. A cold fire. A ſphacelus hath been thus called, becauſe the parts that are ſo affected become cold as the ſurrounding air.

IGNIS PERSICUS. A name of the eryſipelas, alſo of the tumour called a carbuncle.

IGNIS SACER. A name of the eryſipelas, and of a ſpecies of *Herpes.* It is alſo the erythematous ſpecies of inflammation.

IGNIS SILVATICUS. A name of the *Impetigo.*

IGNIS ROTÆ. Fire for fuſion. It is when a veſſel which contains ſome matter for fuſion is ſurrounded with live, i. e. red hot coals.

IGNIS SAPIENTIUM. Heat of horſe-dung.

IGNIS VOLAGRIUS, or *Volaticus.* A name of the *Impetigo.*

IGNYE, or *Ignys.* The ham.

ILAPHIS. A name in Myrepſus for the burdock.

ILECH. By this word, Paracelſus ſeems to mean a firſt principle.

ILEIDOS. In the Spagyric language it is the elementary air.

Ileon cruentum. Hippocrates describes it, in lib. De Intern. Affect. In this disease, as well as in the scurvy, the breath is fetid, the gums recede from the teeth, hæmorrhages of the nose happen, and sometimes there are ulcers in the legs, but the patient can move about his business very well.

Iliadum, or *Iliadus*. It is the first matter of all things, consisting of mercury, salt, and sulphur. These are Paracelsus's three principles. His *iliadus* is also a mineral spirit, which is contained in every element, and is the supposed cause of diseases.

Iliaster. Paracelsus says it is the occult virtue of nature, whence all things have their increase.

Ilingis, (λιγγος, from ιλιγξ, a vortex). A vertigo in which all things appear to turn round, and the eyes grow dim.

Iliscus. Avicenna says, it is madness caused by love.

Illinctus. A linctus.

Illicio. *Enthlasis.*

Illos, ιλλος. The eye.

Illosis, ιλλωσις. A distortion of the eyes.

Illutamentum, was an ancient form of an external medicine, like the *Ceroma*, with which the limbs of wrestlers, and others delighting in like exercises, were rubbed, especially after bathing; an account of which may be met with in Baccius De Thermis.

Illutatio. Illutation. It is a besmearing any part of the body with mud, and renewing it as it grows dry, with a view of heating, drying, and discussing. It is chiefly done with the mud found at the bottom of mineral springs.

Illys, ιλυς. A person who squints, or with distorted eyes.

Ilys, ιλυς. The fæces of wine. Also an epithet for sediment in stools which resemble fæces of wine; also the sediment in urine when it resembles the same.

Imbecillitas oculorum. Celsus speaks of the *Nuctalopia* by this name.

Immersus. Sunk, or hid; is a term given by Bartholine, and some other anatomists, to a muscle now commonly called *Subscapularis*.

Implicated, is said by Celsus, Scribonius, and some others, of those parts of physic which have a necessary dependence on one another; but hath more significantly been applied by Bellini to such fevers, where two at a time afflict a person, either of the same kind, as a double tertian; or of different kinds, as an intermittent tertian, and a quotidian, called a *Semitertian*.

Impia herba. Cudweed.

Impluvium. An embrocation.

Impuber, is said of such as have not yet hair upon their privy parts, which bespeaks a ripeness for generation; but Helmont, with some others, affirm females, capable of conception before such an appearance.

Incantation, is used for a way of curing diseases by charms, defended by Paracelsus, Helmont, and some other chemical enthusiasts: but those who have pursued a better way of reasoning, have despised such delusions.

Incendium. A burning fever, or sometimes any burning heat.

Incensio. The same as *Incendium*. It is also a hot inflammatory tumour.

Incerniculum. A strainer or sieve. In anatomy, it is a name for the pelvis of the kidney.

Incide, from *incido*, to cut. Medicines are said thus to do, which consist of pointed and sharp particles, as acids, and most salts; by the force or insinuation of which the particles of other bodies are divided from one

another, which before cohered. And thus ſome expectorating medicines are ſaid to incide or cut the phlegm, when they break it ſo as to occaſion its diſcharge.

Idiana radix. Ipecacuanha.

Indica camotes. Potatoes.

Indicating days, are the ſame as critical days.

Indicum lignum. Logwood.

Indicus. Sweet and bitter coſtus.

Indicus morbus. The venereal diſeaſe.

Indusium. A ſhirt: alſo the amnios.

Ingravidation, is the ſame as impregnation or going with child.

Inhumation. Some chemiſts have fancied thus to call that kind of digeſtion which is performed by burying the materials in dung, or in the earth.

Inion, ινιον. The occiput. Blancard ſays it is the beginning of the ſpinal marrow; others ſay, it is the back part of the neck.

Injaculatio. So Helmont calls a diſorder which conſiſts of a violent ſpaſmodic pain in the ſtomach, and an immobility of the body.

Innominati nervi. A name of the fifth pair of nerves.

Inophyllum. A ſpecies of calophyllum.

Intercurrent fevers. Thoſe which happen in certain ſeaſons only, are called ſtationary; but others are called by Sydenham, intercurrents.

Intercus, (from *inter*, between, and *cutem*, the ſkin). *Anaſarca.*

Interdentium. The intervals between teeth of the ſame order.

Interdigitum. A corn betwixt the toes.

Interfæminеum. The perinæum.

Interlumbus morbus. The epilepſy.

Internuntii dies. Critical days.

Internus. A name of the laxator membranæ tympani.

Interpellatus morbus. In Paracelſus it is a diſeaſe attended with irregular or uncertain paroxyſms.

Interpolatus dies. In Paracelſus theſe are the days interpolated betwixt two paroxyſms.

Interceptum. The uvula and the ſeptum narium.

Intrinseci. Painful diſorders of the internal parts.

Introcessio. *Depreſſio.*

Inustion. Is ſometimes uſed for hot and dry ſeaſons; but moſt commonly by ſurgeons for the operation of the cautery.

Invrecundum os. *Os Frontis.*

Ion. The violet.

Ionia. Ground-pine.

Iosacchar, ιοσαχχαρ. Sugar of violets.

Iotacismus. A defect in the tongue or organs of ſpeech, which renders a perſon incapable of pronouncing his letters.

Ioui. A reſtorative alimentary liquor prepared in Japan. It is made from the gravy of half-roaſted beef, but as to the reſt it is kept a ſecret.

Iralha. A ſpecies of palm-tree.

Iria. A ſpecies of cyperus.

Iringus. Eryngo.

Is, ις, a fibre. Its plural is ιτες. Some ſay that Hippocrates uſed this word indifferently for a fibre and a nerve; and it is clear that other writers have done the ſame.

Isada. So the Spaniards and Portugueſe call the *Lapis nephriticus.*

Isaros. A name for the arum.

Isatodes, ισατωδης. Of the colour of woad.

Isca. A ſort of fungous excreſcence of the oak, or of the hazel, &c. The ancients uſed it as the moderns uſe moxa.

ISCHÆMON, (ισχαιμὸν, from ισχω, to reſtrain, and αιμα, blood). A name for any medicine which reſtrains or ſtops bleeding.

ISCHÆMUM. A ſpecies of *Andropogon*.

ISCHNOPHONIA, (ισχνοφωνια, from ισχνος, ſlender, and φωνη, the voice). A ſhrillneſs of the voice; but more frequently an heſitation of ſpeech, or a ſtammering; it is the *pſelliſmus hæſitans* of Cullen.

ISCHNOTIS, ισχνωτης. Leanneſs.

ISNARDI. A ſpecies of *Centaurea*.

ISORA. The ſcrew tree, a ſpecies of *Helicteres*.

ISOTONI. See *Acmaſticos*.

ISTHMION, ισθμιον. The narrow paſſage between the mouth and gullet: the fauces.

ITHMOIDES, falſely, for *Ethmoides*.

ITINERARIUM. The catheter; alſo a ſtaff uſed in cutting for the ſtone; it is thus named by Hildanus.

IVA PECANGA. *Sarſaparilla*.

JABOTAPITA. A ſpecies of *Ochna*.

JACARANDA ALBA *vel* BRAZILIENSIS. It is like the European palm-tree. It is plentiful in Brazil, where a pottage is made of it, and called *Manipey*, which is a good ſtomachic.

JAGRA. A ſort of ſugar obtained from the juice of a ſpecies of palm-tree.

JANITOR. A name for the *Pylorus*.

JANITRIX. A name for the *Vena Portæ*.

JECUR. The liver.

JECUR UTERINUM. The *Placenta* is by ſome thus called, from the ſuppoſed ſimilitude of its office with that of the liver.

JECORARIA VENA. The hepatic vein.

JETICA. The Braſilian name for Spaniſh potatoes.

JONTHLASPI, A ſpecies of *Clypeola*.

JUPITER. A name for tin, becauſe ſuppoſed under the government of that planet.

K.

KAATH. The *Terra Japonica*.

KADANAKU. Common aloes.

KÆKURIA. The gum elemi-tree.

KALMII. A ſpecies of *Hieracium*.

KANKI. A ſpecies of *Mimuſops*.

KARABITUS. An Arabic term for a phrenitis, or delirium.

KARFE. By this the Arabians underſtand the beſt ſort of true cinnamon.

KAYL. Sour milk.

KENNE. The name of a ſtone generated in the eye of a ſtag.

KERVA OLEUM. *Ol. Ricini*.

KIK, or *Kiki*. The palma chriſti plant.

KLEINIA. A ſpecies of *Cacalia*.

KOLERUS. A dry ulcer.

KOLTO. *Plica Polonica*.

KURUDU. The true cinnamon-tree.

KYMIA. A cucurbit.

KYMIT ELEVATUM. White ſublimed cinnabar.

KYMOLEA. The ſlime or mud gathered under grind-ſtones.

KYNA. *Opoponax*.

L.

L A

LABARIUM. Looſeneſs of the teeth.

LABIS, λαβις, any forceps, from λαμβανω, to lay hold on.

LABLAB. A ſpecies of *Dolichos*.

LABRUSCA. The wild Virginian vine. A ſpecies of *Vitis*.

LACCOPEDON. So the Athenians call the lax part of the ſcrotum.

LACERATURA. A lacerated wound made by tearing.

LACERTULI. Bundles, e. g. of fibres, &c.

LACERTUS. That part of the arm from the ſhoulder to the elbow.

LACONICUM. A ſtove, bagnio, or ſweating room.

LACTICA. The Arabian name for that ſpecies of fever which the Greeks call *Typhos* or *Typhodes*.

LACTICINIA. Aliments prepared of milk.

LACTUCIMINA. Aphthæ.

LACTUMEN. Achor.

LACTUMINA. Little ulcers or cruſty ſcabs in the ſkin, ſo called becauſe they chiefly happen to children at the breaſt.

LADA. Black pepper.

LADA CHILLI. Guinea pepper.

LÆMOS, λαιμος. The gullet or throat.

LÆTIFICANS, ſtrictly ſignifying making joyful, hath been applied to many compoſitions under the intention of cordials; but both the medicine and diſtinction are now quite diſuſed.

LAGAROS, λαγαρος. An epithet for the right ventricle of the heart.

LAGON, λαγων. The flank.

LAGOSTOMA. The hare-lip.

LAMAC. Gum arabic.

L E

LAMBDACISMUS. A defect in ſpeech, which conſiſts in an inability to pronounce certain conſonants, or is that ſtammering or difficulty of ſpeech called *Pſelliſmus Lallans*, that is, when the letter L is pronounced too liquid, and often in the place of R.

LAONICA CURATIO. A method of curing the gout by evaporating the morbid matter by topics.

LAPARA, λαπαρα. The flanks, from λαπαξω, to empty, becauſe this part falls in as if empty.

LAPAROCELE. A rupture through the ſide of the belly.

LAPIDELLUN, or *Lapidellus*. The name of a kind of ſpoon, formerly uſed to take out ſmall ſtones and fragments from the bladder.

LAQUEUS GUTTURIS. A malignant inflammation of the tonſils.

LARBASON. Antimony.

LATTEN. Braſs.

LAUCANIA. The œſophagus or the throat.

LAUROSIS. The ſpodium of ſilver; ſo called from Mount Laurus, where there were ſilver mines.

LAVACRA. Waſhes. Such as are uſed to improve the ſkin.

LAVIPEDIUM. A bath for the feet.

LAZARI MORBUS, or *Malum*. The elephantiaſis, or leproſy.

LEBBECK. Ægyptian mimoſa, a ſpecies of *Mimoſa*.

LECHENEON. A name for the torcular Herophili.

LECTISTERNIUM, is uſed by ſome writers for all that apparatus which is neceſſary for the care of a ſick perſon in bed. And,

LECTUALIS, is ſaid of a perſon

whose distemper requires him to be confined in bed; signifying the same as *Clinicus*, κλινικος, amongst the Greeks, from κλινη, *lectus*, a bed.

LECTUALIS MORBUS. A disease which confines a patient to his bed.

LECTULI. Couches. In these chaff was mixed, with proper ingredients coarsely powdered, that their qualities may be absorbed into the body whilst the patient is laid on them.

LEIOPODES, λειοποδες. Splay, or broad-footed. It is when the middle of the inside of the foot is not hollow, but plane.

LEIPHÆMII, (λειφαιμοι, from λειπω, to be deficient, and αιμα, blood). Those are thus called who have too little blood.

LEIPODERMOS, (λειποδερμος, from λειπω, to be deficient, and δερμα, the skin). A person is thus called who hath lost his prepuce.

LEIPOPSYCHIA, (λειποψυχια, from λειπω, to leave, and ψυχη, the soul or life). A fainting fit, a languor, &c. It is synonimous with *Adynamiæ*.

LEIPYRIA, (λειπυριας, from λειπω, to leave, and πυρ, heat or fire). A dangerous species of ardent fever, wherein the internal parts are scorched with heat, whilst the external parts are cold. It is a kind of tertian.

LENOS, ληνος. In Hippocrates it signifies a channel or excavation, made in some machines for making extension, and reducing fractured bones. Herophilus gave this name to what is called *Torcular Herophili*.

LENTICULA. A freckle, such as is seen on the face, arms, &c. of some whose skin is affected by the sun. See *Ephelis*.

LENTICO, signifies a freckly or scurfy eruption upon the skin; such especially as is common to women in the time of childbearing.

LEO, besides its application to a particular animal commonly known, is also by physical writers used in various senses; as for a disease known to the Greeks by the name of λεοντιασις, which is a species of leprosy, the same as *Elephantiasis*: but the chemists have most grievously tortured it, by applying it to several of their compounds.

LEONINA LEPRAS. *Leontiasis*.

LEONTIASIS. A variety of *Elephantiasis*.

LEPIDOEIDES, (λεπιδοειδες, from λεπις, *squama*, a scale, and ειδος, *forma*, shape), is applied to some of the sutures of the head, as is *Lepidosarcoma* by M. Aurel. Severinus, to some fleshy excrescences resembling scales in shape. *Lepidoeides* particularly denominates the squamous suture of the skull.

LEPIDOSARCOMA. See *Lepidoeides*.

LEPORINUM ROSTRUM. The piece of flesh which is often seen between the divisions of the hare-lip.

LEPTOPHONIA. *Paraphonia Clangens*.

LEROS, ληρος. A slight delirium.

LESEOLI MORBUS. So Paracelsus calls the jaundice.

LESEOLUS. Paracelsus says it cures the jaundice, but does not say what it is.

LEUCE, λευκη, by the Latins *Alba Vitiligo*, and *Lepra Alba*, is a species of the leprosy, where the eruptions are whiter and smoother; but not so essentially differing, as to require any thing particular in its cure. See *Alphus*.

LEUCORRHOIS. It is that species of *Diarrhœa*, in which there is a too copious discharge of mucus. Also when in cases of the piles the discharge is not bloody but mucous.

LEVISANUS. A species of *Bruñia*, and a species of *Protea*.

LIBANOTUS. Frankincenſe.

LIBDO. The itch.

LICHANOS. The fore-finger.

LICHENASTRUM. A name of a kind of moſs.

LIGATURA VENERIS. A name for *Camphor*, from a ſuppoſition that it checks the venereal appetite.

LILIUM PARACELSI. The lily of Paracelſus; or, the tincture of metals. A mixture of copper and antimony, another of regulus of antimony and tin, and regulus of antimony, nitre, and tartar, are melted together in a crucible, and then poured into a mortar. They are introduced as hot as poſſible into a matraſs, and ſpirit of wine is poured upon them. The mixture is digeſted till the ſpirit has acquired a red colour.

Part of the metallic ſubſtances calcines during their fuſion; by means of the nitre, the tartar, and nitre alkalize together; the ſmall portion of metallic calx augments the cauſticity of the alkali, which thereby becomes more able to act upon the oily principles of the ſpirit of wine. It is for this reaſon that this tincture is a little more coloured than the tincture of ſalt of tartar.

LIMOCTONIA, λιμοκτονια, is uſed by Hippocrates and ſome others of the ancients, to expreſs the utmoſt diſtreſs from hunger.

LINGODES. Fevers are ſo called that are much attended with a hiccup.

LINOSYRIS. German goldilocks, a ſpecies of *Chryſocoma*.

LIPPII. Egyptian ſmall purple flowering centaurea: a ſpecies of *Centaurea*.

LIPOPSYCHIA. *Leipopſychia*.

LIQUOR SIRINIACUS. *Gum Benjamin*.

LITHAGOGUS, (from λιθος, a ſtone, and αγω, to bring away). An epithet for a medicine that expels the ſtone.

LITHOIDES, (λιθοειδης, from λιθος, a ſtone, and ειδος, form). An epithet for the os petroſum. It is ſo called from its hardneſs.

LOCH, or *Lohoch*. Arabian names for thoſe forms of medicines which are now commonly called *Eclegmas*, *Lambatives*, *Linctuſes*, or the like, which ſee.

LOGAS, λογας. The white of the eye.

LOHOC. See *Loch*.

LONCHOTON. A name for the beſt ſpecies of *Vitriol*.

LOPHADIA, λοφαδια, λοφια, or *Lophia*. Names of the firſt vertebræ of the back. *Lophia* alſo ſometimes ſignifies the upper part of the back of the neck.

LOPHANTHUS. Chineſe hyſſop, a ſpecies of *Hyſſopus*.

LORDOSIS, λορδωσις. It is when the ſpine bends towards the fore parts; when applied to the bones of the legs, it ſignifies bow-legged. It is a name for the *Lumbago*, and the *Tabes Dorſalis*.

LORICA. A kind of lute with which glaſs retorts, &c, are coated, before they are put into the fire.

LORINA MATRICIS. An epilepſy, or a convulſive diſorder, proceeding from the uterus.

LOXARTHRUS. Supple joint.

LUES DEIFICA. One of the pompous names for the epilepſy.

LUES NEURODES CONVULSIVA. It is a mild typhus.

LUMBRICI. The round worms.

LUMBRICI LATI. Tape-worms.

LUNÆTRIA. In the chemical jargon, it is a ſpecies of hectic, which is curable in one period of the moon.

LUPUS, ſtrictly ſignifies the wolf, or wild dog; but ſome perſons have figuratively applied it to a grievous eating ulcer, like the *Phagedæna*. The cancer is thus named by ſome.

LUPUS PHILOSOPHORUM. *Antimony*.

Luz. Some of the Jewiſh rabbins relate ſtrange ſtories of a bone thus named, and which they ſay is found betwixt the laſt vertebra of the loins, and the os ſacrum; but as there is not any ſuch bone, it is ſuppoſed that one of the ſeſamoid bones has been miſtaken for it. They relate amongſt other ſtories, that God will make uſe of this bone at the laſt day to raiſe the dead, making the body to grow again from it, as a plant does from the ſeed.

Lycanche. A ſpecies of *Quincy*.

Lycanthropia, (from λυκος, a wolf, and ανθρωπος, a man). Lycanthropy. It is a ſpecies of melancholy, or of madneſs. Some call it *erratic melancholy*, becauſe the patient wanders about, and cannot reſt in any one place. Aëtius in his Tetrabib, calls it *Cynanthropy*. Oribaſius informs us, that "theſe patients leave their houſes in the night time, and in every thing imitate wolves, and wander about the tombs until break of day.

Lycium. A name of the Indian thorn.

Lycoctonum. The yellow poiſonous aconite; a ſpecies of *Aconitum*.

Lygistum. A ſpecies of *Peteſia*.

Lygmos, λυγμος. An hiccough.

Lygismos, (λυγισμος, from λυγιζω, *torqueo*). A luxation.

Lynceus, from *lynx*, a creature of a quick ſight, is uſed by ſome for a collyrium to ſtrengthen the eyes; and hence alſo a perſon is ſaid to be *lynceus*, or lynx-eyed, who hath a quick ſtrong ſight.

Lyncourion, (from λυγξ, a lynx, and ουρον, urine). Various are the opinions of writers concerning this ſubſtance; but the moſt probable is, that of Dr. Watſon, viz. that it is *Tourmaline*.

Lyngodes, λυγγωδες. The hiccuping quotidian fever.

Lyssa, λυσσα, or λυττα, ſtrictly ſignifies the madneſs of a dog, which is communicable by his bite, but is more laxly applied to the bite of any venomous creatures; whence the *Pulvis Antilyſſus* in the former London Diſpenſatory takes its name, as being accounted good againſt ſuch evils.

Lythron, λυθρον. Duſt mixed with ſweat; but Hippocrates occaſionally expreſſes by it, the menſtrual blood.

M.

Macapatli. *Sarſaparilla*.

Machæria. Peach kernels.

Machaon, is the proper name of an ancient phyſician, ſaid to be one of the ſons of Æſculapius; whence ſome authors have fancied to dignify their own inventions with his name, as particularly a collyrium deſcribed by Scribonius, intitled, *Aſclepias Machaonis*; and hence alſo, medicine in general is by ſome called *Ars Machaonia*.

Machinulæ. A diminutive of the ſame word, is ſometimes uſed by phyſical writers to expreſs thoſe little compoſitions, which are parts of

more compound bodies, and which, by their peculiar configuration, are deſtined to particular offices. Thus in anatomy, the various textures, combinations, and decuſſations of the fibres compounding the muſcles, nerves, or membranes, often are expreſſed by this term.

MACROCEPHALI, (μακροκεφαλοι, the long heads, from μακρος, long, and κεφαλη, the head). They ſeem to have been a nation in ſome part of Cappadocia. Hippocrates ſays in his treatiſe on air, &c. that the length of their heads was at firſt owing to a law or cuſtom, which aroſe from an opinion that thoſe who had the longeſt heads were the moſt noble; whence, as ſoon as the child was born, they faſhioned its tender head with their hands, and by the uſe of bandages, &c. forced it to grow lengthwiſe: thus the natural ſpherical figure of the head was perverted, and the length increaſed. He adds, that in time nature conformed to the cuſtom, but in a farther period nature had again recovered her uſual mode.

MACROPNŒA, μακροπνοια, } from
MACROPNUS, } μακρος long, and πνεω, to breathe). It is one who fetches his breath at long intervals.

MADEFACTION, is properly receiving ſo much moiſture, that a body is quite ſoaked through by it; whence *madida* is ſaid by ſome of any thing made tender by infuſion or decoction.

MADELION, Bdellium.

MADISIS, μαδισις. Baldneſs.

MÆMACYLON. The fruit of the arbutus.

MAGALAITE. *Manganeſe.*

MAGDALEONES. Maſſes of plaſter, or of other compoſitions, reduced to a cylindrical form; they are alſo called *Cylindri.*

MAGIA, μαγια, magic, anciently expreſſed only an uncommon extent of knowledge in natural things; as the diſtinctions of Magician, Brachman, Druid, and Prophet, were aſcribed, by different nations, in the ſame ſenſe, to perſons ſuppoſed to excel in it; but chemiſtry and enthuſiaſm have latterly much corrupted this term by calling in the aſſiſtance of ſome ſupernatural power, and commonly that of an evil ſpirit, for the obtaining ſuch acquirements; and chiefly Paracelſus, Crollius, and Helmont, have treated it in this manner, alleging much to be done in medicine by magic or inchantment; and hence ariſe likewiſe our modern legends of witchcrafts, and exorciſms, which it is to be feared have not a little been encouraged by prieſtcraft.

MAGISTERIAL REMEDY, is ſometimes retained in the cant of empirics, more for its great ſound than any ſignificancy.

MAGISTERY, is a term made uſe of by chemiſts to ſignify a very fine powder made by ſolution and precipitation, as of biſmuth, lead, &c.

MAGISTERY OF LEAD. If to a ſolution of lead, fixed alkali be added, it ſeizes on the acid, taking the place of the lead, which falls down in a white powder named thus.

MAGISTRALIS. When applied to medicines, it is the ſame with *Medicamenta Extemporanea.*

MAGMA, μαγμα, expreſſes the dregs or reſiduum after infuſion or diſtillation.

MAGNA ARTERIA. The *Aorta.*

MANGES, μαγνης. The load-ſtone, the wonderful properties of which have greatly puzzled and employed the enquiries of many great men; but their opinions thereupon are of no great uſe in medicine. It is an ore of iron.

MAGNES ALBUS. White load-

ſtone. It is a ſort of rocky marle.

MAGNES ARSENICALIS. Arſenical magnet. It is a compoſition of equal parts of antimony, ſulphur, and arſenic, mixed and melted together, ſo as to become a glaſſy body.

MAGNES EPILEPSIÆ. The native cinnabar.

MAGNESIA OPALINA. In making the hepar antimonii, ſome add to the antimony and nitre, decrepitated ſal ammoniac, and thus make the opalin. It is a weaker emetic than the liver of antimony.

MAGNUM DEI DONUM. So Dr. Mead calls the Peruvian bark.

MAGNUS MORBUS. The great diſeaſe. So Hippocrates calls the epilepſy.

MAHALEB. A ſpecies of *Prunus*.

MAHMOUDY. *Scammonium*.

MALA ASSYRIA. The citron.

MALA ÆTHIOPICA. A ſpecies of *Lycoperſicon*.

MALA COTONEA. The quince.

MALA INSANA NIGRA. The fruit of the black-fruited night-ſhade. See *Melongena*.

MALACIA, μαλαξια. A depraved appetite, when ſuch things are coveted as are not proper for food; but the etymology of the term ſeems doubtful, unleſs it be from μαλασσω, *mollio*, to ſoften, becauſe too lax a tone of the ſtomach is generally the occaſion of indigeſtion, and unuſual cravings.

MALACTICOS, μαλακτικος. Emollient.

MALAGMA, (μαλαγμα, from μαλασσω, to ſoften). It is ſynonimous with *Cataplaſma*, from the frequency of making cataplaſm to ſoften; but formerly *malagmas* were made of many other ingredients.

MALAGRETA, *Malagueta*. Grains of Paradiſe.

MALAMIRIS. A ſpecies of *Piper*.

MALAX. } The ſoftening of
MALAXATIO. } any thing, (from μαλασσω, to ſoften).

MALAZISSATUS. One whoſe teſticles are concealed in his body.

MALE. The arm-pit.

MALIS. A purulent ulcerous tumour, with pain from an inſect in it, or a pungent pain from an inſect lodged in a part without ulcer or tumour.

MALTHEORUM. *Sal Gem*.

MALUM MORTUUM. A malignant ſpecies of *lepra*, or ſcab, which renders the body livid, with cruſty ulcers, void of ſanies and of pain.

MALUM. A diſeaſe. In a ſtrict ſenſe it is the diſeaſe called *Procidentia oculi*; it is when the eyes exceed the bounds of the eye-lids.

MANCORON. According to Oribaſius's account, it is a kind of ſugar which is found in a ſort of cane.

MANCURANA. Marjoram.

MANGARATIA. Ginger.

MANIGUETTA. Grains of Paradiſe.

MANIODES. Maniacal.

MANSORII MUSCULI, (from *mando*, to eat) The ſame as *Maſſeters*.

MANUS CHRISTI SIMPLICES. A name given to certain troches made of the ſugar of roſes.

MANUS CHRISTI PERLATÆ. When pearls are added to the manus Chriſti ſimplices, they are thus named.

MANUS DEI. An epithet for opium, and a name for a reſolvent plaſter which is deſcribed by Lemery.

MAPPA. A ſpecies of *Ricinus*.

MARASMODES, (μαρασμωδη, from *maraſmus*, a conſumption, and ειδος, *forma*, ſhape). Uſed by ſome for ſuch fevers as leave the body greatly waſted.

MARCHIONIS PULVIS. The marquis's powder. It is deſigned as an antiepileptic, and conſiſts of peony, miſleto, and elks-hoofs, &c.

MARCOR. A preternatural drowſineſs.

MARISCA. An excreſcence about the anus, the piles in a ſtate of tumour, the *Hæmorrhois tumens* of Cullen.

MARMORIGE. A variety of the *Pſeudoblepſis Imaginaria*, in which ſparks and flaſhes of fire are ſuppoſed to preſent themſelves.

MARMOREUS TARTARUS. The hardeſt ſpecies of *Human Calculus*.

MARTIAL. Sometimes uſed to expreſs preparations of iron, or ſuch as are impregnated therewith; as the *Martial Regulus* of antimony, &c.

MASCHALE. The arm-pit.

MASCHALISTER. A name for the ſecond vertebra of the back.

MATERIA PERLATA. If inſtead of cryſtallizing the ſalts contained in the liquor ſeparated from diaphoretic antimony, an acid be poured into it, a white precipitate is formed, which is nothing elſe but a very refractory calx of antimony.

MATERIATURA. Caſtellus explains *morbi materiaturæ* to be diſeaſes of intemperance.

MATRICALIA. Medicines appropriated to diſorders of the uterus.

MECONIUM, (μηκωνιον from μηκων, *papaver*, a poppy). Is properly the condenſed juice of poppies, or opium.

MEDENA. In Paracelſus it is a ſpecies of Ulcer.

MEDIANUM. The *Mediaſtinum*.

MEDIASTINA. Inflammation of the mediaſtinum.

MEDIASTINUM CEREBRI. The falciform proceſs of the dura mater.

MEDICAMENTARIA. Pharmacy. It is the art of making and preparing medicines.

MEDICASTER. A falſe pretender to the knowledge of medicine; the ſame as Quack.

MEDICINA TRISTITIÆ. An epithet given to ſaffron, on account of its chearing effects.

MEDICINAL DAYS. Such are ſo called by ſome writers, wherein no criſis or change is expected, ſo as to forbid the uſe of medicines, in order to wait nature's effort, and and therefore require all aſſiſtance from art to help forward, or prepare the humours for ſuch a criſis: but it is moſt properly uſed for thoſe days wherein purging or any other evacuation, is moſt conveniently complied with.

MEDICINAL HOURS. Are thoſe wherein it is ſuppoſed that medicines may be taken to the greateſt advantage, commonly reckoned in the morning faſting, about an hour before dinner, about four hours after dinner, and at going to bed; but in acute caſes, the times are to be governed by the ſymptoms and aggravation of the diſtemper.

MEDIUS VENTER. The middle venter, is the thorax, or cheſt.

MELAINA NOSOS. The black diſeaſe. Hippocrates applies this name to two diſeaſes. In the firſt the patient vomits black bile, which is ſometimes bloody and ſour; ſometimes he throws up a thin ſaliva; and at others a green bile, &c. In the ſecond the patient is as deſcribed in the article *Morbus Niger*.

MELANAGOGUES. Are ſuch medicines as are ſuppoſed particularly to purge off black choler, (from μελας, *niger*, black, and αγω, *duco*, to lead). But there is no ſuch diſtinction of choler now much regarded, and conſequently this term is but little uſed.

MELANCHLORUS, μελαγχλωρος. Livid colour of the ſkin, the black jaundice.

MELCA, μελκα. Galen ſays it is a Roman word; and Conſtantine, lib. xviii. de Agricultura, ſays it is nothing but milk repoſited in an earthen pot, firſt well ſeaſoned with boiling hot vinegar, by which means

there was a separation of the thicker substance of the milk from the whey.

MELEGETA. } Grains of Pa-
MELEGUETTA. } radise.

MELEIOS, μηλειος. A species of alum, which is made in the island of Melos.

MELIGEION. Blancard says it is a fetid oleous humour, of the consistence of honey, discharged from ulcers, complicated with a caries of the subjacent bone.

MELITISMOS, μελιτισμος. A linctus prepared with honey.

MELLAGO. Any medicine is thus called which hath the consistence and sweetness of honey.

MELON, μηλον. See *Melo*. A disorder of the eye, and is when it protuberates out of the socket.

MELOSIS, μηλωσις. A term which frequently occurs in Hippocrates, De Capit. Vulner. for that search into wounds which is made by surgeons with the specillum, or probe.

MELOTIS, μηλωτις. Is used for the lesser specillum, and often for that particular instrument contrived to search or cleanse the ear with, more commonly called *Auriscalpium*.

MENDOSUS. Is used by some in the same sense as spurius, or illegitimus; *Mendosæ Costæ*, false or spurious ribs; *Mendosa Sutura*, the squamous future, in the skull, or bastard future, from *mendax*, counterfeit.

MENINGOPHYLAX, (μηνιγγοφυλαξ, from μηνιγξ, a membrane, and φυλασσω, to guard). Is an instrument used in wounds of the head, largely described by Celsus, but more accurately with its use, by Scultetus, Arm. Chirurg. part i. tab. 2. fig. 10. Gorœus takes notice of somewhat like it under the name *Vectis*, the same as the *Mochlion* of the Greeks.

MENSIS PHILOSOPHICUS. A philosophical or chemical month. According to some, it is three days and nights, others say it is ten, and there are who reckon it to be thirty or forty days.

MENTULAGRA. A disorder of the penis, induced by a contraction of the erectores musculi, and causing impotence. It is the same as Paulus Ammianus explains of the spadones. Joseph Grundpeckius calls the venereal disease thus.

MERON, μηρος. The thigh.

MERUS. Applied to several things in the same sense as genuine, or unadulterated, as *merum vinum*, neat wine.

MESIRE. A disorder of the liver, mentioned by Avicenna, accompanied with a sense of heaviness, tumour, inflammation, pungent pain, and blackness of the tongue.

MESOMERIA. So Rufus Ephesius calls that part of the body which lies between the thighs.

MESOPHRYON, μεσοφρυον. So Rufus Ephesius calls that part of the face which lies betwixt the eyebrows.

MESOPLEURIOS, μεσοπλευριος. Intercostal muscles.

METABASIS, and *Metabole*, μεταβασις, μεταβολη. Signifies any change from one thing to another, either in the curative indications, or the symptoms of a distemper.

METACINEMA, μετακινημα. A removal of the pupil of the eye from its proper situation.

METACONDYLI, (μετακονδυλοι, from μετα, after, and κονδυλος, a knuckle). The last joints of the fingers next the nails.

METAPHRENON, μεταφρενον. The back, properly the part betwixt the shoulders.

METAPTOSIS, μεταπτωσις, is said of the change of one disease into another; and is distinguished into a *diadoche*, διαδοχη, when the translation proves salutary, as of congested matter from the nobler parts to

thoſe which it can do no harm to, but be critically exterminated; and a *metataſis*, μεταστασις, which is a change for the worſe, or without any ſuch advantage.

METAL. A ſpecies of *Datura*.

METEORISMUS. *Tympanites*.

METEOROS, (μετεωρος, from μετα, and αειρω, to elevate). Elevated, ſuſpended, erect, ſublime, tumid. Galen expounds pains of this ſort, as being thoſe that affect the peritonæum, or other more ſuperficial parts of the body: theſe are oppoſed to the more deep-ſeated ones.

METHEMERINOS, μεθημερινος. A quotidian fever.

METHODICA MEDICINA. Signifies that practice which was conducted by rules, ſuch as are taught by Galen, and his followers, in oppoſition to the empirical practice.

METOPION, or *Metopium*, μετωπιον. American ſumach, a ſpecies of *Rhus*. It is a name of the bitter almond, alſo of an oil, or an ointment made by Dioſcorides, which was thus called, becauſe it had galbanum in it which was collected from a plant called *Metopium*.

METOPON, *Metopum*, μετωπον. The forehead.

METOSIS. A kind of amauroſis, from an exceſs of ſhort-ſightedneſs.

METRENCHYTES, (μητρεγχυτης, from μητρα, the uterus, and εγχυω, to infuſe, or pour into). Injections for the uterus: alſo, a womb-ſyringe.

METROCELIDES, (from μητης, a mother, and κηλις, a ſpot, or mole). A mole or mark impreſſed upon the child by the mother's imagination on the fœtus.

METRO MANIA. A rage for reciting verſes. In the Acta Societatis Medicæ Havnienſis, publiſhed 1779, is an account of a tertian attended with remarkable ſymptoms; one of which was the *metro-mania*, which the patient ſpoke extempore, having never before had the leaſt taſte for poetry; when the fit was off, the patient became ſtupid, and remained ſo till the return of the paroxyſm, when the poetical powers returned again.

MILPHOSIS, μιλφωσις. A baldneſs of the eye-brows: alſo an increaſe of the fleſh in the corners of the eyes.

MINIUM GRÆCORUM. Native cinnabar.

MISERERE MEI. This is applied to ſome colics, where the pains are ſo exquiſite as to draw compaſſion from a by-ſtander; the term importing ſo much.

MISOCHYMICUS. Thus ſome were called, who profeſſed themſelves enemies to the chemiſts, and their enthuſiaſtic conceits.

MITHRIDATIUM. The electary called *Mithridate*, from Mithridates, king of Pontus and Bithynia, who experiencing the virtues of the ſimples ſeparately, afterwards combined them; but then the compoſition conſiſted of but few ingredients, viz. twenty leaves of rue, two walnuts, two figs, and a little ſalt: of this he took a doſe every morning, to guard himſelf againſt the effects of poiſon.

MIVA. An ancient term for the form of a medicine, not unlike a thick ſyrup, now called *Marmalade*.

MOCHLIA, μοχλια. Uſed by the Greek writers for the reduction of diſlocated bones, from the name of an inſtrument much uſed therein, called by the Latins *Vectis*, a lever. Whence alſo *Hypomochlion*.

MOCHLICA. Violent purges.

MOGILALIA, (μογιλαλια from μογις, difficulty, and λαλεω, to ſpeak). A difficulty of ſpeech. It is the *Pſelliſmus Acheilos* of Dr. Cullen.

MOLA, μυλη. A name for the knee-pan, for the dentes molares, and for the jaws. It alſo ſignifies a grinder.

MOLLE. Indian maſtich.

MOLLIFICATIO. A barbarous term for a palſy of the muſcles in any particular part.

MOLYBDOS. Lead.

MOLYZA. A head of garlic, or garlic which hath a head not diviſible into cloves.

MOMISCUS. The part of any of the dentes molares next the gum. The dentes molares are themſelves called *Momiſci*.

MONELLI. A ſpecies of *Anagallis*.

MONOCOLON. In Paracelſus it is the *Inteſtinum Rectum*.

MONOMACHON. The inteſtinum cæcum.

MONOPAGIA, or *Monopegia*. A pain in the head which affects only one point.

MORBUS ARQUATUS. The jaundice.

MORBUS ATTONITUS. The epilepſy.

MORBUS COXARIUS. See *Arthropuoſis*.

MORBUS GALLICUS. The venereal diſeaſe.

MORBUS HERCULEUS. The epilepſy.

MORBUS INFANTILIS. The epilepſy.

MORBUS INDICUS. The Indian diſeaſe, the venereal diſeaſe.

MORBUS MAGNUS. The epilepſy.

MORBUS NIGER. The black diſeaſe. So Hippocrates named it, and thus deſcribed it. This diſorder is known by vomiting a concrete blood of a blackiſh red colour, and mixed with a large quantity of inſipid, acid, or viſcid phlegm. This evacuation is generally proceeded by a pungent tenſive pain, in both the hypochondria, and the appearance of the diſeaſe is attended with anxiety, a compreſſive pain in the præcordia, and fainting, which laſt is more frequent and violent, when the blood which is evacuated is fetid and corrupt. The ſtomach and the ſpleen are the principal, if not the proper ſeat of this diſeaſe.

MORBUS REGIUS. The jaundice.

MORBUS SACER. The epilepſy.

MORO. An abſceſs in the fleſh, reſembling a mulberry.

MORSULI, are ancient names for thoſe forms of medicines which were to be chewed in the mouth, as a lozenge, the word ſignifying a little mouthful.

MORTA. *Pemphigus*.

MORTARIOLUM. In Chemiſtry, it is a ſort of mould for making cupels with, alſo a little mortar. In Anatomy, it is the ſockets of the teeth.

MOSCH. Caſtellus ſays, they are a ſort of roriferous veſſels, which Bilſius diſcovered in the kidnies.

MUCOCARNEUS. In M. A Severinus, it is an epithet for a tumour, a abſceſs, which is partly fleſhy and partly mucous.

MULÆ. Puſtules contracted either by heat or cold.

MULSUM, *Muſus*, or *Mulſe*, *Hydromel*; though ſometimes it ſignifies wine ſweetened with honey.

MUSADI. Sal ammoniac.

MYCES, (μυκης, from μυω, to wink, ſhut up, or obſtruct). It is a winking, cloſing, or obſtruction. It is applied to the eyes, to ulcers, and to the viſcera, eſpecially the ſpleen, where it imports obſtructions. In ſurgery, it is a fungus, ſuch as ariſes in ulcers and wounds. Some writers ſpeak of a yellow vitriol, which is called *Myce*.

MYCHTHISMOS, (μυχθισμος, from μυζω, to mutter, or groan). In Hippocrates it is a ſort of ſighing or groaning during reſpiration, whilſt the air is forced out of the lungs.

MYCONOIDES. An epithet for an ulcer which is full of mucus.

MYCTER. The nose.

MYCTERES, *μυκτηρες*. The nostrils.

MYDESIS, (*μυδησις*, from *μυδαω*, to abound with moisture). It imports in general, a corruption of any part from a redundant moisture. But Galen applies it particularly to the eye-lids.

MYDON, *μυδων*. Fungous flesh in a fistulous ulcer.

MYLACRIS. The knee-pan.

MYLE, *μυλη*. The knee-pan, or a mole in the uterus.

MYLON. *Staphyloma.*

MYOCEPHALUM, (*μυοκεφαλον*, from *μυια*, a fly, and *κεφαλη*, the head). A humour in the uvea tunica of the eye, which resembles the head of a fly.

MYOCOLITES. So Vogel calls inflammations in the muscles of the belly.

MYRINGA, *Myrinx*. A barbarous word for the membrane of the ear, called the drum.

MYRMECIUM. A moist soft wart, about the size of a lupine, with a broad base, deeply rooted, and very painful. It grows on the palms of the hands and soles of the feet.

MYRON, *μυρον*. An ointment, a medicated oil or unguent.

MYRTON. The clitoris.

MYURUS. An epithet for a sort of sinking pulse, when the second stroke is less than the first, the third than the second, &c. Of this there are two kinds: the first is when the pulse so sinks as not to rise again; the other, when it returns again, and rises in some degree. Both are esteemed bad presages.

MYXOSARCOMA. A sort of tumour; also called *Mucocarnius.*

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NACTA. An apostemation of the breasts, particularly those of women.

NADUCEM. So Avicenna calls a mole in the womb.

NAI CORONA. Cowhage, or cow-itch.

NAKIR. According to Schenkius, it is a violent flatulence, which passes from one limb to another.

NAPHA. Orange-flower.

NAPY. Mustard.

NARCE, (*ναρκη*, whence *Narcotica*). A torpor, or dullness of sensation. It also signifies a stupefaction of the senses by medicines, in order to render a person less sensible of pain.

NARCOSIS, (*ναρκωσις*, stupor, numbness). A stupefaction.

NASALE, } an errhine.
NASALIA, }

NASCALE. A sort of pessary made of wool or of cotton.

NASCAPHTHON. *Cascarilla.*

NASDA. *Naphtha.*

NASITAS. A defect of the voice, by its passing through the nose.

NASTOS. The walking-cane.

NATTA. A tumour of the wen kind. It hath a narrow basis, but a much larger body. Linnæus speaks of it as rooted in a muscle.

NAUTICUS. The *Tibialus Posticus* is so called from the use which sailors make of it in climbing.

NEAPOLITANUM UNGUENTUM.

Neapolitan ointment. The unguent cœrul. mit. is now always uſed for it.

NECESSARIÆ RES. The non-naturals.

NEDYIA, νηδυια. The abdominal viſcera.

NEDYS, νηδυς. The ſtomach, or the belly.

NEDYUSA, νηδυσα. An epithet for thirſt, ſignifying its being violent.

NEFRENDES. Properly it is ſucking-pigs; but it is applied to young children, or old people, who have no teeth.

NEIÆRA, νειαιρα. The lower part of the belly.

NELUMBO. A ſpecies of *Nymphæa*.

NENUFAR, or *Nenuphar*. An obſolete term for water-lilies; whence the oil made of them is, by ſome writers, called *Oleum Nenupharinum*.

NEPENTHE, νηπενθης. Was a name firſt given to an opiate or laudanum, by Theodorus Zwingerus, from the great opinion he had of its giving eaſe in all manner of pain, the word importing as much.

NEPHROTHROMBOIDES. Suppreſſion of urine from concreted blood in the kidnies.

NERANTIA. An orange.

NERONIANA. An epithet for venæſection, when more than one vein is opened in a day.

NERVALIA OSSA. The *Sinciput*; but ſome ſay the temple bones.

NEUROMETERES. The pſoæ muſcles.

NEUROTROTOS, (νευροτρωτος, from νευρον, a nerve, and τιτρωσκω, to wound). A perſon who labours under a wound of a nerve.

NIDOR. The ſmell of burnt animal ſubſtances. Hence eructations which have a flavour like putrefied fleſh, are called *Niderous*.

NIGRA FABRILIS. Black lead.

NISI. Blancard ſays it is ginſeng.

NITRUM ARTIFICIALE HOFFMANNI. It is made of the ſpirit of ſal ammoniac and ſpirit of nitre. It perfectly diſſolves in ſpirit of wine.

NITRUM CALCAREUM VERUM. It is a ſolution of calcareous earth in nitrous acid.

NITRUM CAUSTICUM. The amber-coloured ſcoria ariſing in the purification of the regulus antimonii martialis with nitre, are a ſtrong cauſtic alkali, and are thus named.

NITRUM FACTITIUM. Borax.

NITRUM NATIVUM. Borax.

NITRUM STIBIATUM. Tartar vitriolated.

NITRUM VITRIOLATUM. Tartar vitriolated.

NIX FUMANS. Quicklime.

NIX ANTIMONIALIS. The white flowers of the regulus of antimony.

NOME, νομη. A phagedenic ulcer; alſo a ſpecies of *Herpes*.

NONANA. An erratic intermittent fever, returning once in nine days.

NOTIÆUS, (νωτιαιος, from νωτος, the back). An epithet for the ſpinal marrow.

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OBELÆA, (ὀβελαία, from ὀβελος, a dart, or a ſpit. *Obelæa* ſagittalis, an epithet for the ſagittal future of the ſkull.

OBLESION, (from *ob*, againſt, and *lædo*, to hurt). It is an injury done to any part.

OBOLUS, ὀβολος. A weight of about nine grains.

OBSIDIANA. They are a ſpecies of glaſs, ſo called from their reſemblance to a kind of ſtone, which one Obſidius diſcovered in Ethiopia, of a very black colour, though ſometimes they are pellucid and of a muddy water. Pliny ſays alſo, that *obſidianum* was a ſort of colour with which veſſels were glazed. Hence the name is applied by Libavius to glaſs of antimony.

OBSIDIANUS LAPIS. Canal coal.

OCCULT QUALITY. A term that has been much uſed by writers that had not clear ideas of what they undertook to explain; and which ſerved, therefore, only for a cover to their ignorance.

OCCULT DISEASES, is likewiſe from the ſame mint as the former, *occultus* ſignifying hidden, and therefore, nothing can be underſtood, when a perſon ſpeaks af a hidden diſeaſe, but that it is a diſeaſe he does not underſtand.

OCHREA. The fore part of the tibia.

OCHTHODES, (ὀχθωδης, from ὀχθος, importing the tumid lips of ulcers, callous, tumid). It is an epithet for ulcers which are difficult to heal.

O D

OCIMASTRUM. Wild white campion.

OCTANA. An erratic intermitting fever, which returns every eighth day.

OCTAVUS HUMERI MUSCULUS. The *Teres Minor*.

OCTAVUS HUMERI PLACENTINI MUSCULUS. The *Teres Minor*.

OCCULARES COMMUNES. A name for the nerves, which are alſo called *Motores Oculorum*.

OCULARES EXTERNI. Motores oculorum externi.

OCULARIA. Eye-bright.

OCULO MUSCULARES. The nerves called *Motores Oculorum*.

OCULO-MUSCULARES EXTERNI. The nerves called *Motores Oculorum Externi*.

OCULUS BOVINUS. See *Proptoſis*.

OCULUS BOVIS. The great daiſy.

OCULUS BUBULUS. See *Proptoſis*.

OCULUS CHRISTI. Auſtrian fleabane; a ſpecies of *Inula*.

OCULUS ELEPHANTINUS. See *Proptoſis*.

OCULUS GENU. The knee-pan.

OCULUS LACHRYMANS. The *Epiphora*.

OCULUS MUNDI. A ſpecies of *Opal*, generally of a yellowiſh colour. By lying in water it becomes of an amber-colour, and alſo tranſparent.

ODAXISMOS, (ὀδαξισμος, from ὀδους, a tooth). A biting ſenſation, pain, or itching in the gums. Hippocrates uſes this word principally with

reſpect to the gums, when the teeth are forcing a paſſage through them.

ODONTAGOGOS. The name of an inſtrument to draw teeth, one of which, made of lead, Forreſtus relates to have been hung up in the temple of Apollo, denoting, that ſuch an operation ought not to be made, but when the tooth was looſe enough to draw with ſo ſlight a force as could be applied with that.

ODONTIRRHŒA. Bleeding from the ſocket of the jaw, after drawing a tooth.

OEDEMA OEDEMATODES. It is that ſerous tumour which is ſimply called *Oedema*, or according to ſome the *Cold Oedema*.

OEDEMOSARCA. A ſpecies of tumour mentioned by M. A. Severinus, of a middle nature betwixt an *œdema* and *ſarcoma*.

OENANTHE CHÆROPHYLLI FOLIIS. The *Oenanthe Crocata*.

OENANTHE CICUTÆ FACIE LOBELII. The *Oenanthe Crocata*.

OENAREA, οιναρεη. The aſhes prepared of the twigs, &c. of vines.

OENELÆUM, οινελαιον. A mixture of oil and wine.

OENOGALA, (οινογαλα, from οινος, wine, and γαλα, milk). A ſort of potion, made of wine and milk. According to ſome, it is wine as warm as new milk.

OENUS ANTHINOS. Flowery wine. Galen ſays it is either *Oenus Anthoſmias*, or wine impregnated with flowers, in which ſenſe it is an epithet for the *Cyceon*.

OENUS ANTHOSMIAS, (from ανθος, a flower, and οσμη, a ſmell). Sweet-ſcented wines.

OENUS APODÆDUS. Wine in which the dais or tæda are boiled.

OENUS APEZESMENUS. A wine heated to a great degree, and preſcribed among other things, as garlic, ſalt, milk, and vinegar.

OENUS GALACTODES. Wine with milk, or wine made as warm as new milk.

OENUS DEUTERUS. Wines of the ſecond preſſing.

OENUS DIACHEOMENUS. Wine diffuſed in larger veſſels, cooled, and ſtrained from the lees, to render it thinner and weaker; wines thus drawn off are called *Saccus*, and *Saccata*, from the bag through which they are ſtrained.

OENUS MALACUS, SIVE MALTHACUS. Soft wine. Sometimes it means weak and thin, oppoſed to ſtrong wine; or mild in oppoſition to auſtere.

OENUS MELICHROOS. Wine in which is honey.

OENUS OENODES. Strong wine.

OENOS SIRÆOS. *Sapa*.

OENOS STRAPHIDIOS LEUCOS. White wine made from raiſins.

OENOS TETHALASMENOS. Wine mixed with ſea-water.

OENOSTACMA. Spirit of wine.

OEAATA. The anacardium, alſo a tall tree in China.

OESYPE, OESYPOS, OESYPUM, OESYPUS, οισυπη, οισυπος. It frequently is met with in the ancient Pharmacy, for a certain oily ſubſtance, boiled out of particular parts of the fleeces of wool, as what grows on the flank, neck, and parts moſt uſed to ſweat.

OFFA ALBA. Van Helmont thus calls the white coagulation which ariſes from a mixture of a rectified ſpirit of wine and of urine; but the ſpirit of urine muſt be diſtilled from well-fermented-urine; and that muſt be well dephlegmated, elſe it will not anſwer.

OFFUSCATIO. The ſame as *Amauroſis*.

OLEAMAN. A thin liniment compoſed of oils.

OLISTHEMA, (ολισθημα, from ολισθαινω, to fall out). A luxation.

OMENTA. The membranes of the brain.

OMOCOTYLE. The cavity in the extremity of the neck of the ſcapula,

in which the head of the humerus is articulated.

OMOTRIBES, ωμοτριβες. Oil expreſſed from unripe olives.

OMPHACINUM. Oil from unripe olives.

OMPHACION, or *Omphacium*, ομφακιον, was uſed for the juice of ſour grapes; and by ſome latterly is applied to that of wild apples, or crabs, commonly called *Verjuice*.

OMPHACIUM. The juice of unripe grapes.

OMPHACITIS, ωμφακιτις. A ſmall kind of gall; an excreſcence of oak.

OMPHACOMELI, ομφακομελι. A ſort of oxymel made of the juice of unripe grapes and honey.

OMPHAX. Unripe grapes or their juice.

ONAGRA. A name for the rheumatiſm in the elbow.

ONEIROGMOS, (ονειρωγμος, from ονειρωττω). Venereal dreams.

ONEIROGONOS, ονειρογονος. So the Greeks call an occaſional emiſſion of the ſemen in ſleep, when it only happens rarely.

OOEIDES, ωοειδης. An epithet for the aqueous humour of the eye.

OPHRYS, οφρυς. The loweſt part of the forehead, where the eye-brows grow.

OPTHALMICI EXTERNI. The *Motores Oculorum*.

OPTHALMOPONIA. An intenſe pain in the eye, whence the light is intolerable.

OPTHALMORRHAGIA. Bleeding from the eye or the eye-lid.

OPTHALMOXYSIS. A bruſhing of the eye.

OPTHALMOXYSTRUM. A bruſh for the eye. It was formerly made of the beards from barley or rye. It was ſo drawn acroſs the inſide of the eye-lids, as to make them bleed.

OPION, οπιον. Opium.

OPOCALPASON, οποκαλπαζον, or *Opocarpaſon*. The juice of a tree called *Calpaſi*. It reſembles myrrh, but is poiſonous.

OPODEOCELE. A rupture through the foramen iſchii, or into the labia pudendi.

OPPILATIO. *Oppilation* is a cloſe kind of obſtruction; for according to Rhodius, it ſignifies, not only to ſhut out, but alſo to fill.

OPPRESSIO. The catalepſy.

ORCHEA. Galen ſays it is the *Scrotum*.

ORCHOS, ορχος. The extremities of the eye-lids, where the eye-laſhes grow.

ORESTION. In Dioſcorides it is the *Helenium*.

OREXIS, ορεξις, or *Orexia*. See *Anorexia*.

ORICIA. A ſort of turpentine-tree, ſo called from Oricus, a city of Epirus, near which it grows.

ORIENTALIA FOLIA. The leaves of ſenna.

ORTHOCOLON, (ορθοκωλον, from ορθος, ſtraight, and κωλον, a limb). It is a ſpecies of ſtiff joint, and is, when it cannot be bended, but remains ſtraight.

ORVIETAN, is uſed for a medicine that reſiſts poiſons, from a mountebank at Orvieta in Italy, who firſt made himſelf famous by taking ſuch things upon the ſtage, after doſes of pretended poiſons. Though ſome ſay, its inventor was one H. F. Orvietanus, and that it is named after him.

OSCHEON, οσχεον. The ſcrotum. Galen gives the name to the *os uteri*.

OSTAGRA, (from οστεον, a bone, and αγρα, a laying hold of). A forceps to take out bones with.

OSTEOGENICA. Medicines which promote the generation of a callus.

OSTIORUS. The pylorus.

OTENCHYTES, (ωτεγχυτης, from ωτος, the genitive of ους, an ear, and εγχεω, to pour in). A ſyringe for the ears.

OVA ZEPHYRIA. Eggs which are not impregnated by the cock's-tread.

OVUM PHILOSOPHICUM, or *Chycum*, is a glaſs body round like an egg.

OXALME, ὀξαλμη. A mixture of vinegar and ſalt.

OXYCEDRUS. Spaniſh juniper, a ſpecies of *Juniperus*.

OXYCRATUM, ὀξυκρατον. Oxycrates. It is vinegar mixed with ſuch a portion of water as is required, and rendered ſtill milder by the addition of a little honey.

OXYCROCEUM, (from the ſame as the foregoing, and κροκος, *crocus*, ſaffron). Is a plaſter in which there is much ſaffron, but no vinegar neceſſary, unleſs in diſſolving ſome gums.

OXYGALA, ὀξυγαλα. Sour milk.

OXYGARUM, ὀξυγαρον. A compoſition of garum and vinegar.

OXYPHLEGMASIA, ὀξυφλεγμασια. An acute inflammation.

OXYPHŒNICIA, or *Oxyphœnicon*. Tamarinds.

OXYPHONIA, ὀξυφωνια. The ſame as *Paraphonia Clangens*. It is a howling

OXYREGMIA, (ὀξυρεγμια, from ὀξυς, acid, and ερευγω, to break wind). An acid eructation.

OXYRRHODINON, ὀξυρροδινον. A compoſition of the oil of roſes and vinegar.

OXYSACCHARUM, ὀξυσαχαρον. A compoſition of vinegar and ſugar.

OXYSAL DIAPHORETICUM. It is a preparation of Angelus Sala. It is a fixed ſalt loaded with more acid than is neceſſary to ſaturate it. The ſalt of juniper is of this kind.

OXYTOCA, (from ὀξυς, quick, and τικτω, to bring forth). Medicines which promote delivery.

OZE, ὀζη. Is ſometimes uſed to ſignify a ſtench in the mouth.

P.

P. P. is ſometimes uſed in preſcription, for *pulvis patrum*, Jeſuit's powder, ſo called, becauſe they firſt brought it into Europe.

PACHYS, παχυς. Thick, the name of a diſorder deſcribed by Hippocrates, but not known by us.

PACŒIRA. The muſa, or plantain-tree.

PÆDANCHONE, (from παις, a child, and αγχω, to ſtrangulate). A ſpecies of quinſy common among children.

PÆDARTHROCACE, (from παις, a boy, αρθρον, a joint, and κακον, an evil). The joint-evil. Severinus calls the *Spina Ventoſa* by this name, as alſo doth Dr. Cullen. By ſome this name is uſed to expreſs a ſort of anaſarca.

PAGANICA. A ball uſed by the Latins to exerciſe with. It was ſo called becauſe uſed only in villages.

PAIDION, παιδιον. So Hippocrates calls the child in the womb when perfected there.

PAIDOPOETIC. Of the fœtus.

PALEA DE MECHA. The *Juncus Odoratus*.

PALIMPISSA, (παλιμπισσα, from παλιν, repetition, and πισσα, pitch). Dioſcorides ſays, that dry pitch is thus named, becauſe it is prepared of pitch twice boiled.

PALINDROMIA, (παλινδρομια, from παλινδρομεω, *recurro*, *regurgito*). Is uſed by Hippocrates for any recurgitation of humours to the more noble parts: and ſometimes for the return of a diſtemper.

PALMOS, παλμος, (from παλλω, to beat). A palpitation of the heart.

PALUDAPIUM. Smallage.

PANACEA DUC. HOLSATIÆ. Tartar vitriolated.

PANACEA DUPLICATA. *Arcanum Duplicatum.*

PANACEA VEGETABILIS. A name given to saffron.

PANCHRESTOS, or *Panchreston*, παγχρηστος. Is of the same signification as *Panacea*, but little used.

PANCHYMAGOGA, (παγχυμαγωγον, from παν, *omne*, all, χυμος, *succus*, humour, and αγω, *duco*, to lead or draw). Is ascribed to such medicines as are supposed to purge all humours equally alike: but this is a conceit now not minded.

PANCREATICA. Inflammation of the pancreas.

PANDALITIUM. A whitlow.

PANIS CUCULI, *Acetosella.*

PANIS PORCINUS. *Cyclamen.*

PANOCHIÆ. Buboes in the groin.

PANTOPHOBIA. The same as *Hydrophobia.*

PAPAS. Potatoes.

PAPILLÆ MEDULLARES. Small eminences on the medulla oblongata.

PAPPOS. The downy hairs upon the chin.

PAPPUS. Potatoes.

PAR CUCULLARE. So Casserius calls the *Musculus Crico-Arytænoideus.*

PARACMASTICOS, and *Paracme*, παρακμαστικος, παρακμη. Expresses the declension of any distemper; as also, according to Galen, that part of life, where a person is said to grow old, and which he reckons from 35 to 49, when he is said to be old.

PARACOE, παρακοη. Difficult hearing; dulness of hearing.

PARACOPE, παρακοπη. In Hippocrates it is a slight delirium.

PARACYNANCHE, (παρακυναγχη, from παρα, κυων, a dog, and αγχω, to strangle). A species of *Quinsy*: it being a distemper to which dogs are subject.

PARAGOGE, παραγωγη, signifies that fitness of the bones to one another, as is discernible in their articulation; and bones which are thereby easier of reduction, when dislocated, are by Hippocrates, called παραγωγοτερα.

PARALAMPSIS, παραλαμψις. Some writers use this word to express a cicatrix in the transparent part of the cornea of the eye.

PARALLELA. A sort of scurf or leprosy, affecting only the palms of the hands; it happens sometimes in the venereal disease.

PARALOPHIA, παραλοφια. Thus some anatomical writers, as Keil, &c. express the lower and lateral part of the neck, from παρα, near, and λοφος, the eminence of the back.

PARANOIE. The same as *Vesaniæ.*

PARAPHORA. A slight kind of delirium, or light-headedness in a fever: some use this word for a delirium in general.

PARAPHRENESIS. A delirium; also the paraphrenitis.

PARAPHROSYNE. The same as *Mania.*

PARAPOPLEXIA. A slight apoplexy.

PARARHTHREMA, παραρθρημα. A slight luxation; a tumour from protrusion, as an hernia.

PARARTHREMATA. Plural of *pararthrema*, and synonimous with *ectopiæ.*

PARARRYTHMOS, παραρρυθμος. Is a species of the *Arythmos*, and expresses a pulse not suitable to the age of the person.

PARASPHAGIS, παρασφαγις. The part of the neck contiguous to the clavicles.

PARASTATA. It signifies any thing situated near another.

PARASTATÆ, (παραστατοι, from παριστημι, to ſtand near). In Hippocrates it ſignifies the *Epididymis*. Herophilus and Galen called theſe the *Varicoſæ Paraſtatæ*, to diſtinguiſh them from the *Glanduloſe Paraſtatæ*, now called *Proſtatæ*. Rufus Epheſius called the tubæ Fallopianæ by the name of *Paraſtatæ Varicoſæ*.

PARASTEMMA, (παραστρεμμα, from παραστρεφω, to diſtort, or pervert). A perverſion, or convulſive diſtortion, of the mouth, or any part of the face.

PARASYNANCHE, παρασυναγχη. A ſpecies of *Quinſy*.

PARENCEPHALIS, (from παρα, near, εγκεφαλος, the brain). The cerebellum.

PARISTHMIA, (παρισθμια, from παρα, and ισθμιον). A part of the throat ſo called; the tonſils, or diſorders of the tonſils.

PARISTHMIOTOMUS. An inſtrument with which the tonſils were formerly ſcarified.

PAROPIÆ, παρωπιαι. The external angles of the eyes.

PAROPTESIS, (from οπταω, to roaſt). A provocation of ſweat, by making a patient approach the fire, or by placing him in a bagnio.

PARORASIS, παροραϛις. An imbecility of ſight.

PASMA, πασμα. *Catapaſma*.

PASSA. In Paracelſus it is a whitloe.

PASSULATUM. Is a term given by Diſpenſatory writers to ſome medicines, where raiſins are the chief ingredient, as the electarium paſſulatum, &c.

PASSUM. Raiſin-wine.

PASTA REGIA. A lozenge.

PASTILLUM, or *Paſillus*. A little lump of paſte, or ball, made to take like a lozenge, a troch, or paſtil.

PATOR NARIUM. The ſinus, cavity, or chaſm of the noſe.

PATRUM CORTEX. *Cortex Peruvianus*. So called from the Jeſuits, (called fathers in the church of Rome), who firſt ſpread its uſe in Europe.

PATURSA. The venereal diſeaſe.

PAULINA, CONFECTIO. It is a warm opiate. The London College have called it *Confectio Opiata* in their Diſpenſatory. It is the *Paulina* of Ariſtarchus, which is the ſame with the *Confectio Archigenis*.

PECHEDION, πηχεδεον. The perinæum.

PECHYAGRA. The gout in the elbow.

PECHYS, πηχυς. The elbow.

PECHYTYRBE. An epithet for the ſcurvy.

PECTEN. The pubes, or ſhare-bone

PECTUSCULUM. The metatarſus.

PEDECULATIO. Pediculation, *Morbus Pedicularis*, by the Greeks, φθειριασις. Is a particular foulneſs of the ſkin, very apt to breed lice: and is ſaid to be the diſtemper of the Egyptians, which we read of among the plagues with which God puniſhed that people.

PEDICUS. *Extenſor digitorum brevis*.

PEDION, πεδιον. The ſole of the foot.

PEDORA. The ſordes of the eyes, ears, and feet.

PEGE, πηγη, a fountain. The internal angles of the eyes are called *Pegæ*.

PELADA. A ſpecies of baldneſs, a ſhedding of the hair from a venereal cauſe.

PELIOMA, πελιωμα. An ecchymoſis when liver-coloured.

PELMA, πελμα. The ſole of the foot, or a ſock adapted to the ſole of the foot.

PELTALIS CARTILAGO, (from *pelta*, a buckler.) The ſcutiform cartilage of the larynx.

PELVIS AURIUM. The cochlea in the ear.

PELVIS CEREBRI. The infundibulum in the brain.

PEMPHIS. A ſpecies of *Lythrum*.

PEMPTÆUS, πεμπταιος. An ague, the paroxyſm of which returns every fifth day.

PENÆA. A ſpecies of *Polygala*.

PENIDIUM. A kind of clarified ſugar, with a mixture of ſtarch, made up into ſmall rolls. The confectioners call it barley ſugar.

PENIDIUM SACCHARATUM. *Penidium*.

PENIS CEREBRI. The pineal gland.

PENIS MULIEBRIS. *Clitoris*.

PENTADACTYLON. A name for the *Palma Chriſti*.

PENTAPHARMACON, (from πεντε, *quinque*, five, and φαρμακον, *remedium*, remedy). Is any medicine conſiſting of five ingredients.

PENTAPHYLLOIDES. Barren ſtrawberry.

PEPASMOS, πεπασμος. The ſame as concoction or maturation.

PEPASTICA. Digeſtive medicines.

PEPITA NUX. Ignatius's bean.

PEPLION, or *Peplos*. They were purging medicines, for evacuating bile and phlegm.

PEPTICOS, πεπτικος. Peptic. Such a thing as promotes digeſtion, or is digeſtive.

PERACUTE. Very ſharp. Diſeaſes are thus called, when greatly inflamed, or aggravated beyond meaſure.

PERCEPIER. Parſley-piert, or parſley-breakſtone.

PERCOLATION. Straining through (from *per*, through, and *colo*, to ſtrain). It is generally applied to animal ſecretion, from the office of the glands reſembling that of a ſtrainer, in tranſmitting the liquors that paſs through them.

PERDETUM. In Paracelſus it is the root of ſkirret.

PERETERION, (περητηριον, from περαω, to dig through). The perforating part of the trepan.

PERIAPTA, περιαπτα. People on whom amulets were fixed for the removal of a diſeaſe.

PERIBOLE, (περιβολη, from περιβαλλω, to ſurround). Sometimes it ſignifies the dreſs of a perſon; at others, a tranſlation of the morbific humours to the ſurface of the body.

PERICARPIA, (περικαρπια, from περι, *circum*, about, and *carpus*, the wriſt). Are medicines that are applied to the wriſt.

PERICHRISIS, περιχρισις. A liniment.

PERICHRISTA, περιχριστα. Any medicines with which the eyelids are anointed, in an opthalmia.

PERICLASIS, περικλασις, (from περι, about, and κλαω, to break). It is a term uſed by Galen for ſuch a fracture of the bone as quite divides it, and forces it through the fleſh into ſight. Or a fracture with a great wound, wherein the bone is laid bare.

PERIDESMICA, (*Iſchuria*). A ſuppreſſion of urine from ſtricture in the urethra.

PERIDROMOS, περιδρομος. The extreme circumference of the hairs of the head.

PERIERGIA, περιεργια. Is any needleſs caution or trouble in an operation, as περιεργος is one who diſpatches it with any unneceſſary circumſtances: both the terms are met with in Hippocrates, and others of the Greek writers.

PERIESTECOS, (περιεστηκως, from περιιστημι, to ſurround, or to guard). An epithet for diſeaſes, ſigns, or ſymptoms, importing their being ſalutary, and that they prognoſticate the recovery of the patient.

PERIGRAPHE, περιγραφη. An inaccurate deſcription or delineation. In Veſalius, *perigraphe* ſignifies certain white lines and impreſſions, ob-

ſervable in the muſculus rectus of the abdomen.

PERIN, περιν. A teſticle. Some explain it the *Perinæum*; others ſay it is the *Anus*.

PERINÆOCELE. A rupture in the perinæum.

PERINYCTIDES, περινυκτιδες. Little ſwellings like nipples; or, as others relate, puſtules or pimples, which break out in the night.

PERIPHIMOSIS, περιφιμωσις. See *Phimoſis*.

PERIPLEUMONIA. *Peripneumonia*.

PERIPYEMA, περιπυημα. Is a collection of matter about any part, as round a tooth in the gums: and,

PERIRRHŒA, περιρροια. Is a reflux of humours from the habit of the body into any of the larger emunctories for its excretion, as in an hydropſical caſe, of water upon the bowels or kidnies, where it paſſes away by urine or ſtool.

PERIRRHEXIS, περιρρηξις. A breaking off, or a ſeparation round about, either of corrupted bones, or of dead fleſh.

PERISCYPHISMUS, περισκυφισμος. An inciſion made acroſs the forehead, or from one temple to another, over the upper part of the os frontis, over the coronary future. It was formerly uſed when a conſiderable inflammation or defluxion in the eyes attended.

PERISTERMA, (from περι, *circum*, about, and *ſternum*, the breaſt-bone), expreſſes all on both ſides that part.

PERISTOMA, or rather *Periſtroma*, περιστρωμα, properly ſignifies any covering, but is applied by Pecquet to the mucous or villous coat or lining of the inteſtines, the ſame which Bilſius calls *Muſcum Villoſum*; Bartholine, *Cruſta Membranoſa*; and De Graaf, *Cruſta Vermicularis*.

PERISYSTOLE, περισυστολη. A pauſe or intermiſſion between the ſyſtole and diaſtole, which is by moſt denied to be perceived in healthy perſons, but when dying it is very ſenſibly felt.

PERITERION, περιτηριον. The perforating part of the trepan.

PERITONA ORIXIS. A burſting of the peritonæum, and conſequent hernia.

PERIZOMA, περιζωμα, ſtrictly ſignifies a girdle; but by Hildanus, and ſome other chirurgical writers, it is applied to ſuch inſtruments for ſupporting ruptures, which we commonly call truſſes. Some alſo expreſs by it the diaphragm.

PERSICUS IGNIS. A carbuncle. Avicenna ſays, it is that ſpecies of carbuncle which is attended with puſtules and veſications.

PERSISTENS FEBRIS. A regular intermitting fever, the paroxyſms of which return at conſtant and ſtated hours.

PES CAPRÆ. Goat's foot, a ſpecies of *Oxalis*; alſo a ſpecies of *Convolvulus*.

PES TIGRIDIS. Tiger's foot, a ſpecies of *Ipomæa*.

PETALODES, πεταλωδες, is by Hippocrates applied to an urine which hath in it flaky ſubſtances reſembling leaves.

PEUCE, πευκη. The pine-tree.

PEZA, πεζα. The ſole of the foot or the ankle. According to ſome, it is all under the tibia.

PHACODES, φακωδης, is uſed by Hippocrates for hypochondriacal perſons, whoſe complexions are of a lentil colour, as *upophacodes* is alſo applied by him to ſuch as are approaching to ſuch a complexion; and,

PHACOIDES, φακωειδης. Any thing in the ſhape of a lentil, as applied by Veſalius to the cryſtalline humour of the eye. Galen alſo makes mention of

PHACOPTISANA, φακοπτισανη. A liquor, or decoction of lentils, like what is now the common practice in

the country of boiling tares in drinks for raiſing the ſmall-pox, and the like uſes.

PHACOSIS, φακωσις. A black ſpot in the eye reſembling a lentil.

PHALACROSIS, φαλακρωσις. A decay of the hair.

PHALANGIUM. A name for ſeveral ſpecies of *Ephemerum*.

PHALANGOSIS, φαλαγγωσις. A double or a triple row of the eye-laſhes.

PHARYNGÆUM SAL. It is a ſalt formed with a ſolution of cream of tartar, nitre, and alum, in diſtilled vinegar. It is uſed for gargariſms in quinſies.

PHARYNGETHRON, φαρυγγον. The fauces or pharynx.

PHASEOLUS ZURRATENSIS. Cow-age, ſtinking beans, or cow-itch, the *Dolichos Pruriens*.

PHAUSINGES, φαυσιγγες. Red circles in the legs, excited by fire. It ſometimes is uſed to ſignify other kinds of ſpots, as well as red ones cauſed by the fire.

PHELLODRYS. The laurel-oak.

PHELLOS. A ſpecies of *Quercus*.

PHELYPÆA. A ſpecies of *Lathræa*.

PHENGITES, φεγγιτης. A luminous ſtone, capable of acquiring light, and diſpenſing it again.

PHYLADYNAMOS, φιλαδυναμος. An epithet of water, expreſſing the property of it, by which it diminiſhes the ſtrength.

PHILEMOT. It is the brown ſpecies of *Zinc Flos*; it is of a ruſſet-colour, of a ſcaly texture; it is mineralized by ſulphur, and often contains iron.

PHILIATROS, φιλιατρος. A ſtudent in medicine.

PHILONIUM. The name of an anodyne electary, deſcribed in moſt Diſpenſatories, from Philo, its author.

PHILTRON, (φιλτρον, from φιλεω, to kiſs). A love potion, or medicine to excite love. It ſignifies alſo the cavity or depreſſion of the upper-lip, which is ſituated under the ſeptum of the noſe.

PHIMOSICA, ISCHURIA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from a phimoſis.

PHLASMA, φλασμα. A contuſion, or colliſion.

PHLEBOPALIE, φλεβοπαλιη. The pulſation of an artery.

PHLEBORRHAGIA, (φλεβορραγια, from φλεψ, a vein, and ρηγνυμι, to break). A rupture of a vein.

PHLEGM, φλεγμα. In a human body, is the ſame as *Pituita*, which ſee; but among the chemiſts is much the ſame as Water, and is the common vehicle and diluter of all ſolid bodies; and, in proportion to its quantity in mixture, are the other more languid or diſabled in their attractive influences. It is much to be queſtioned, whether this can be drawn by diſtillation without ſome mixture: that which was the leaſt, muſt come neareſt to the nature of a principle, and, upon that account, rain-water is like to afford it moſt. In the former acceptation of this term,

PHLEGM OF ALUM. When alum is calcined, if the vapour ariſing from it is caught in a cloſe veſſel, it condenſes at firſt into an inſipid liquor, which becomes ſlightly acid towards the end.

PHLEGMAGOGUE, (φλεγμαγωγος, from *phlegma*, phlegm, and αγω, *duco*, to draw). Such a medicine as is ſuppoſed to purge phlegm.

PHLEGMATIAS, φλεγματιας. A beginning anaſarca.

PHLEGMATORRHAGIA. The name of a diſorder in which a flux of thin phlegm was diſcharged from the noſtrils.

PHŒNICIUS MORBUS, φοινικιος. The elephantiaſis.

PHŒNIGMUS, φοινιγμος. Red marks

or ſtains in the ſkin, as if red wine had been uſed to ſtain it.

PHOS, φως. Light; alſo the black circle about the pupil of the eye.

PHOSPHORUS. The name of a collyrium in Galen.

PHOXOS, φοξος. The ſugar-loaf ſhaped head.

PHRENISMUS. *Phrenitis*, or inflammation of the brain.

PHRENITIS APYREA. The ſame as *Mania*.

PHRENITIS INANITORUM. Madneſs from a faulty bodily ſtate.

PHRENITIS VOGELII. *Synochus*.

PHRICASMUS. Shivering.

PHRICODES, φριχωδης. A ſort of ſemitertian fever. According to the ancients, it was a ſort of fever, in which the patients trembled at the leaſt breath of air.

PHRYCTE, φρυκτη, in Latin *fricta*, ſimply, without its proper ſubſtantive, is *Reſina Colophonia*, black reſin, ſo called in diſtinction from the liquid ſort called *Hygra*.

PHRYGIUS LAPIS. The Phrygian ſtone. It is ſo called, becauſe the dyers in Phrygia uſed it much. It is produced in Cappadocia. Its uſes are the ſame as thoſe of the lapis calaminaris.

PHTHARTICOS, (φθαρτικος, from φθειρ, to corrupt). Deleterious, deadly.

PHTHERIASIS, φθειριασις. See *Phthiriaſis*.

PHTHEIROCTONON. A name for the ſtaves-acre: it is ſo called from φθειρ, a louſe, and κτεινω, to kill, becauſe it deſtroys lice.

PHYLACTERIOS, φυλακτηριος. A ſort of amulets or charms, to be worn externally for the cure of many diſeaſes; but theſe ſeem to have had their riſe when phyſic was ingroſſed by the monks and ſuch like holy cheats; but are now put out of countenance by the increaſe of true learning, and the extirpation of thoſe pious jugglers.

PHYLLITIDIS. A ſpecies of *Oſmunda*.

PHYLLYREA. A ſpecies of *Caſſine*.

PHYMOSICA ISCHURIA. A ſuppreſſion of urine, from a phymoſis.

PHYSOCELE. A windy tumour from φυσα, a flatus, and κηλη, a tumour, a wind-rupture, or windy tumour.

PHYSOCEPHALUS. An emphyſematous tumour of the head.

PICROCHOLOS, (πικροχολος, from πικρος, bitter, and χολη, bile). A perſon abounding with bitter bile, or a perſon ſubject to anger.

PILA HYSTRICIS. The bezoar of the porcupine.

PILEUS. The *Cucupha*. In anatomy, it is the coif with which ſome children are born; it is called *Pileus*, *Pileolus*, *Galea*, and *Vitta*.

PILMICTIO. A diſcharge of ſubſtances reſembling hairs with the urine.

PIPER CHIAPÆ. Jamaica pepper.

PIPER TAVASCI. *Caſſia Caryophyllata*.

PIPERINE. Things are thus called, which partake of the chief qualities of pepper, whether ſimples or compounds. Hildanus likewiſe applies *piperina* to baths in Helvetia, which he makes mention of in his works.

PIRCAL. So the Malabarians call an ulcerous ſwelling of the tibia, to which they are ſubject.

PISSACUM INDICUM. Barbadoes tar.

PISSELÆUM, (πισσελαιον, from πισσα, pitch, and ελαιον, oil). Oil of pitch. Wool is ſaid to be ſpread over boiling pitch, and when it is ſoaked with the riſing vapour, it is wrung into a veſſel; and this is repeated as long as the pitch is boiling.

PITYROIDES. An epithet for a ſort of ſediment in the urine, which reſembles bran.

PLADAROTES, πλαδαροτης. A fungous tubercle in the inside of the eye-lid.

PLAGA, πληγη, in a lax sense is taken for any disease: but more strictly is used to signify those which are external, and proceed from blows or accidents.

PLATÆ, πλαται. The scapulæ.

PLATANOIDE. The Norway maple, with plane-tree leaves; a species of *Acer*.

PLECTRUM, πληκτρον. Thus some call the sharp part of the os petrosum; and others apply it to other parts, as the uvula, the tongue, &c. but their authority is not much followed.

PLEROTICS, (from πληροω, *impleo*, to fill), are such medicines as *Incarnatives*.

PLEURORTHOPNŒA. According to Blanchard, it is a pleurisy in which the patient cannot breathe without keeping his neck erect.

PLEURosTHOTONOS, *vel Tetanus Lateralis*. A sort of tetany. It is when the body is bent to one side by the tetany.

PNEUMA, πνευμα. Spirit, air, vapour, or the breath. Hippocrates often uses the word *pneuma*, to signify a difficult or short breath.

PNEUMATOCELE, (πνευματοκηλη, from πνευμα, wind, and κηλη, a tumour). A flatulent hernia, or windy rupture. It is when wind is contained in the scrotum, when a descent of the intestines there is apprehended to have happened.

PNEUMATOMPHALOS, (πνευματομφαλος, from πνευμα, wind, and ομφαλος, the navel). An umbilical flatulent rupture.

PNIGMOS, πνιγμος, *Pnigma*, πνιγμα. The *Catarrhus Suffocativus* of aumors.

PODAGRA DENTIUM, is sometimes used for the tooth-ach.

PODAGRICA. The gout with fever.

POLYCHRESTON, πολυχρηστος, *ad multa utilis*. The same as *Polypharmacon*. A medicine of many virtues, or that will cure many diseases. It hath therefore been conceitedly given to many preparations and compositions, which have been far from deserving such encomium, and some of which yet remain in the common dispensatories.

POLYCHRESTRUM BALSAMUM. A balsam of guaiacum.

POLYMERISMA. Supernumerary limbs or parts.

POLYMORPHOS. Multiform, an epithet for the *Os Sphenoides*.

POLYURICA ISCHURIA. A suppression of urine, from a neglect to discharge it.

POPULARIS. Endemical, or epidemical.

POPULEON. The name of an officinal ointment from the poplar-leaves, which are its chief ingredient. Paracelsus will have it, that this mixed with any purging electary, and applied to the feet, will operate like a carthartic taken in the common way.

PORRUS. The same as *Sarcoma*.

PORTORARIUM. The duodenum, or the pylorus.

POSCA. Vinegar and water mixed.

POSTBRACHIALE. The metacarpus.

POSTHIA, ποσθια, of Galen. It is the *Ophthalmia Tuberculosa* of Sauvages. It does not appear to be any other than that species of hordeolum which Sauvages calls the *Hordeolum Siro*, which is an inflammatory scirrhous tumour on the edge of the eyelid. Some say it is the *Hordeolum Grando* of Sauvages.

PREHENSIO. The catalepsy.

PREMNON, πρεμνον. The extremity of the white of the eye.

PRESSURA. Inflammation of the finger-end, from the effect of cold. It is an instance of *Phlogosis Erythema* of Cullen.

PROCARDION. The pit of the ſtomach.

PROCTOLEUCORRHŒA. The ſame as *Proctorrhœa*, but ſo named from the diſcharge reſembling that of the whites.

PRODROMUS, προδρομος, is uſed in various ſenſes, but chiefly by phyſicians for any one diſtemper that is often the forerunner of another, as a vertigo is frequently the prodromus of an apoplexy.

PROGERMINUS, is applied by M. A. Severinus, to ſuch abſceſſes, as ariſe rather from a redundancy of humours, than putrid matter, as muſhrooms ſpring out of the earth.

PROGLOSSIS, προγλωσσις. The tip of the tongue.

PROJECTURA. An apophyſis.

PROLABIUM, (*pro*, before, and *labium*, the lip). The red part of the lips.

PROPHASIS, προφασις. *Procatarctic.*

PRORA. The occiput.

PRORÆ SUTURA. The lambdoidal ſuture.

PROSARTHROSIS. *Adarticulatio.*

PROSTATA. A ſuppoſitory.

PROSTHESIS, προσθεσις. In ſurgery, it ſignifies the ſubſtitution of artificial parts.

PROTHESIS. Adding artificial parts, as the applying a wooden leg, &c.

PROTRACTOR, is an inſtrument uſed by ſurgeons to draw out any foreign or diſagreeable bodies from a wound or ulcer, in the manner as the forceps.

PSELLOTIS. *Pſelliſmus.*

PSEUCROLUSION. Bathing in ſalt water.

PSEUDO-ASTHMA. An aſthma excited by an abſceſs, or a vomica in the lungs.

PSIDA, or *Pſidium*. Pomegranate-peel.

PSILOTHRON, ψιλωθρον, is an external form of remedy, uſed to take away hair from the body; ſignifying the ſame with *Depilatory*.

PSILOTHRUM. *Byronia Alba.*

PSOPHOS, ψοφος. Crackling, or rattling of the bones.

PSYCHAGOGICA. So Schneider calls thoſe medicines which ſuddenly raiſe the ſpirits, in faintings, and the like.

PSYCHROLUTRON, ψυχρολουτρον, is the cold bath, or waſhing in cold water; much uſed by the ancients to reſtore the tone of the parts after warm bathing, and to give a firmneſs to the body.

PTERNA. The *Os Calcaneum.*

PTYSMAGOGUE, from πτυω, *ſpuo*, to ſpit, and therefore expreſſes every ſuch diſcharge, whether it amounts quite to a ſalivation or not.

PUDENDAGRA. So ſome have called the venereal diſeaſe; *pudenda*, from *pudor*, ſhame. Others define it to be, pain or uneaſineſs in the genital parts of men or women, ſomewhat reſembling a diarrhœa, but without a dyſuria. Dr. Berdoe aſſerts, in his Eſſay on the Pudendagra, that it is diſtinct from the venereal diſeaſe, and alſo, that it is proper to women, but that a woman labouring under it, can communicate ſome inflammatory ſymptoms to the penis of a man who cohabits with her.

PUERILIS MORBUS. The epilepſy.

PULVINARIA. Cuſhions made with chaff, in which is mixed ſome medical ingredients coarſely powdered.

PUNCTUM AUREUM. It is when a hernia of the inteſtines is reduced, an inciſion is made through the ſkin and membrana adipoſa, quite down to the upper part of the ſpermatic veſſels; then a golden wire is to be fixed and twiſted, ſo as to prevent the deſcent of any thing down the tunica vaginalis.

PURPURA ALBA. A ſpecies of eruption to which men with a phlegmatic plethora are inclined.

PYCNOTICA. Incraſſating medicines.

PYRENOIDES PROCESSUS. The odontoid proceſs of the ſecond vertebra.

PYRÆNUS, (from πυς, *ignis*, fire, and οινος, *vinum*, wine), is rectified ſpirit of wine, thus called, becauſe it is made by fire, or rather rendered of a fiery nature, ſo as to be totally inflammable.

PYROTECHNY, (from πυς, *ignis*, fire, and τεχνη, *ars*, art). The art of chemiſtry, becauſe fire is the chief inſtrument the chemiſts makè uſe of. Some alſo have uſed it to ſignify the art of fireworks.

PYROTICS. Medicines that are actually or potentially hot, ſuch as will burn the fleſh, and raiſe an *eſchar*, from πυς, *ignis*, fire.

PYULCON, (πυελκον, from πυον, pus, and ελκω, to draw). An inſtrument to fetch out the matter from the cavity of the breaſt, or any ſinous ulcer.

Q.

QUADRAGESIMUS DIES. The fortieth day. The ancients fixed on this day as the laſt to which acute diſtempers could extend, calling all thoſe chronical which continued longer. But Dr. James obſerves that he hath ſeen an acute diſeaſe which continued ſixty days.

QUADRIGA, *Cataphracta*. A bandage for the ſternum and ribs. It is twenty-four feet long, three or four fingers broad, with two heads: it binds upon the thorax and ſternum more firmly when the ribs are fractured: the middle is placed on one ſide of the body, the two heads are carried ſo as to interſect on the oppoſite ſhoulder: they are brought back to where they began, and then paſs circularly round the body.

QUARTARIUS. A meaſure which contains about four ounces.

QUARTATIO. Quartation: it is an operation in chemiſtry by which the quantity of one thing is made equal to a fourth part of the quantity of another thing. Thus when gold alloyed with ſilver, is to be parted, we are obliged to facilitate the action of the aqua fortis, by reducing the quantity of the former of theſe metals to one fourth part of the whole maſs, which is done by ſufficiently increaſing the quantity of the ſilver, if it be neceſſary. Some extend this name to the operation of parting.

QUATRIO. The aſtralagus.

QUERCERA. *Epialos*.

QUIETALES. Diſeaſes in which the voluntary and involuntary motions, and the ſenſes, are diminiſhed.

QUINA QUINA. The Peruvian bark.

QUINCUNX. A five-ounce meaſure.

QUINTA ESSENTIA. Quinteſcences; they are made by adding to any eſſential oil twelve times its quantity of pure alcohol of wine, and ſhaking them together ſo that the oil may not appear. If theſe are diſtilled in a cloſe veſſel, with a fire of 90 degrees by Fahrenheit's thermometer, the alcohol will riſe with only the preſiding ſpirit of the oil; and if with care the thinner part is ſeveral times ſeparated from the thicker, by repeated gentle cohobation, the alcohol will at length be ſo impregnated with thoſe oily ſpirits as

to appear to be almoſt pure ſpirit itſelf, leaving a groſs exhauſted oil behind. Dry quinteſcences are made by diſſolving an aromatic oil in alcohol of wine, then adding to them ten times their weight of ſugar, finely powdered, then placing them in a proper place and veſſel for exhaling the ſpirit from the ſugar, but preſerving it from being loſt. Thus the ſugar will remain dry, but with the virtues of the aromatic oil in it. ℈j. in a glaſs of wine, is a good cordial.

QUISQUILIUM. A grain of chermes.

R.

RACHITÆ. The ſemiſpinal muſcles are thus called by ſome.

RADICAL MOISTURE. A term that ſome have had ſtrange notions about; but if it be limited to any intelligible ſignification we can underſtand by it nothing elſe but the maſs of blood, which is the promptuary from whence all other fluids in a human body are derived.

RADULA. A wooden ſpatula or a ſcraper.

RAMEX. An hernia.

RAMEX VARICOSUS. A varicoſe hernia.

RECEPTARII MEDICI. So Langius calls thoſe who ſet up for phyſicians upon the ſtock only of a great many receipts, without being able to reaſon about their properties or efficacies.

RECIPROCATION. When two diſeaſes or ſymptoms alternately ſucceed one another.

RECREMENT, ſometimes ſignifies any ſuperfluous matter mixed with another that is uſeful; and ſometimes ſuch ſecreted juices in the body as are afterwards of uſe to the œconomy.

RECRUDESCENT. When any diſtemper returns that was gone off; as the paroxyſms of intermittents.

RECURSUS, is uſed by Bellini for the repetition of paroxyſms in an intermittent.

REDINTEGRATION. Chemiſts thus call the reſtoring any mixed body or matter, whoſe form has been deſtroyed, to its former nature and conſtitution.

REGIUS MORBUS. The kingly diſeaſe. The jaundice is thus called, but for what reaſon does not well appear.

RENUENTES, (from *renuo*, to nod backwards), are the ſame muſcles as the *Rectus Major capitis* and *Minor*, thus called from their office.

RESUMPTIVA. Reſtoratives; they differ not much from agglutinant corroboratives, and their manner of operating in the ſame way, may be accounted for, only that reſtoratives are more adheſive and ſubtle, whereby they enter into the nouriſhment of the remoteſt parts.

REVULSION, (from *revello*, to pull back), is the calling back any humour by evacuation.

REVULSORIA. Means which procure revulſion.

REVIVIFICATION. Fetching again to life. Chemiſts uſe this term to expreſs the procuring again ſome metals in their natural ſtate from the mixtures they may have been blended with by ſome preparations, as

quickſilver is revived from cinnabar, &c.

RHABDOIDES, (ῥαβδοειδης, from ῥαβδος, a ſtrait twig, and ειδος, form). A name for the ſagittal ſuture.

RHACHISAGRA, (from ῥαχις, the ſpine of the back, and αγρα, a prey). A ſpecies of gout, fixed in the ſpine of the back.

RHACHIÆI, ραχιαιοι, or *Rachitæ*, ραχιται. The muſcles belonging to the ſpine of the back.

RHICNOSIS, ῥικνωσις. Lean and wrinkled.

RHOCAS. The watery eye.

RHOCHMOS. Snoring or ſnorting through the fauces.

RHODON, (from ῥοδον, *roſa*, a roſe). Some compoſitions wherein this is the chief ingredient, have their names from hence, as *Diarrhodon*, &c.

RHODOSACCHARUM, (from the former, and *ſaccharum*, ſugar), is ſugar of roſes.

RHŒAS, ῥοιας. The watery eye.

RHOPALOSIS, ῥοπαλωσις. The ſame as *Plica*.

RHYTHM, ῥυθμος, is uſed to expreſs a certain number of pulſes in any given time.

RIGATION. The ſame as *Irrigation*. The ſprinkling or moiſtening any thing or part.

RIGOR NERVOSUM. Tetanus.

RONCHUS, ῥογχος. Snorting or ſnoring through the fauces.

ROSA SINENSIS. A ſpecies of *Hibiſcus*.

ROSACEA, or *Roſata*. A name given to many compounds, where roſes are the principal ingredients.

ROSALIA. A diſtemper taken notice of by Martian, in his notes upon Hippocrates, very common to children, not much unlike the meaſles; and wherein broke out ſmall red pimples of the bigneſs of millet-ſeed; probably the ſame as our *Febris Miliaris*, unleſs in the colour at the eruption.

ROSTRIFORMIS PROCESSUS, (from *roſtrum*, a beak, and *forma*, ſhape). The ſame as *Coracoides*.

ROSTRUM, is uſed to expreſs the pipe which conveys the diſtilling liquor into its receiver, in the common alembics; alſo for crooked ſciſſars, which the ſurgeons in ſome caſes make uſe of for the dilatation of wounds.

ROSTRUM LEPORINUM. The piece of fleſh which hangs betwixt the diviſion of the hare-lip, the hare-lip is alſo thus named.

ROTATOR MINOR, The leſſer trochanter.

ROTATOR MAJOR. The greater trochanter.

ROTATOR NATIS. The great trochanter.

ROTROU'S SOLVENT. Crude antimony mixed with three parts of nitre, and expoſed to the fire in a crucible, loſes all its phlogiſton by the action of the nitre. The mixture enters into a paſte-like fuſion; it is then poured on a marble, pulveriſed and kept in a bottle.

RUSMA. An ingredient of a compoſition uſed to take off hair, without the trouble of ſhaving. For being mixed up into a thin paſte with an equal quantity of quicklime, and a ſufficient proportion of water, and rubbed over any hairy part of the body, it will, in the ſpace of a minute or two, ſo looſen the hair by the roots, that it may be gently ſtroked off with the hand. This method of taking off hair is much practiſed among the Turks, the Italians, and the French. The *Ruſma Tartarorum* is ſaid to be a preparation of honey, boiled to a high conſiſtence, and applied in the manner of a plaſter; but the genuine *Ruſma* is a ſpecies of earth found in Turkey, and otherwiſe called by the

name of *Susma*. There is mention made of it in the Philosophical Transactions for the month of December, in 1666.

RYTHMUS, ῥυθμος, measure. A term used by musicians with respect to time in music; but since Herophilus applied it to the pulse: it is used to express the time, motion, or modulation of the pulse.

S.

SABAUDA. Savoy cabbage; a species of *Brassica*.

SABDARIFFA. A species of *Hibiscus*.

SACER. Some give this name to part of the *Transversalis Dorsi*.

SACER IGNIS. The holy fire. Some have fancied to give this name to a *Herpes exedens*, but it does not appear from what reason: as also is,

SACER MORBUS, given to the epilepsy, upon the apprehensions of somewhat supernatural being concerned in its production or cure.

SACCULUS CHYLIFERUS. The same as *Receptaculum Chyli*; and,

SACCULUS CORDIS. The *Pericardium*.

SACCULUS LACRYMALIS. The lacrymal sac.

SACCUS. The *Intestinum cæcum*.

SACCULI MEDICINALES. Bags of ingredients to be suspended in liquors in making diet-drinks.

SACRA HERBA. *Verbena*.

SACRA VENA. It sometimes proceeds from the bifurcation of the *Vena Cava*, at others from the origin of the left *Iliaca*, and accompanies the artery of that name.

SALITURA. A pickle made with salt; the same as *Muria* or brine.

SALSUGO. Any salt pickles, or brines.

SALUTATORES. Saluters. There were a set of enthusiasts or impostors in Spain, of the order of St. Catherine, who pretended to the cure of many diseases, by touching or breathing only upon the patient, in their ordinary intercourses with them.

SAMPSYCHINON, σαμψυχινον. A name which hath been given to an oil, and an ointment wherein marjoram was the chief ingredient; from *Sampsuchus*, a synonimous term for that plant.

SAMYEL. A wind that blows in some parts of Arabia. It is quickly destructive, and soon after death, the putrefaction is so great that the limbs of a man may easily be separated from the trunk. It is similar to the hermattan in its effects.

SANCTUS. Holy. This hath been applied to many things, both simple and compound, as whimsical persons have conceited of their virtues; as the *Guiacum* is called *Lignum Sanctum*, and even our own dispensatories retain a purging powder under the title of *Pulvis Sanctus*.

SANDYX. Ceruse burned till it resembles the red arsenic in colour; or is a red earth, the same probably as the red orpiment.

SANOIDES, σανωδης. Where the breast is straitened or flattened, like σανις, a table; flat-chested.

SAPA. The name of an old form of medicine like rob, which is a juice boiled up to some consistence; strictly that of grapes, though used

also for others ordered after the same manner.

SAPIENTIÆ OLEUM. Oil of bricks.

SARCOMPHALON, (σαρκομφαλον, from σαρξ, flesh, and ομφαλος, the navel.) A fleshy excrescence at the navel.

SARCOMPHALUS. A species of *Rhamnus*.

SARCOPHYIA, σαρκοφυια. A sarcoma.

SARCOTICS, σαρκωτικα. From the same derivation, are medicines that fill up ulcers with new flesh, the same as *Incarnatives*. Many other words are also compounded at pleasure, from the same foundation.

SARDIASIS. Involuntary convulsive laughing, or rather the cynic spasm.

SCHÆNOPRASUM. Chives, a species of onion.

SCAPELLATUM. Is by some authors used in the same sense as the Greeks applied *phimosis*, φιμωσις, for a denudation of the glands of the penis, when the prepuce could not be drawn over it.

SCELOTYRBE, (σκελοτυρβη, from σκελος, *crus*, the leg, and τυρβη, *tumultus*, uproar). Signifies those pains in the legs that generally attend scorbutic habits; whence it is also frequently used for the scurvy itself, and applied to some medicines contrived against such disorders.

SCELOTYRBE FESTINANS. A variety of idiopathic convulsion.

SCELOTYRBE VERMINOSA. A variety of symptomatic convulsion.

SCHESIS, σχεσις. Is a disposition of the body accidentally contracted, not yet so fully confirmed, but that it may easily again be altered; in distinction from εξις, which is a confirmed habit. Hence also *Schetica Febris*, is one that will soon give way to remedies, contrary to the hectica, which is so confirmed in the habit as not to be removed but by long time and great difficulty.

SCHLOT. The brine from which table salt is obtained, is evaporated in large iron pans. At the beginning of the evaporation, the detached earth and the selenities separate and precipitate; and the selenites carries with it a great quantity of Glauber's salt. This precipitate forms a matter which has an earthy appearance, and is called *Schlot*, or *Scratch*, by the workmen.

SCIRRHOSIS, (σκιρρωσις, from σκιρρόω, *induro*, to harden). An induration of the glands, as happens frequently to the liver in a jaundice, and the like.

SCLEROPHTHALMIA, σκληροφθαλμια. Is a lippitudo dura, wherein the eye-lids turn out red, hard, and dry, and very difficult to cure.

SCLEROTICS. Medicines which harden and consolidate the parts they are applied upon.

SCOLIOSIS, σκολιωσις. A species of *Gibber*.

SCOPUS, σκοπος, scope. It is by some used in the same acceptation as *Intention*, or *Indication*: but others have very critically distinguished between them.

SCOTODINE, σκοτοδινη, or *Scotodinos*. A vertigo attended with dimness of sight.

SCOTOMIA, σκοτωμα. The same as *Amaurosis*; a transitory blindness.

SCOTOS, σκοτος. Darkness or dimness of sight.

SCROTUM CORDIS. The *Pericardium*.

SECESSION. The going off by secretion, as the excrements are particularly said to be formed by the secession of those parts whereof they consist, from the animal fluids through their proper outlets.

SEDANTARIA OSSA. So Daventer calls the protuberances of the os coxendicis upon which we sit.

Semispeculum. An inſtrument deſcribed by Hildanus for dilating the neck of the womb.

Separatorium. A ſeparatory; the name of an inſtrument for ſeparating the pericranium from the cranium; alſo a chemical veſſel for ſeparating liquors.

Sephiros. A word uſed by Bencius about 1448, being a corruption of *ſcirrhus*.

Sicyedon, σικυηδον. A tranſverſe fracture.

Sideration, is either ſuch a ſudden mortification, as the common people call a blaſt, or is a ſudden deprivation of ſenſe, as in an apoplexy.

Sief. The name of an ancient form in medicine, amongſt the Arabians, but now out of uſe.

Simplex oculus. A ſingle-headed roller, uſed as a bandage for one eye; when uſed for both eyes, it is rolled up into two heads.

Siphac. An Arabian name for the *Peritonæum*.

Siriasis, σιριασις. Inflammation of the brain.

Sitiologice, (from σιτος, aliment, and λεγω, to ſpeak). That part of medicine which treats of aliments.

Solen, σωλην, a cradle for a broken limb. Any tube or channel.

Solitarii. Diſeaſes affecting any one part of the body.

Spagyric medicine, or *Spagyrical Art*, is the ſame as chemiſtry, the word importing to extract, or collect, or gather together; becauſe it teaches how to extract and ſeparate the purer parts of ſubſtances from mixed bodies.

Spagyrist. The ſame as a chemiſt.

Spanopogon, σπανοπωγων. Thinly bearded.

Sparadrap. An ancient name for what we now call a cere cloth.

Sparganosis, σπαργανωσις. A milk abſceſs.

Specillum. A probe.

Specillum. An inſtrument with which ſurgeons ſearch wounds, in the manner of a probe.

Speculum matricis. An inſtrument to do the ſame office with reſpect to matter obſtructed in the womb, or to aſſiſt in any manual operation relating thereto.

Sphacelismus, σφακελισμος. Inflammation of the brain.

Spheristicos, σφαιριστικος. One ſo called by Galen, who exerciſes at that game by balls, which we commonly call *Racket*, for their health; and hence the place ſo made uſe of, was called the *Sphæriſterium*.

Sphinx, σφιγξ. The name of a fictitious being ſaid to puzzle Oedipus the Theban with riddles; whence ſome have juſtly enough called the ſtrange notions of the chemiſts *Sphingis Ænigmata*.

Splanchnics. Such medicines as are ſuppoſed to cleanſe the bowels and viſcera.

Spodium, σποδιον. The *ſpodium* of Dioſcorides and of Galen, are now not known in the ſhops. It is ſaid to have been produced by burning cadmia alone in the furnaces; for having thrown it in ſmall pieces into the fire, near the nozzle of the bellows, they blow the moſt fine and ſubtle parts againſt the roof of the furnace; and what was reflected from thence was called *ſpodium*. It differed from the pompholyx in not being ſo pure, and in being more heavy. Pliny diſtinguiſhes ſeveral kinds of it, as that of copper, ſilver, gold, and lead.

Spondylus, σπονδυλος. Some have thought fit to call the ſpine, or back bone thus, from the ſhape and fitneſs of the vertebræ, to move every way upon one another.

Spongoides, (σπογγοειδης, from σπογγος, a ſponge, and ειδος, *forma*, ſhape). Is the ſame as *Os Cribri-*

forme, becauſe it is hollow and porous like a ſponge or ſieve.

STACTE, στακτη. Signifies that kind of myrrh which diſtils or falls in drops from the tree. It is alſo uſed by ſome writers for a more liquid kind of amber than what is commonly met with in the ſhops; whence in Scribonius Largus, Ægineta, and ſome others, we meet with a collyrium, and ſeveral other forms, wherein this was the chief ingredient, diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Stactica*.

STAPHIS, σταφις, is ſtrictly a grape, or a bunch of grapes; whence from their likeneſs thereunto it is applied to many other things, eſpecially the glandulous parts of the body, whether natural or diſtempered.

STAPHYLE, σταφυλη. The *Uvula*.

STATIONARIA FEBRIS. A ſtationary fever. So Sydenham called thoſe fevers which happen when there are certain general conſtitutions of the years, which owe their origin neither to heat, cold, dryneſs, nor moiſture, but rather depend on a certain ſecret and inexplicable alteration in the bowels of the earth, whence the air becomes impregnated with ſuch kinds of effluvia, as ſubject the body to particular diſtempers, ſo long as that kind of conſtitution prevails, which, after a certain courſe of years, declines and gives way to another.

STEATOCELE, στεατοκηλη. A ſpecies of *Hernia* cauſed by a collection of ſuetty matter in the ſcrotum, derived from στεαξ, ſuet, and κηλη, an hernia.

STEGNOSIS, (στεγνωσις, from στεγω *conſtipo*, to fix, or harden), is an obſtruction of the pores.

STENOTHORACES, στενοθωρακες, are thoſe who have narrow cheſts, and on that account are liable to phthiſical affections; and ſo of many others, from the ſame foundation.

STOMACHICA PASSIO. A diſorder in which there is an averſion to food, even the thought of it begets a nauſea, anxiety, cardilagia, an effuſion of ſaliva, and often a vomiting. Faſting is more tolerable than eating: if obliged to eat, a pain follows that is worſe than hunger itſelf.

STREMMA, (στρεμμα, from στρεφω, to turn). A ſtrain, or ſprain, of the parts about a joint.

STRIGIL, or *Strigilis*. An inſtrument to ſcrape off the ſweat during the gymnaſtic exerciſes of the ancients, and in their baths: *ſtrigils* were made of metals, horn, ivory, and were curved: ſome were made of linen.

STRIGMENTUM. The ſtrigment, filth, or ſordes, ſcraped from the ſkin, in baths and places of exerciſes.

STRYCHNOMANIA. So the ancients called the diſorder produced by eating the deadly nightſhade.

STUPHA. A ſtupe; the ſame as Fomentation.

STYGIA. Is aſcribed to a water made from ſublimate, and directed in moſt diſpenſatories, on a ſuppoſition of its poiſonous qualities, from *Styx*, a name given by the poets to one of the rivers in hell: the *Aqua Regia* is alſo thus ſometimes called from its corroſive qualities.

STYMATOSIS. Bloody diſcharges from the pelvis.

SUBOCCIPITALES, NERVI. So the tenth pair of nerves are called, which proceed from the head.

SUBTILIZATION. Making any thing ſmaller, ſo as to riſe in vapour.

SUBUBERES. Hath been uſed by ſome writers for thoſe infants who yet ſuck, in diſtinction from thoſe who are weaned, and then are called *Exuberes*, from the two oppoſite prepoſitions *ſub* and *ex*, and *ubera*, the breaſts.

Succago. The rob of any fruit.

Succengens membrana. The *Diaphragm*.

Succubus. The ſame as *Incubus*, only that this is ſuppoſed of the female as that is an evil ſpirit of the male kind; but ſuch figments are now in deriſion.

Succussation, and *Succuſſion*, is ſuch a ſhaking of the nervous parts as is procured by ſtrong ſtimuli, like ſternutatories, friction, and the like, which are commonly uſed in apoplectic affections.

Suppedanea. The ſame as

Suppl antalia, (from *ſub*, under, and *planta*, the ſole of the foot), are any things applied for medicinal purpoſes to that part.

Sycosis, συκωσις. So the *Opthalmia Trachoma* of Sauvages is called, when its puſtules are thick or ſcabrous.

Sycosis, συκωσις. A fungous ſort of ulcer: alſo the tumour on the anus called by the Latins *Mariſca*.

Symbole, συμβολη, and *Symboliſm*, is ſaid either of the fitneſs of parts with one another, or of the conſent between them by the intermediation of nerves, and the like.

Symbologicæ. That part of pathology which treats of the ſigns and ſymptoms of diſeaſes.

Synastomosis. Is uſed much in the ſame ſenſe as *Anaſtomoſis*.

Syncysis, συγχυσις. It is when from the violence of an opthalmia the cornea is left opake or corroded, and there is the appearance of confuſion in the humours of the eye.

T.

Tabella. A morſel, is uſed for the ſame form of medicine as lozenge.

Tabum, is uſed by ſome authors to expreſs a kind of matter ariſing from a decay of natural heat, or due circulation; very different from what is commonly underſtood by *pus*, which is a ſalutary maturation, and wanting only vent, whereas the other is alſo moſt commonly attended with a gangrene.

Talpæ, and *Nates*, are tumours generally confined to the head, and appearing as the conſequence of the venereal diſeaſe. The *Talpæ* elevate the ſkin from the pericranium, and generally denote a foulneſs of the bone beneath: but the *nates* are uſually ſeated in the neck.

Taraxis, (from ταρασσω, to diſturb). A diſorder of the eye, ſuch as when it is offended by ſmoke, or too hard rubbing.

Temperantia, temperata. Signify often the ſame as ſweeteners or correctors, and ſuch things as bring the body to a due temperature.

Tenontagra. A ſpecies of arthritis ſeated in the larger tendons, from τενων, a tendon, and αγρα, a ſeizure.

Tepedarium. A room belonging to the ancient bathing-places, where perſons gradually prepared themſelves for entrance or going out.

Terebra, τρυπανον, is often uſed for the trepan, but ſometimes alſo for any inſtrument to perforate the

bones with, of other parts as well as the head.

TEREDUM. Signifies the ſame with *Caries*.

TERNARY. Conſiſting of the number three, which ſome chemical and myſtical writers have made ſtrange work with; but the moſt remarkable diſtinction of this kind, and the only one worth notice, is that of Hippocrates, who divides the parts of a human body into continentes, contentas, and impetum facientes, though the latter is reſolvable into the mechaniſm of the two former, rather than any thing diſtinct in itſelf.

TERRA CARIOSA. Rotten bone, a ſpecies of non-effervescent chalk, of a brown colour.

TERRA DAMNATA. Condemned earth, is the remainder after ſome diſtillations, where all that will riſe is drawn off; the ſame as *Caput Mortuum*.

TERRA MORTUA. The ſame as *Terra Damnata*.

TERTHRA. The middle and lateral parts of the neck.

TERTIUM SAL. A neutral ſalt.

TESSERÆ. The os cuboides.

TETARTOPHYA. Some reckon this fever amongſt the remittents. It is a continued quartan fever.

THEOPHRASTICI. The diſciples of Theophraſtus Paracelſus were by ſome thus called.

THERIACA, (probably from θηρ, *fera*, a beaſt, and ακεομαι, *ſano*, to cure). Becauſe it is applied to ſuch things as are chiefly calculated for curing the bites of poiſonous animals; and for the ſame reaſon good in all malignities. It was firſt given to the celebrated compoſition of Andromachus, which is one of our officinal capitals; but many writers ſince have alſo aſcribed it to many other medicines of like form and virtue.

THERIOMA, (θηριωμα, from θηρ, *fera*, a wild beaſt). Malignant ulcers.

THESSALICI. The diſciples of Theſſalus were by ſome thus called, who was the firſt of the ſect of the methodiſts.

THLASIS, θλασις. A depreſſion of a bone in the ſkull.

THYMION, θυμιον. A ſmall wart riſing upon the ſkin of the body; being ſomewhat ſlender, but flat; is hard and rough at the top. The worſt kind of them are thoſe which are apt to bleed.

TOPINARIA. The ſame as *Talpa*, a ſpecies of tumour in the ſkin of the head.

TORTICOLLIS. A kind of contracture, by which the neck is bent to one ſide.

TORTIO. A ſtrain in a joint.

TORTURA. A wry mouth.

TORTURA ORIS. The locked-jaw.

TOXITESIA. Mug-wort.

TRACHELOPHYMA. A bronchocele.

TRIORCHIS. A perſon with three teſticles; alſo a name for a ſpecies of *Orchis*.

TRIPASTRUM APPELLIDIS. A machine for reſtoring fractures and diſlocations, ſo named becauſe it reſembled a machine invented by Apellides and Archimedes, and becauſe it was worked with three cords.

TRITÆOPHYA, (τριταιοφυης, from τριταιος, tertian, and φυω, of a like nature, or original). It is an epithet of a fever much of a nature with a tertian, and taking its riſe from it. Some call it a Continued Tertian. It is remittent or intermittent.

TRITÆOPHYA CAUSUS. The *Cauſus* of Hippocrates.

TRITÆUS, τριταιος. The ſame as *Tritæophya*.

TROCHLOIDES. A particular

kind of articulation, and moſt remarkable in the firſt and ſecond vertebræ of the neck. See *Trochoides*.

TUBA ARISTOTELICA. The Euſtachian tube.

TUMIDI. Diſeaſes that enlarge the body or parts thereof.

TURBINATUM. The pineal gland.

TURUNDULA. Signify a tent for a wound, or any thing to be thruſt into an orifice or capacity.

TYPHODES, τυφώδης. A kind of ardent fever, ſuch as is uſually attendant on eryſipelas of any of the viſcera.

TYPHOMANIA, τυφομανια. In Galen's Exegeſis, it is ſaid to be a diſorder complicated of a pleuriſy and lethargy. Though the patient is delirious, he yet labours under a ſleepy coma. Dr. Cullen thinks it is a ſymptomatic kind of apoplexy.

TYROSIS, (from τυρος, cheeſe). A coagulating or curding of milk in the ſtomach, after the manner of cheeſe.

U.

UNGUENTARIA. The nutmeg.

URETEROTHROMBOIDES. Suppreſſion of urine, from clotted blood in the ureters.

URETEROPHLEGMATICA. Suppreſſion of urine from mucus in the ureters.

URETEROPYICA. Suppreſſion of urine from pus in the ureters.

URETEROSTOMATICA. Suppreſſion of urine from obſtruction in the lower orifice of the ureter.

URETHROPHYMENYDES. A ſuppreſſion of urine from a membrane rendering the urethra imperforate.

URETHROLITHICA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from a ſtone obſtructing the urethra.

URETHROPHLEGMATICA. A ſuppreſion of urine from mucus obſtructing the urine.

URETHROTHROMBOIDES. A ſuppreſſion of urin from c ogulated blood in the urethra.

URETHROPYICA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from pus obſtructing the urethra.

URETHRELMINTICA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from worms in the urethra.

URETHRITICA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from inflammation in the urethra.

URORRHŒAS. The urine paſſing from the urethra through ſome eroſion in the perinæum.

UTRICULUS. The uterus.

V.

VACCARIA. The *Uva urſi*.

VALLUM. The eye brow; alſo a ſpecies of bandage.

VELAMENTUM BOMBYCINUM. The interior ſoft membrane of the inteſtines, from *bombyx*, a ſilk-worm.

VESICULÆ DIVÆ BARBARÆ. The confluent ſmall-pox.

VETERNUM. The anaſarca.

VETERNUS. A lethargy.

VIRGA. Sometimes uſed for the *Penis*.

VISITATION. Epidemical and aeſtilential diſeaſes are by ſome thus called, from a ſuppoſition of their being ſent immediately from heaven as a token of divine wrath.

X.

XE

XERODES, ξηρωδες, expreſſes any tumour attended with the property of dryneſs.

XY

XYLON. The ſame as *Goſſypium*.

Y.

YPSILOGLOSSI. The muſcles called *Baſio-Gloſſi*.

Z.

ZI

ZAARA. A name for the morbous watching.

ZACCHARUM, and according to ſome *Zuccharum*, was the ancient name of what we now write *Saccharum*, ſugar.

ZERNA. An ulcerated impetigo; ſome expreſs by it *Lepra*.

ZIBACH. Quickſilver

ZIMOTECHNICS. The art of making bread and the different wines.

ZY

ZYTOHGALA, ζυθογαλα. Beer and milk, which together make what we commonly call *Poſſet-Drink*; a term often to be met wih in Sydenham.

ZZ. The ancients ſignify *Myrrh* by theſe two letters, from ζμυρνη, a name for it common amongſt them; but the late writers uſe them only for the *Zinziber*, ginger.

FINIS.

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